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4 THE COHESIVE ENERGY CALCULATIONS OF SOME BCC (Li, Cr, Fe, Mo) LATTICES
5 USING DENSITY FUNCTIONAL THEORY

6

7 ABSTRACT

8 The cohesive energies of lithium (Li), chromium (Cr), iron (Fe) and molybdenum (Mo) were computed
9 using density functional theory (DFT). DFT based Fritz Haber Institute-ab initio molecular simulation
10 (FHI-aims) computer code has several input parameters in which some of the variables were
11 optimized. The cohesive energies of Li, Cr, Fe and Mo were calculated within local density
12 approximations (LDA) of Perdew Wang of DFT. The results obtained from the calculations of
13 cohesive energies of Li, Cr, Fe and Mo were approximately 1.82eV, 5.33eV, 5.35eV, and 8.02eV
14 respectively. This results obtained are in the neighborhood of experimentally found values of 1.63eV,
15 4.10eV, 4.28eV and 6.82eV respectively for Li, Cr, Fe and Mo respectively within reasonable
16 percentage errors.

17 *keywords: bcc; cohesive energy, DFT, ground state, lattice constant, total energy.*

18 1. INTRODUCTION

19 Cohesive energy calculations vis-à-vis the first principle total energy calculations using DFT is
20 considered satisfactory in the physics of condensed matter systems, material science and physical
21 chemistry. DFT has a wide application in molecules, bulk materials and surfaces; and remains a
22 reliable tool to analyze as well as predict non-equilibrium and equilibrium properties.

23 DFT being one of the most popular and quantum-mechanical approaches to many-body systems are
24 applied to computations of ground-state properties of molecules and the band structure of solids in
25 physics. In this computational research work, some selected body-centered cubic (BCC) lattices or
26 crystals were investigated using DFT based FHI-aims code as a tool to calculate the cohesive
27 energies of Li, Cr, Fe and Mo.

28 This research puts into perspective a single alkaline metal, Li and three transition metals Cr, Fe and
29 Mo. This choice is based on the importance of these materials for modern technology.

30 Electrochemical batteries as of today are the most (or one of the most) promising energy storage
31 technology in grid integration of renewables, electric vehicles, and electronics devices (Legrain F.C.G,
32 2016). The batteries have relatively high energy and efficiency and specific example of such batteries
33 is Li-ion battery. Also, lithium has been found effective in assisting the perfection of silicon nano welds
34 in electronic components for electrical batteries and other devices.

35 Stainless steel and chromium plating (electroplating with chromium) have high commercial use. Iron
36 as well as molybdenum is used in steel alloys, including high strength alloys and superalloys. Indeed
37 these materials have high industrial use and demands. Hence, the needs to further study the
38 cohesive energies of these materials using FHI-aims.

39 ur interest on structure and binding imply that the cohesive energy E_{coh} of a system is very important.
40 It is useful for studying binding strength in crystal structures and can help to gain information about
41 structural preferences of solids.

42 Cohesive energy is the energy that must be supplied to a solid or crystal to separate its constituents
43 into free atoms at rest and at infinite separation with the same electronic configuration (Kittel 1996,
44 Galperin, 2002). Cohesive energy is one of the parameters used to understand the nature of chemical
45 bonding and several important parameters can be predicted using it. Its magnitude tells us the
46 stability and chemical reactivity of solids. Eventually, it is the quantity which determines the structure,
47 because different possible structures would have different cohesive energies (Verma et al, 2010).

48 Many powerful methods for solving schrodinger's equation have been developed during decades of
49 struggling with the many-body problem. These methods are Nearly-Free-Electron Approximation,
50 Cellular Method, Augmented Plane-Wave method, Scattering Matrix Method, Pseudopotential
51 Method; and other methods. These methods are time-consuming, cumbersome and poses problems
52 to researchers in this field. Hence, DFT as a powerful tool replaces the many-body electronic wave
53 function used in the method mentioned above with the electron density as the basis quantity.

54 In calculating basic properties of solids like cohesive energy, lattice constants, band structures and
55 density of state, we use DFT as the most popular and successful quantum-mechanical approaches to
56 matter (Wienferink, et al,2011).

57 In this research, the cohesive energies of Li, Cr, Fe and Mo were computed based on DFT package
58 FHI-aims code in the range between 1.82eV and 8.02eV which is in reasonable agreement with
59 experimental data in the range between 1.63eV and 6.82eV.

