Frontiers of Experimental Condensed Matter Physics

■ **Part B: Excitations**

➤ Electronic structure:
  ➤ Revision of basic electronic properties
    ➤ Atomic character
    ➤ Bands and bandwidth
  ➤ Processes and nomenclature.
➤ X rays
  ➤ Spectroscopy based on absorption
    ➤ Structure from XAS and EXAFS
➤ Photoemission and electron spectroscopies
  ➤ Photoemission processes
    ➤ Auger and inelastic events
  ➤ X rays: XPS
    ➤ Core-level spectroscopy.
    ➤ Core shifts, final state effects
    ➤ Surface core-level shifts.
  ➤ Ultraviolet spectroscopy: UPS
    ➤ Kinematics, determination of band-structures
    ➤ Surfaces and surface states
   ➤ Photoelectron microscopy.

Atomic states

■ **Solids**

➤ The electronic character of the solid derives in large part form the atomic states of the constituent atoms.
➤ Many, general aspects of the electronic properties can be understood from the basic properties of hydrogenic orbitals and bonding in the independent electron approximation.

■ **Atoms:**

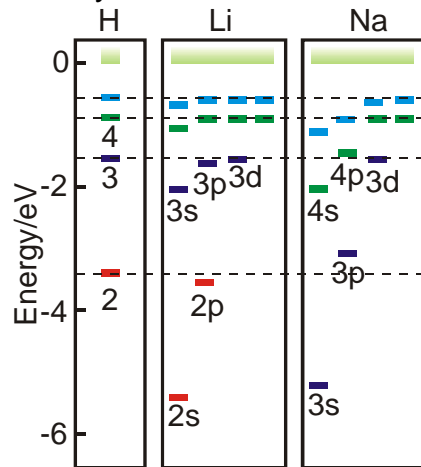➤ Hydrogenic wavefunctions:
  ➤ Quantum numbers:

  n l m

  principal ⟵   ⟶ projection of l
        angular momentum (s,p,d...)
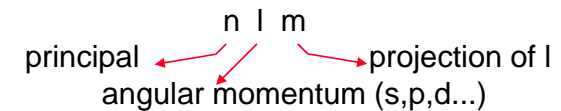
  ➤ For hydrogen (z=1), the value of l and m does not affect the energy

1s	lowest energy
2s, 2p (degenerate)	
3s, 3p, 3d (")	increasing
4s, 4p, 4d, 4f (")	energy

Hydrogenic states

■ *z*>1

➢ In atoms heavier than hydrogen the *l*-degeneracy breaks down.

H   Li   Na

Energy/eV

0

-2   3   3p 3d   4p 3d
      3s   4s

      2   2p   3p

-4

      2s   3s

-6

Note:

➢ As *z* increases penetration of wavefunction tail into the core lowers the binding energy. (Hence the *n* = 3 levels for Na overlap with the *n* = 2 levels in Li)

➢ The *s-p* gap for a given *n* increases with *z*. Hence, *sp* hybrids are more important in Gp. IV solids (Si, Ge) than Gp. VII (Cl, Br)

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Spatial extent of orbitals

➢ Spatial extent of the wavefunctions is determined by their l-value.

➢ For example: hydrogen (again):

$n=1$ $n=2$ $n=3$

$|r^2 R_{nl}(r)|$

$l=0$ $l=0$

$l=0$ $l=1$ $l=1$

      $l=2$

$r/\text{Å}$ $r/\text{Å}$ r/A
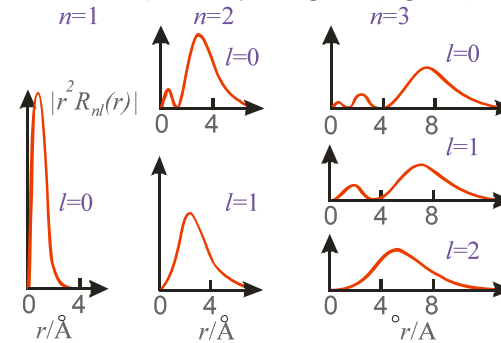
➢ Spatial extent increases with *n*, an obvious consequence of orthogonality.

