

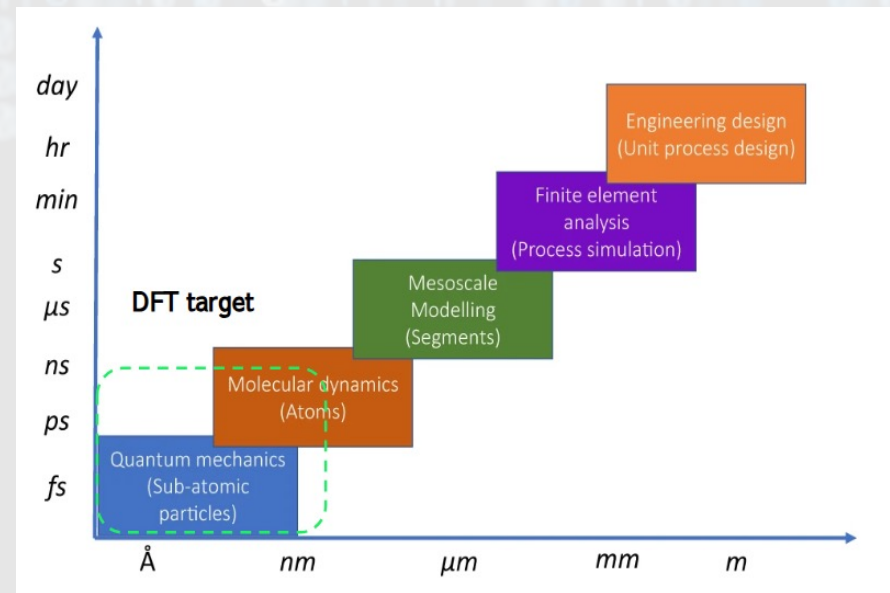
Advanced Computational Methods in Condensed Matter Physics

Lecture 13

Introduction to Density Functional Theory (DFT)

What can DFT do?

- It is the gold standard calculation for material modeling from first principles (quantum mechanical), balancing high accuracy with computational efficiency.
- Solids, surfaces, solution, molecules.
- Ground-state material properties, e.g., lattice constants, phase diagram, phonon structure, band structure, chemical reactions.
- Material discovery, predicting mechanical and electronic properties, ab initio molecular dynamics of biochemical systems



What does DFT solve for?

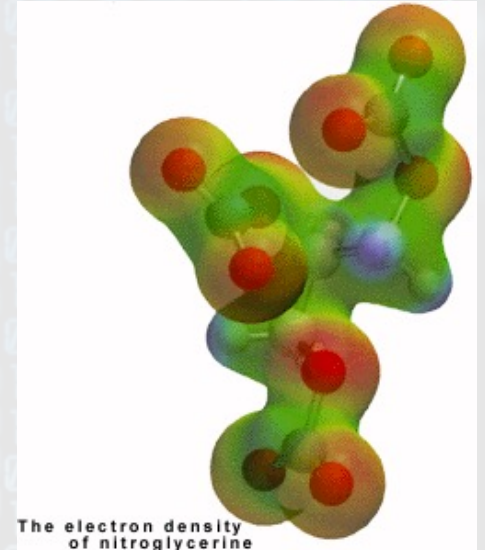
The starting point is the full, exact time-independent Schrödinger Equation for interacting electrons and nuclei:

$$\hat{H}\Psi = E\Psi$$

The full Hamiltonian (H) has 5 terms:

$$\hat{H} = \hat{T}_e + \hat{T}_N + \hat{U}_{ee} + \hat{U}_{NN} + \hat{V}_{eN}$$

- T_e, T_N : Kinetic energies of electrons and nuclei.
- U_{ee}, U_{NN} : Repulsive Coulomb interactions (electron-electron, nuclei-nuclei).
- V_{eN} : Attractive Coulomb interaction between electrons and nuclei.



Solving this exactly for macroscopic systems is impossible. We must approximate.