60

61 **2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

62 Density functional theory (DFT) is a quantum mechanical technique used in physics, chemistry and
63 material science to investigate the structural and electronic properties of many body systems. DFT
64 has proved to be highly successful in describing structural and electronic properties in a vast class of
65 materials, ranging from atoms and molecules to simple crystals and complex extended systems
66 (including gases and liquids). DFT has become a common tool in first-principle calculations aimed at
67 molecular and condensed matter systems (Giannozzi, 2005: Parr and Yang, 1989).

68 Traditional methods in electronic structure theory, in particular Hatree-Fock theory and its
69 descendants are based on the complicated many-electron wave function. The main objective of DFT
70 is to replace the many-body electronic wave function with the electronic density as the basis quantity.
71 Whereas many-body wave function is dependent on $3N$ variables, three special variables for each of
72 the N electrons, the density is only a function of three variables and is a simpler quantity to deal with
73 both conceptually and practically.

74

75 **2.1 THE HOHENBERG-KOHN THEOREM**

76 It was Hohenberg and Kohn who stated a theorem that tells us that the electron density is very useful.
77 The Hohenberg-Kohn (H-K) theorem asserts that the electron density of any system determines all
78 ground-state properties of the system. In this case the total ground state energy of a many-electron
79 system is a functional of the density.

80

81 Let us consider a system of N interacting (spinless) electrons under an external potential $V(r)$ (usually
82 the coulomb potential of the nuclei). If the system has a non-degenerate ground state, it is obvious
83 that there is only one ground state charge density that corresponds to a given $V(r)$. In 1964,
84 Hohenberg and Kohn demonstrated the opposite, far less obvious result: there is only one external
85 potential $V(r)$ that yields a given ground-state charge density $n(r)$. The demonstration is very simple
86 and involves the disproof of a proposition by showing that it leads to absurdity.

87

88 For many-electron Hamiltonian $H=T+U+V$, with ground state wave function, ψ . T is the kinetic energy,
89 U is the electron-electron interaction. V is the external potential. The charge density $n(r)$ as defined by
90 Hohenberg-Kohn is

$$n(r) = N \int |\psi(r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_N)|^2 dr_2 \dots dr_N \quad (2.1)$$

Now considering a differential Hamiltonian $H' = T' + U' + V'$. V and V' do not differ simply by a constant: $V - V' \neq \text{constant}$ with the ground state wave function ψ' .

Assuming that the ground state charge densities are the same: $n[V] = n'[V']$. The following inequality holds:

$$E < \langle \psi' | H | \psi' \rangle = \langle \psi' | H' | \psi' \rangle + \langle \psi' | H - H' | \psi' \rangle \quad (2.2)$$

$$E < E' + \langle \psi' | T + U + V - T - U - V' | \psi' \rangle \quad (2.3)$$

That is

$$E < E' + \int n(r) [V - V'] dr \quad (2.4)$$

Conversely,

$$E' < E - \int n(r) [V - V'] dr \quad (2.5)$$

Adding (4) and (5) gives

$$E + E' < E' + E \quad \text{Contradiction!} \quad (2.6)$$

The inequality is strict because ψ and ψ' are different, being eigen state of different Hamiltonians. By reversing the primed and unprimed quantities, one obtains an absurd result. This demonstrates that no two potentials can have the same density. The first Hohenberg-Kohn (*H-K*) theorem that has a straight forward consequence is that of the ground state energy E is also uniquely determined by the ground-state charge density. In mathematical terms, E is a functional $E[n(r)]$ of $n(r)$. This is why this field is known as density functional theory (Sholl D.S and steckel J.A., 2009). We can write that:

$$E[n(r)] = \langle \psi | T + U + V | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | T + U | \psi \rangle + \langle \psi | V | \psi \rangle = F[n(r)] + \int n(r) V(r) dr \quad (2.7)$$

Where $F[n(r)]$ is a universal functional of the charged density $n(r)$ (and not of $V(r)$) also known as the *H-K* functional (Tuckerman, 2004). For this functional a variation principle holds: the ground state energy is minimized by the ground state charge density; this is the *H-K* second theorem. In this way, DFT exactly reduces the N -body problem to the determination of a 3-dimensional function $n(r)$ which minimizes a functional $E[n(r)]$. Unfortunately, this is of little use as $F[n(r)]$ is not known.