➢ Higher *l*-values are more compact than lower *l*, for a given *n*. This too is a consequence of orthogonality. The angular variation in higher *l*-values allows orthogonality with the lower *n*-states without the need to expand in *r*.

➢ The spatial extent of an orbital determines the overlap with neighbouring atoms

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Overlap and bandwidth

- Tight binding model
  - The simplest and most intuitive model describing the electronic structure of a solid comes from tight-binding theory.
  - Atomic orbits are used to construct Bloch states.
  - First write the wavefunction, for a Bloch state, labelled, $\mathbf{k}$, as a sum of functions on lattice sites, j.

  $$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_j \exp(i\mathbf{k}.\mathbf{r}_j)\varphi(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_j)$$

  - The expression defines $\phi(r)$, known as a Wannier function.
  - It is easy to show this has the correct, Bloch form

  $$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{R}) = \sum_j \exp(i\mathbf{k}.\mathbf{r}_j)\varphi(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{R}-\mathbf{r}_j)$$

  $$= \exp(i\mathbf{k}.\mathbf{R})\sum_j \exp(i\mathbf{k}.(\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{R}))\varphi(\mathbf{r} - (\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{R}))$$

  $$= \exp(i\mathbf{k}.\mathbf{R})\psi_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r})$$

  simply another lattice vector, r_m, say

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Tight-binding model

- $\phi(r)$ can be represented as a sum over atomic states

  $$\varphi(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{nlm} c_{nlm}\varphi_{nlm}(\mathbf{r}) \approx \varphi^o(\mathbf{r})$$

- The approximation, above, uses a single atomic state. It is the simplest and is useful provided the state is well localised.
- Then the energy of the state, $\mathbf{k}$ is

  $$E_{\mathbf{k}} = \langle \psi_{\mathbf{k}} | H | \psi_{\mathbf{k}} \rangle = \sum_j \sum_m \exp(i\mathbf{k}.(\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{r}_m))\langle \varphi_m^o | H | \varphi_j^o \rangle$$

- For simplicity take a 1-D solid with atoms at $r = ma$.

  state, ϕ^o, at site m

- We can neglect all terms except the nearest neighbours $j=m$, $m\pm1$, since the matrix elements decrease rapidly with the separation of the wavefunction centres. Hence we get 3 terms

  $$E_k = \alpha \exp(ik.0) + \beta \exp(ika) + \beta \exp(-ika)$$

  $$\alpha = \langle \varphi_m^o | H | \varphi_m^o \rangle \qquad \beta = \langle \varphi_m^o | H | \varphi_j^o \rangle$$

  overlap integral

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Energy bands

➤ The energy band becomes

$$E_k = \alpha + 2\beta\cos(ka)$$

number of nearest neighbours

➤ Width of band directly proportional to the orbital overlap, β, and the bandwidth $\Delta E = 4\beta$.

➤ Note the factor 2 arises because we have two neighbours contributing. The analysis can easily be extended to 3-D. Assuming a cubic crystal we will have 6 neighbours (2 in x-direction, 2 in y and 2 in z). The band structure is

$$E_k = \alpha + 2\beta\{\cos(k_x a) + \cos(k_y a) + \cos(k_z a)\}$$

➤ The bandwidth is now $\Delta E = 12\beta$.

➤ We note that the other factor in determining the bandwidth is the number of neighbours (coordination number).