The Born-Oppenheimer Approximation

- Goal: Decouple the motion of nuclei and electrons.
- Concept: Nuclei are much heavier than electrons ($M_{\text{ion}} \gg m_e$) and move much slower.
- Result: We can set the nuclear kinetic energy (T_N) to zero and treat the nuclei-nuclei repulsion (U_{NN}) as a classical constant.
- Electrons are assumed to move in a static potential generated by these 'frozen' nuclei.
- This reduces our problem to solving for the electronic ground state for a given nuclear configuration.

$$\Psi = \psi_e \chi_N$$

The Electronic Schrödinger Equation

Applying the Born-Oppenheimer approximation yields the N-electron Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H}_e \psi = [\hat{T}_e + \hat{V}_{\text{ext}} + \hat{U}_{ee}] \psi = E \psi(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_N)$$

- $\hat{T}_e = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_i^N \nabla_i^2$ Kinetic energy of electrons
- $\hat{V}_{\text{ext}} = - \sum_i^N \sum_I^M \frac{Z_I}{|r_i - R_I|}$ External potential from the fixed nuclei
- $\hat{U}_{ee} = \sum_j^N \sum_i^j \frac{1}{|r_i - r_j|}$ Electron-electron interaction

The Challenge: A system with N electrons still has 3N degrees of freedom. The \hat{U}_{ee} term couples all electrons together, making it intractable for $N > \text{a few}$.

The Hartree-Fock Precursor

- Early attempt to solve the many-body problem using a mean-field approximation.
- Approximates the wavefunction as a Slater determinant to satisfy Pauli exclusion.
- Successfully handles 'exchange' (quantum mechanical effect of indistinguishable fermions).
- Fails to capture 'correlation' (the tendency of electrons to avoid each other due to Coulomb repulsion).

$$\Psi(1, \dots, N) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \begin{vmatrix} \psi_1(1) & \psi_1(2) & \cdots & \psi_1(N) \\ \psi_2(1) & \psi_2(2) & \cdots & \psi_2(N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \psi_N(1) & \psi_N(2) & \cdots & \psi_N(N) \end{vmatrix}$$

Hohenberg-Kohn Theorem I (1964)

- The foundational theorem of DFT.
- Theorem: The ground-state electron density $n_0(r)$ uniquely determines the external potential $V_{\text{ext}}(r)$.
- Implication: Since the kinetic and electron-electron interaction energies of the ground state can be expressed as universal functionals of the electron density, $V_{\text{ext}}(r)$ determines the Hamiltonian, the density $n_0(r)$ contains all information about the ground state.
- Paradigm Shift: We can use the 3-dimensional density $n(r)$ instead of the $3N$ -dimensional wavefunction Ψ .

Hohenberg-Kohn Theorem II

- The Variational Principle for Density.
- Theorem: A universal functional for the energy $E[n]$ exists in terms of the density.

$$E[n] = F[n] + \int V_{\text{ext}} n(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}$$

- The global minimum of this functional yields the exact ground-state energy, and the density that minimizes it is the exact ground-state density.
- The Catch: The exact form of the universal functional $F[n]$ is unknown.

The Kohn-Sham Mapping (1965)

- Kohn and Sham provided the practical framework to use the HK theorems.
- Concept: Map the intractable interacting many-body system onto a fictitious non-interacting system.
- Requirement: The fictitious non-interacting system must have the exact same ground-state density $n(r)$ as the real interacting system.
- We construct $n(r)$ by summing the squares of single-particle 'Kohn-Sham orbitals'.

The Kohn-Sham Equations

- The effective single-particle equations:

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + V_{\text{KS}}(\mathbf{r})\right]\varphi_i(\mathbf{r}) = \varepsilon_i\varphi_i(\mathbf{r})$$