2.2 THE KOHN-SHAM (KS) EQUATIONS

In 1965, Walter Kohn and Lu Sham proposed an educated guess that later yielded results in which they reformulated the problem in a more familiar form and opened the way to practical application of DFT. The system of interacting electrons is mapped onto a fictitious or auxillary system of non-interacting electrons having the same ground state charge density $n(r)$. For a system of non-interacting electrons the ground-state charge density is represented as a sum over one-electron orbitals (the KS orbitals) ψ_i (Martin, 2004):

130
$$n(r) = 2 \sum_i |\psi_i(r)|^2$$

 131 (2.8)

132 Where i runs from 1 to $N/2$. If we assume double occupancy of all states, and the Kohn-Sham orbitals
 133 are the solution to the Schrödinger equation:

134
$$\left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V_{KS}(r) \right) \psi_i(r) = \epsilon_i \psi_i(r)$$

 135 (2.9)

136 In closed systems, suppose there is an even number of electrons, so that they all can be paired up
 137 and the external potential $V(r)$ is independent of spin. Spin-up and spin-down contribute equally to the
 138 total density:

139
$$n(\uparrow)(r) = n(\downarrow) = \frac{1}{2} n(r)$$

 140 (2.10)

141 Therefore, we only need $N_e/2$ Kohn-Sham orbitals, to each of which we assign an occupation number
 142 of $f=2$. These orbitals satisfy the orthogonality condition(Tuckerman, 2004):

143
$$\int \psi_i^* \psi_j(r) dr = \delta_{ij}$$

 144 (2.11)

145 Again the density can also be written as:

146
$$n(r) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_e/2} |\psi_i(r)|^2$$

 147 (2.12)

148 And the kinetic energy as

149
$$T_S = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_e/2} \langle \psi_i(r) | \nabla^2 | \psi_i(r) \rangle$$

 150 (2.13)

151 The existence of a unique potential V_{KS} in equation (2.9) having $n(r)$ as its ground state charge density
 152 is a consequence of the $H-K$ theorem, which holds irrespective of the form of electron-electron
 153 interaction, U . The problem is now to determine $V_{KS}(r)$ for a given $n(r)$. To solve this problem it is
 154 convenient to rewrite the energy functionals as:

155
$$E = T[n(r)] + E_H[n(r)] + E_{xc}[n(r)] + \int n(r)V(r)dr \quad (2.14)$$

156 The first term is the kinetic energy of non-interacting electrons. The second term called the Hartree
 157 energy contains the electrostatic interactions between clouds of charges. The third, called the
 158 exchange-correlation energy, contains all the remaining terms. The logic behind such procedures is to
 159 subtract out easily computable terms which accounts for a large fraction of the total energy. The only
 160 term for which no explicit form can be given is E_{xc} .

161 Utilizing the *H-K* theorem, we minimize the total energy with respect to the orbitals in order to obtain
 162 the orbitals that give rise to the ground state energy. While performing the minimization, we prefer to
 163 minimize with respect to $\psi_i^*(r)$ and $\psi_i(r)$. One can prove that both yield the same result.
 164 Just like regular differentiation, we can employ chain rule for the functional derivatives. This of course
 165 works for all the terms except for kinetic energy. Kinetic energy may be differentiated directly with
 166 respect to the orbital. We thus have:

$$167 \frac{\delta E}{\delta \psi_i^*(r)} = \frac{\delta T_s}{\delta \psi_i^*(r)} + \left[\frac{\delta E_{ext}}{\delta n(r)} + \frac{\delta E_H}{\delta n(r)} + \frac{\delta E_{xc}}{\delta n(r)} \right] \frac{\delta n(r)}{\delta \psi_i^*(r)} = \epsilon_i \psi_i(r)$$

168 (2.15)

169 Finally,

$$170 -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \psi_i(r) + \left[V(r) + \int d r' \frac{n(r')}{|r-r'|} + \left\{ \epsilon_{xc}(r) + n(r) \frac{\delta \epsilon_{xc}[n]}{\delta n(r)} \right\} \right] \psi_i(r) = \epsilon_i \psi_i \quad (2.16)$$

171 Where the first, second and third terms in the large brackets gives the KS potential:

$$172 V_{KS} = V(r) + V_H + V_{xc}$$

173 (2.17)

174 Where V_H is introduced as the Hartree potential, and the exchange-correlation potential, V_{xc} .

175 Equation (2.16) is a system of equations, which when solved simultaneously represents the many
 176 system in terms of single-particle orbitals.