Shells and bands

■ Valence band

  ➤ For s-states $\beta < 0$; p-states $\beta > 0$. (N.B. in H, $V<0$)

p$_x$ band

s band

α

4β

$k_x = -\pi/a$ $k_x = 0$ $k_x = \pi/a$
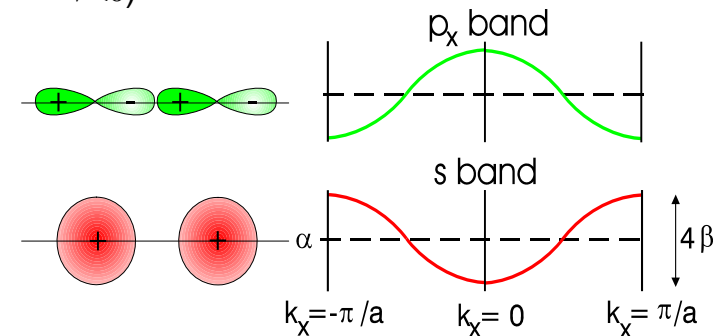
➤ Spatially extended atomic states gives overlap and hence broad bands.

  ➤ s-p bands typically 10-20eV

  ➤ d bands usually narrower since d-states are more compact (less overlap)
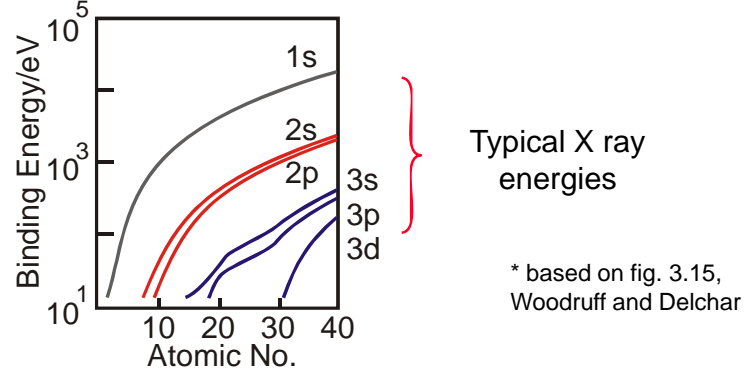
■ Core states

  ➤ Highly compact with negligible overlap

    ➤ bandwidth is negligible and the states are essentially the same as atomic states.
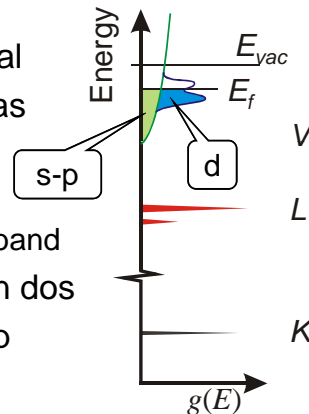
Generic density of states

- **Core levels**
  - The measured binding energy of core levels of the elements are*:

Typical X ray energies

* based on fig. 3.15, Woodruff and Delchar

- **Density of states**
  - Eg. Typical transition metal
  - Note core levels notated as
    - K, for 1s level
    - L, for 2s, 2p
    - V indicates the valence band
  - s-p band has free-electron dos
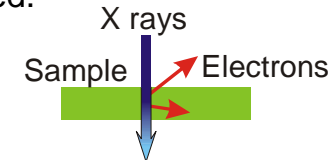 - d-states narrower than s-p
  - note E_f and E_{vac}.

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Core level spectroscopies

- **X ray absorption / photoemission**
  - If an incident x-ray has sufficient energy to excite a core electron into an empty state the x-ray is absorbed and (possibly) a photoelectron generated.

  - Both the absorption process and the photoelectron energy provide spectroscopic information about a sample.

- **X ray Absorption (XAS, EXAFS)**
  - XAS – x ray, absorption spectroscopy; EXAFS – extended, x ray, absorption fine structure.
  - An isolated atom gives a simple absorption edge
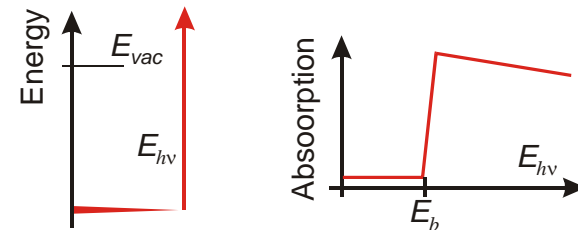
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X ray absorption

- The absorption spectrum for an atom gives little information of value.