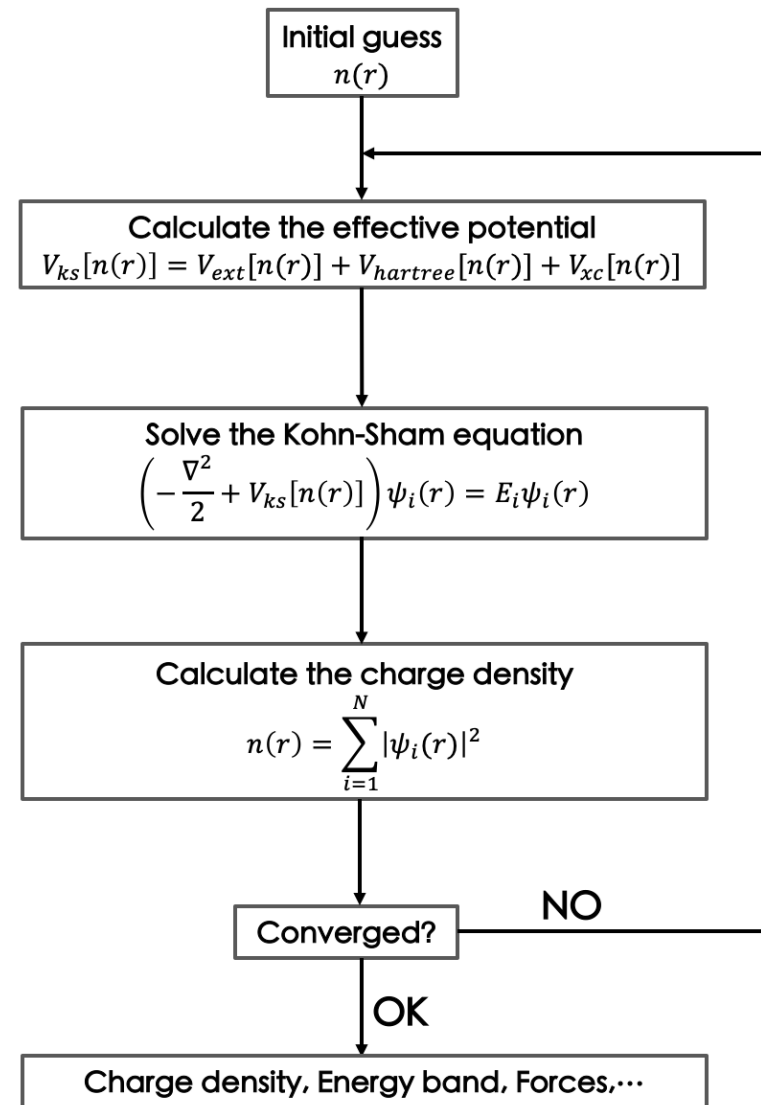
- The total density is: $n(\mathbf{r}) = \sum |\varphi_i(\mathbf{r})|^2$
- The effective potential $V_{\text{KS}}(\mathbf{r})$ is:

$$V_{\text{KS}}(\mathbf{r}) = V_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}) + V_{\text{Hartree}}(\mathbf{r}) + V_{\text{xc}}(\mathbf{r})$$

- These equations are non-linear ($V_{\text{KS}}(\mathbf{r})$ depends on $n(\mathbf{r})$, which depends on $\varphi(\mathbf{r})$) and must be solved iteratively.

The Self-Consistent Field (SCF) Cycle

- Initialize guess for electron density, usually the superposition of atomic orbitals of the valence electrons
- Evaluate the KS Hamiltonian with the current density
- Solve the Hamiltonian for diagonalized orbitals
- Repeat until the solution agrees with the previous loop



The Exchange-Correlation (XC) Potential

$$V_{\text{xc}}(\mathbf{r}) = \delta E_{\text{xc}}[n] / \delta n$$

- This term contains all the complex quantum many-body effects that we don't know exactly.
- It corrects for the self-interaction error in the Hartree term.
- It accounts for Pauli exchange and Coulomb correlation.
- Approximating $E_{\text{xc}}[n]$ accurately is the central challenge of modern DFT.

$$E_{\text{xc}}[n] = T[n] - T_{\text{ks}}[n] + V_{\text{ee}}[n] - V_{\text{Hartree}}[n]$$

Jacob's Ladder of Functionals

A classification of XC approximations by John Perdew, climbing towards 'chemical heaven' (exact accuracy).

- 1: LDA (Depends only on local density n)
- 2: GGA (Depends on density and its gradient ∇n)
- 3: Meta-GGA (Adds kinetic energy density or $\nabla^2 n$)
- 4: Hybrid Functionals (Mixes in exact Hartree-Fock exchange, e.g., B3LYP, HSE06, PBE0)
- 5: Fully non-local functionals (RPA)

Rung 1: Local Density Approximation (LDA)

- Assumes the XC energy at a point is that of a Uniform Electron Gas (UEG) with the same local density.
- $E_{xc}^{LDA} = \int n(r) \epsilon_{xc_UEG}(n(r)) dr$
- Pros: Simple, computationally cheap, surprisingly good for simple metals and bulk moduli.
- Cons: Over-binds molecules (predicts bond lengths that are too short) and fails for strongly correlated systems.