177 So far, the entire field of DFT rest on two-fundamental mathematical theorems proved by Kohn and
 178 Hohenberg and the derivation of a set of equations by KS in the mid-1960's (Scholl and Steckel,
 179 2009).

180 3. METHODOLOGY

181 In this research, the main production method is DFT to compute the total energy and derived
 182 quantities of molecules and solids of condensed matter in its electronic ground state (Blum et al,
 183 2009). DFT in the LDA is used here. An all-electron full-potential treatment that is both
 184 computationally efficient and accurate is achieved for periodic and cluster geometries on equal
 185 footing, including relaxation and ab-initio molecular dynamics (Havu et al, 2009).

186 To calculate the cohesive energies, we first compute the ground state total energies of Li, Cr, Fe and
 187 Mo for single free atom and their bulk. The energies are then converted to the cohesive energies

188 using the equation: $E_{coh} = -\frac{E_{bulk} - NE_{atom}}{N} = -\left[\frac{E_{bulk}}{N} - E_{atom} \right]$

189 (3.1)

190 All calculations were carried out using FHI-aims code upgrade 6 (released on 17th July, 2011; version
 191 071711_6). It works on any Linux based operating system. Computations can only be carried out after
 192 building an executable binary file. FHI-aims package is distributed in a source code form and requires:
 193 a working Linux based operating system (ubuntu 11.10 in this case), a working FORTRAN 95(or later)
 194 compiler. In this case we use x86 type computer and therefore intel's ifort (specifically composerxe
 195 2011.6.233) was installed for this work, and also a compiler version of lapack library, and a library
 196 providing optimized basic linear algebra subroutines (BLAS). Standard libraries such as intel's mkl or
 197 IBM's essl provide both lapack and BLAS support. Intel's composerxe 2011.6.233 comes with mkl.

198 All necessary adjustment were made for building the executable binary file for running the code. FHI-
 199 aims require two input files: Control.in:- which contains all run time-specific information and
 200 Geometry.in:- which contains information directly related to the atomic structure for a given

201 calculation. The two input files must be placed in the same directory where FHI-aims binary file is
 202 invoked at the terminal.
 203 The FHI-aims input files are constructed and production run are made to give results in the output
 204 files.

205

206 **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

207 The results from the output files were used to generate tables of values which were in turn used to
 208 plot graphs of total energies against number of iterations in order to obtain optimized parameters for
 209 BCC (Li, Cr, Fe and Mo) lattices within LDA. The optimized parameters were then used to obtain the
 210 cohesive energies of the BCC lattices.