■ **Absorption in a solid**

- In a solid, the process is more complex and interesting.

- The outgoing photoelectron scatters from nearby atoms and interferes with the outgoing wave. The scattering defines the final state into which the transition occurs and, therefore, affects the transition probability.

- The transition rate, μ, is given by Fermi's Golden rule:

$$\mu(h\nu) \propto \sum_i \left|\langle f|H_i|i\rangle\right|^2 \delta(h\nu - E_f - E_i)$$

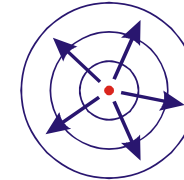final state   initial state   energy conservation

- The wavelength of the x ray exceeds the spatial extent of the initial, core state. So the dipole approximation is valid and the matrix elements become $\langle f|H_i|i\rangle \approx \langle f|\mathbf{e}.\mathbf{r}|i\rangle$ (A)

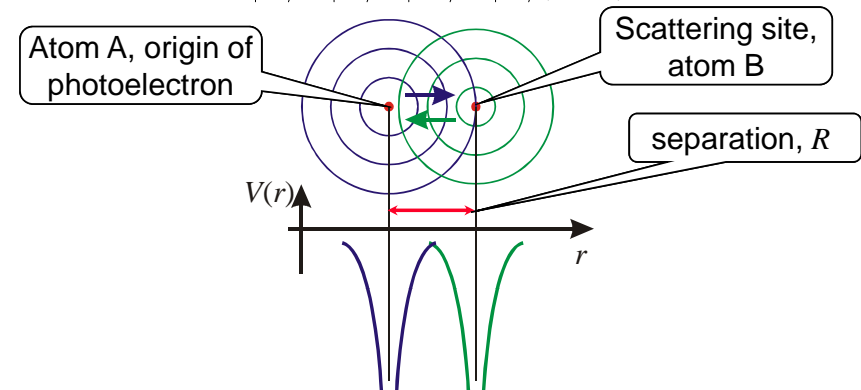polarisation vector for the x-ray

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Electron backscattering

- For an isolated atom $|f\rangle$ is simply a spherical wave.

- If there is a single, neighbouring atom then $|f\rangle$ is modified by the scattered wave

$$|f\rangle = |f\rangle + |\delta f\rangle = |f\rangle(1+\chi)$$

Atom A, origin of photoelectron

Scattering site, atom B

separation, R

$V(r)$

r

- Note the spherical wave is travelling through a region where the potential varies strongly so that phase shifts arise because of the potentials, as well as the distances travelled.

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➢ Amplitude of the wave at site B

phase shift travelling R

phase shift due to potential

$$\psi = \frac{\exp i(kR + \delta)}{R}$$

➢ The wave is reflected with a coefficient,

$$f_B(k) = |f_B(k)| \exp(i\delta_B(k)),$$

which includes a phase shift, δ_B, attributable to traversing potential V_B. Thus, the reflected amplitude at site A is

$$\chi = \frac{\exp i(kR + \delta)}{R} |f_B(k)| \exp(i\delta_B) \frac{\exp i(kR + \delta)}{R}$$

$$= |f_B(k)| \frac{\exp i(2kR + \phi(k))}{R^2}$$

(B)

$$\phi(k) = 2\delta + \delta_B$$

➢ Equations (A) and (B) contain the physics that allows the method to be used as a local, structural probe. Specifically

  ➢ (A) shows that there is a polarisation dependence to the absorption

  ➢ (B) shows there are interference terms with period $2kR$, where R is the distance to the neighbour.

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■ Practical approach

➢ In addition to the structural information, we need to include thermal vibrations (through a Debye-Waller type expression) and inelastic scattering of the photoelectrons (through a mean-free-path)

➢ The usual expression used to analyse experiment is

polarisation term

oscillatory term (structure)

$$\chi(k) = \sum_j \cos^2(\mathbf{R}_j.\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \frac{|f_B(k)|}{R_j^2} . \sin(2kR_j + \varphi(k)).$$

$$\exp(-2\sigma^2 k^2) . \exp(-2R_j/\lambda(k))$$

damping due to thermal vibrations

damping due to inelastic scattering

➢ The thermal vibration term contains an "effective" vibration amplitude, σ. In the harmonic approximation, $\sigma^2 \propto T$ (Debye-Waller type behaviour). However, we are sensitive to changes in the interatomic distance, which is unaffected by long-wavelength, acoustic phonons.