Rung 2: Generalized Gradient Approximation (GGA)

- Accounts for the fact that real electron density is not uniform by including the density gradient $\nabla n(r)$.
- $E_{xc}^{GGA} = \int n(r) \varepsilon_{xc}(n(r), \nabla n(r)) dr$
- LYP, Becke-LYP: Most popular in quantum chemistry
- PBE (Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof): The most famous and widely used GGA functional in solid-state physics.
- Improves significantly over LDA for binding energies, bond lengths, and surface energies.

Most cited physics papers are DFT

Rank: **7** Citations: **46,702**

Development of the Colle-Salvetti correlation-energy formula into a functional of the electron density.

Lee, C., Yang, W. & Parr, R. G.

Phys. Rev. B **37**, 785–789 (1988).

Rank: **8** Citations: **46,145**

Density-functional thermochemistry. III. The role of exact exchange.

Becke, A. D.

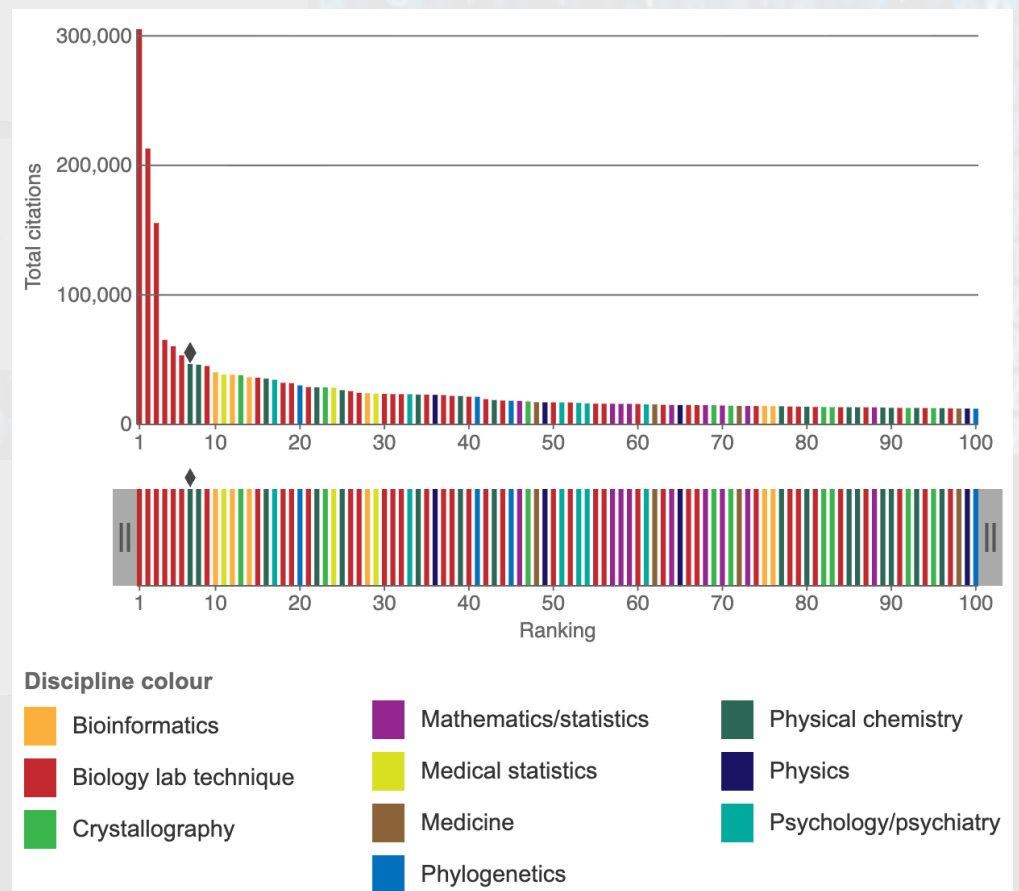
J. Chem. Phys. **98**, 5648–5652 (1993).

Rank: **16** Citations: **35,405**

Generalized gradient approximation made simple.

Perdew, J. P., Burke, K. & Ernzerhof, M.

Phys. Rev. Lett. **77**, 3865–3868 (1996).