211 Below are results obtained for the calculations of cohesive energies and their discussion:

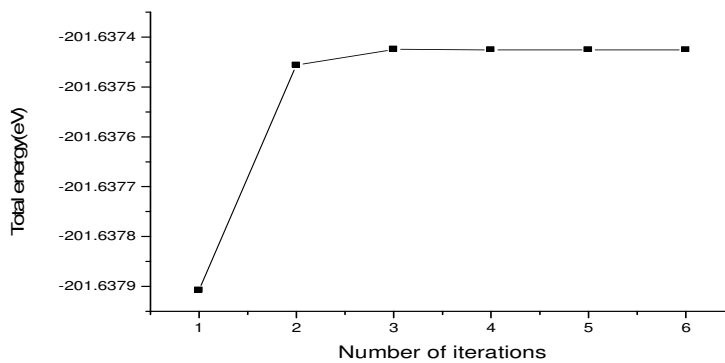
212

213



214

215 Fig.1. Binding curve of total energy against no. of iterations for pw-lda Li atom

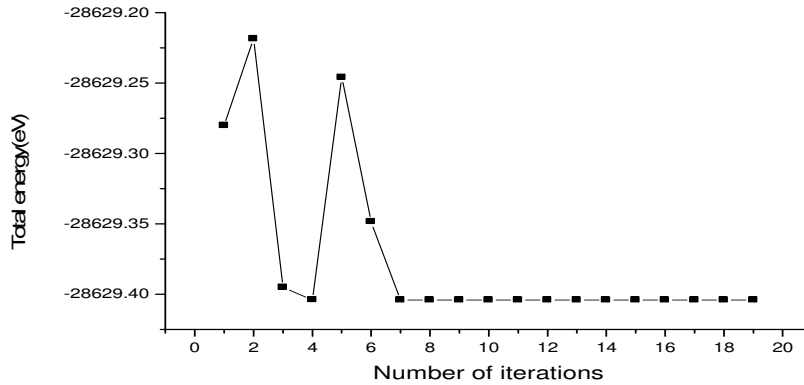


216

217 Fig.2. Binding curve of total energy against no. of iterations for pw-lda Li bulk

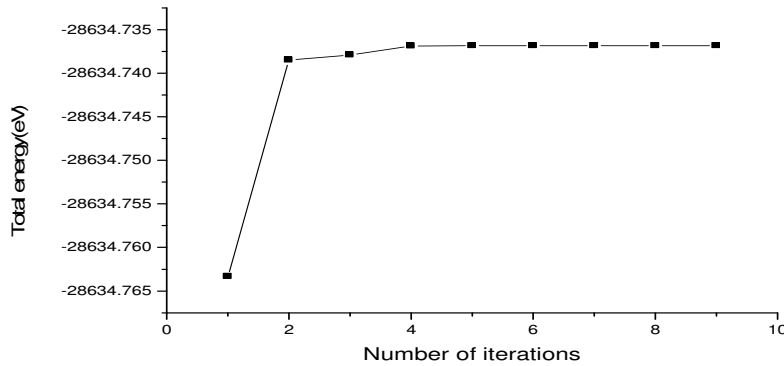
218 Fig.1. shows that the total energy decreases while number of iterations increases and converges
 219 faster with stability from 3rd iteration to the last iteration because the electrons of lithium atom are
 220 pulled closer to the positive charged nucleus(since they are physically closer to the atom and thus
 221 less reactive than the other alkali metals. Fig.2. on the other hand shows that the total energy
 222 increases with increase in number of iterations, taking more computational time and yielding more
 223 stable total energy than Li atom owing to metallic bonding in lithium bulk.

224 The cohesive energy obtained for bcc lithium was calculated to be approximately 1.82eV. This result
 225 is in good agreement as compared to experimental value of 1.63eV (Dean L., 2016)



226

227 Fig.3. Binding curve of total energy against no. of iterations for pw-lda Cr atom

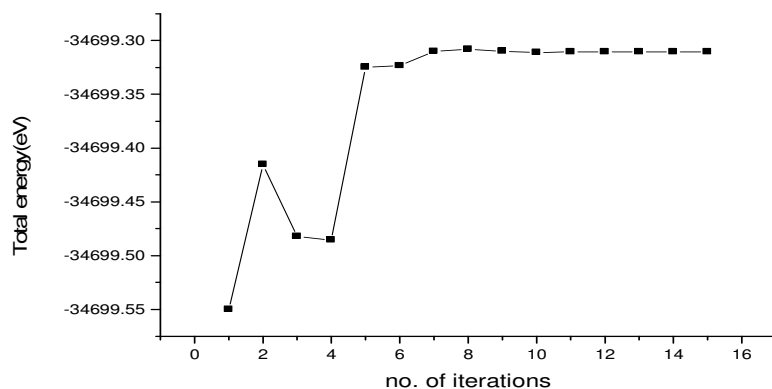


228

229 Fig.4. Binding curve of total energy against no. of iterations for pw-lda Cr bulk

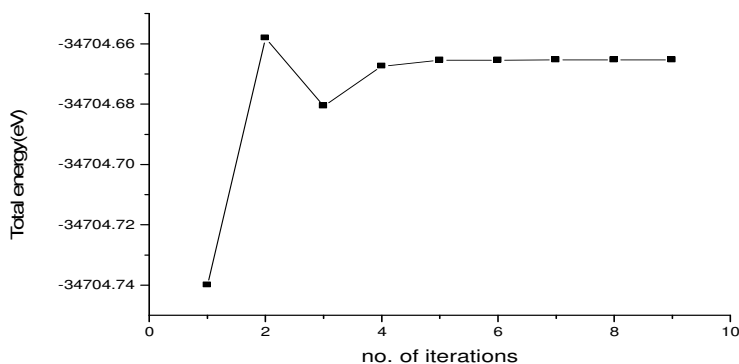
230 From Fig.3, clearly the total energy for single chromium atom is unstable at early iterations due to
 231 half-filled and unpaired d-orbital electrons and its eagerness to bond but becomes stable from the 7th
 232 iteration. However, the total energy of Cr bulk in Fig.4 becomes stable and converges with fewer
 233 numbers of iterations after a sharp rise from 1st iteration to the 2nd iteration.

234 The cohesive energy of bcc chromium is calculated to be approximately 5.33eV which is in
 235 reasonable agreement with experimental value of 4.10eV (Jian-Min Z. et al, 2006).