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Inelastic scattering

■ Attenuation length

  ➢ The main contributions to inelastic scattering are single particle events and plasmon excitation. The latter tends to dominate at higher energies.

 ➢ There is a "universal curve" (with some scatter) that characterises all materials.
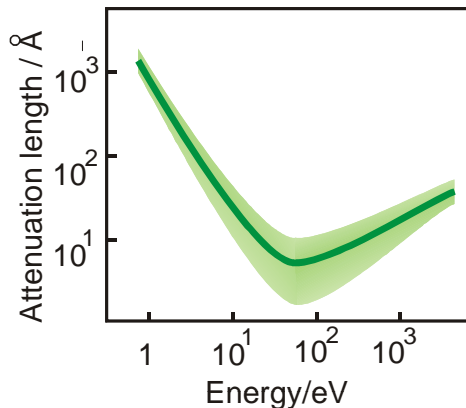
  ➢ For typical electron energies (10-1000eV), the attenuation length is extremely small ~10Å.

   ➢ Interference effects are only appreciable for local scatterers.

   ➢ Photoelectrons that leave the sample come from the near surface region.

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Methods

■ Bulk and surface studies

  ➢ The probe can be made sensitive either to the bulk or to the surface by changing the way absorption is measured.
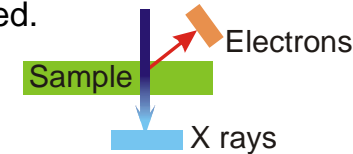
   ➢ Direct measure of x-ray flux transmitted gives a bulk probe.

   ➢ Measuring the photoelectron signal gives a surface probe.

  ➢ Experiment typically scans the x ray wavelength by monchromating the "white" synchrotron radiation. Crystal monochromater relies on diffraction (angle relates to wavelength)

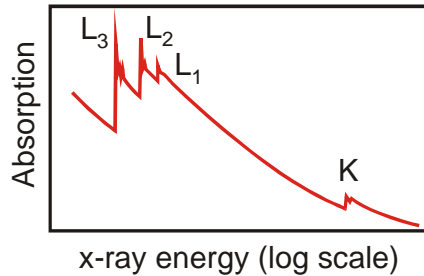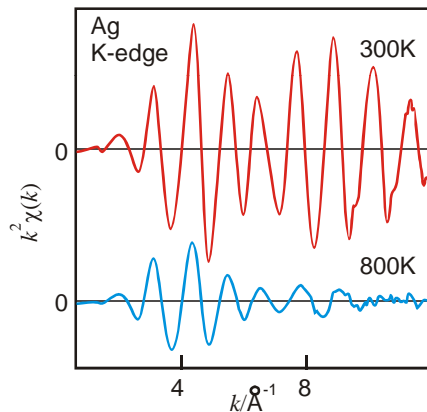   ➢ Need to normalise signal to the incident flux (varies with wavelength (and time).

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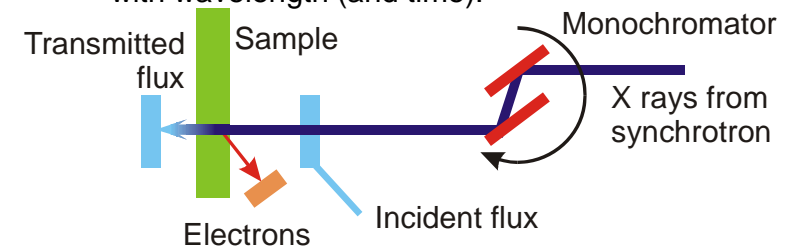
Examples