236

237 Fig.5. Binding curve of total energy against no. of iterations for pw-lda Fe atom

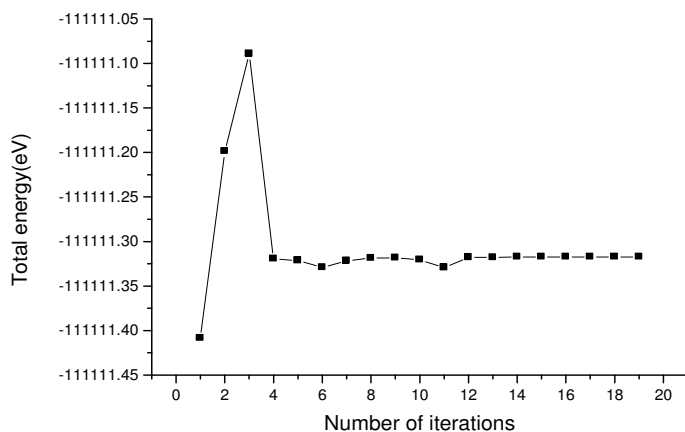


238

239 Fig.6. Binding curve of total energy against no. of iterations for pw-lda Fe bulk

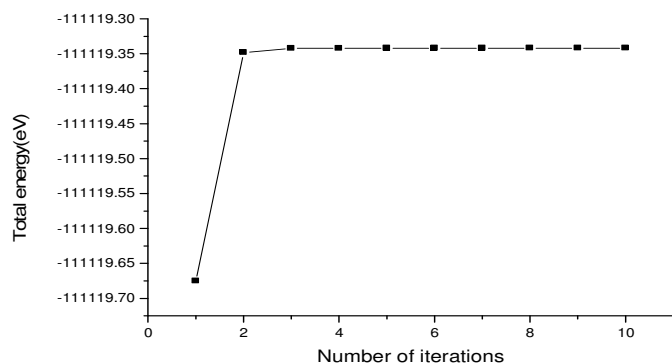
240 Fig.5 shows that the total energy for single iron atom is unstable at early iterations due to unpaired d-
 241 orbital electrons and its eagerness to bond but becomes stable from the 7th iteration. In fig.6, the total
 242 energy of iron bulk significantly rises from the 1st iteration to the 2nd iteration before a stepwise fall and
 243 rise to the 4th iteration to become stable and converged. To attain efficient convergence the linear
 244 mixing parameter and broader smearing were chosen carefully since magnetic metals are hard to
 245 converge (Wieferink, J. et al. 2011)

246 The cohesive energy was calculated to be approximately 5.35eV which is in reasonable agreement
 247 with experimental value of 4.28eV (Jian-Min Z. et al, 2006).



248

249 Fig.7. Binding curve of total energy against no. of iterations for pw-lDa Mo atom



250

251 Fig.8. Binding curve of total energy against no. of iterations for pw-lDa Mo bulk

252 Fig.7. shows that the total energy of Mo atom is unstable also due to half-filled d- orbitals and
 253 unpaired valence electrons just as chromium discussed above until the 12th iteration when it becomes
 254 stable for the rest of the convergence cycles. Fig.8. on the other hand shows that the total energy
 255 makes a sharp rise and immediately begins to converge from the 2nd iteration to the last iteration. Mo
 256 bulk clearly shows more stability with less number of iterations than Mo atom.

257 The calculated value for cohesive energy bcc molybdenum is approximately 8.02eV which is in
 258 reasonable agreement with experimental value of 6.82eV (Jian-Min Z. et al, 2006).

259 **5 CONCLUSIONS**

260 The contribution of a constituent atom to the total energy E_{tot} might be variationally improved by basis
 261 functions sitting on adjacent atoms, thus leading to an overestimating of E_{coh} . Using atomic states,
 262 however, the total energy is already converged at the level of the minimal basis, and neighboring
 263 basis functions have no effects (R.Gehrke, 2008).

264 The cohesive energies of the bcc lattices were calculated with grids of 12x12x12 for all metals except
 265 iron with 16x16x16; a setting which gives a good compromise of computational times and physical
 266 accuracy within LDA of the FHI-aims code. The values obtained are in agreement with experimental

267 values and literature reports within some reasonable percentage error. The cohesive energies
268 calculated for Li, Cr, Fe and Mo vary from experiment by 11.4%, 30.0%, 25.0%, and 17.6%.

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