Simple metals

- Chosen to illustrate the method (See Rehr and Albers, Rev Mod Phys 72, (2000) 621)
- Absorption edges

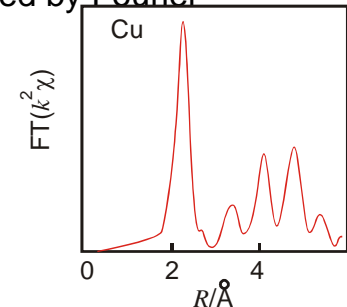
x-ray energy (log scale)

- After removal of edge itself one is left with the fine structure. (Note the temperature dependence)
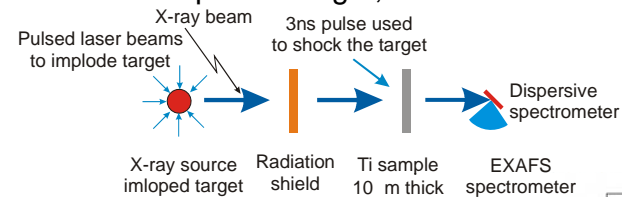

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- Simplest analysis is achieved by Fourier Transforming (see fig.).
  - Spacing of shells given directly.
  - More sophisticated modelling, using multiple scattering theory also possible – not shown.
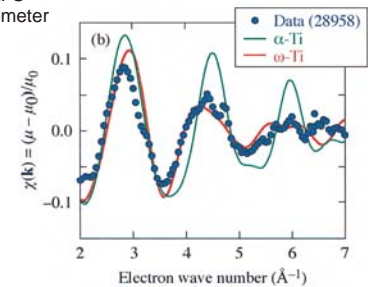

- Recent example (Yaakobi et al. PRL 92 (2004) 095504) EXAFS from shocked Ti.
  - Multiple laser beams: some generate x-rays in an imploded target; others shock the Ti sample

- Results indicate a phase change from α-Ti to ω-Ti. (The variety of nearest-neighbour distances in ω-Ti, explains the rapid decay in oscillations – it is not due to high T in the shock region)

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Absorption vs diffraction

■ Why use x ray absorption?

➢ In principle all structural information is present in the x ray diffraction pattern. In practice, the combination of diffraction (sensitive to medium and long range order) with a probe giving nearest neighbour bond-angles and lengths is valuable.

➢ For example, disordered structures clearly benefit from a local probe.

➢ There are other subtleties; Take, for example, a structure with multiple conformations. Diffraction sees the average lattice

R "seen" in x ray absorption

R of the average lattice, "seen" in diffraction
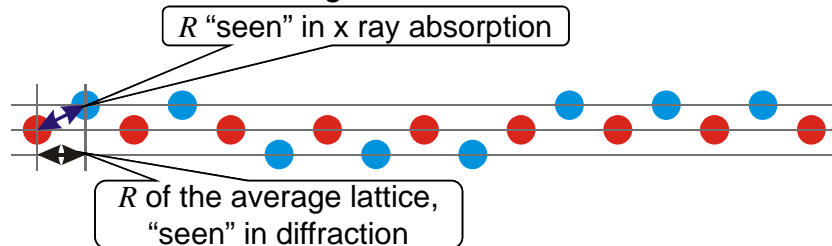
➢ A further benefit of EXAFS is that it can be made surface sensitive (by measureing the photoelectron yield) and hence give bond lengths (and angles) for surface adsorption etc.

EXAFS

■ Summary: X ray absorption

➢ Simple probe of local structure

➢ Has chemical sensitivity through the choice of the absorbing atom (which has its characteristics absorption edges)

➢ Doesn't require a crystalline sample, hence useful in amorphous systems and those with poor long-range order.

➢ Bond lengths (from the period of the oscillations) can be determined accurately ~ ± 0.02 Å

➢ Bond directions (from the polarisation dependence of the signal) can be determined qualitatively.

➢ Disadvantages:
  ➢ Only appropriate for relatively simple structures.
  ➢ Only sensitive to a few neighbouring shells.