Periodic Systems & Plane Waves

- For bulk materials, the external potential is periodic: $V(\mathbf{r}) = V(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{R})$.
- Bloch's Theorem: The wavefunction can be written as a plane wave modulated by a periodic function.

$$\varphi_{n\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}} u_{n\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r})$$

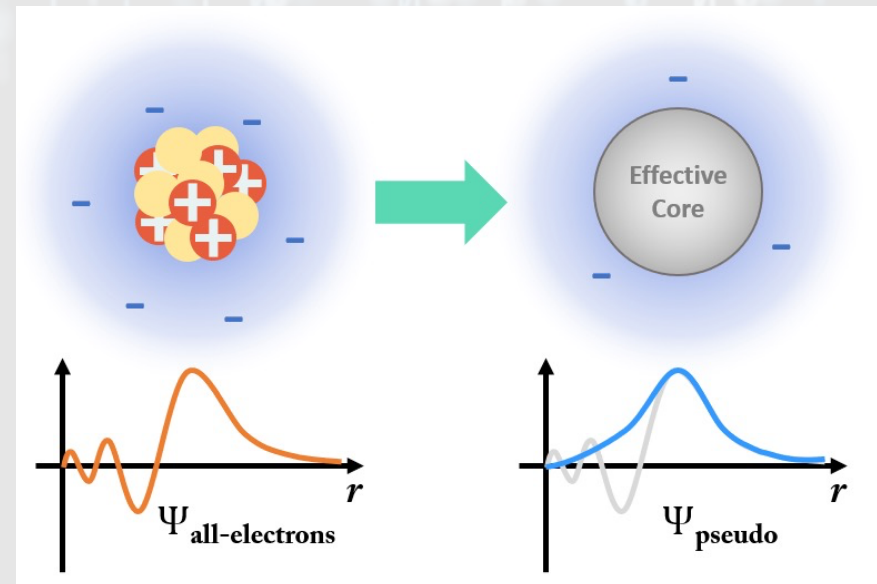
- We expand $u_{n\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r})$ in a basis set of plane waves that is part of the reciprocal lattice \mathbf{G} :

$$u_{n\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{G}} c_{\mathbf{G}} e^{i\mathbf{G}\mathbf{r}}$$

- Cutoff Energy (E_{cut}): We truncate the infinite sum by only including plane waves with kinetic energy $\frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{G}|^2 < E_{\text{cut}}$.

Pseudopotentials

- Problem: Core electrons oscillate wildly near the nucleus, requiring an enormous number of plane waves (high E_{cut}) to resolve.
- Solution: Core electrons are deeply bound and don't participate in chemical bonding. We replace the strong nuclear potential and the core electrons with a smoother 'pseudopotential', reducing computational cost.
- Types: Norm-Conserving (NC), Ultrasoft (USPP), Projector Augmented Wave (PAW).



Brillouin Zone & k-point Sampling

- To calculate macroscopic properties (like total energy or charge density), we must integrate over all valid momenta (k-points) in the first Brillouin Zone.
- $\int_{\text{BZ}} f(\mathbf{k}) d\mathbf{k} \approx \sum_i w_i f(\mathbf{k}_i)$
- We use discrete grids of k-points. The standard is the Monkhorst-Pack grid.
- Denser grids (e.g., 8x8x8 vs 2x2x2) provide higher accuracy but cost more compute time.
- Metals require denser grids than insulators due to sudden changes in occupancy at the Fermi level.

Quantum Espresso: Input File Anatomy

- A typical pw.x input file uses Fortran namelists:

```
&CONTROL
```

```
calculation='scf', prefix='silicon', pseudo_dir='./'
```

```
&SYSTEM
```

```
ibrav=2, celldm(1)=10.2, nat=2, ntyp=1, ecutwfc=30
```

```
&ELECTRONS
```

```
conv_thr=1.0d-8
```

```
ATOMIC_SPECIES
```

```
Si 28.086 Si.pbe-n-rrkjus_psl.1.0.0.UPF
```

```
ATOMIC_POSITIONS (alat)
```

```
Si 0.00 0.00 0.00
```

```
Si 0.25 0.25 0.25
```

```
K_POINTS automatic
```

```
4 4 4 0 0 0
```

https://www.quantum-espresso.org/Doc/INPUT_PW.html

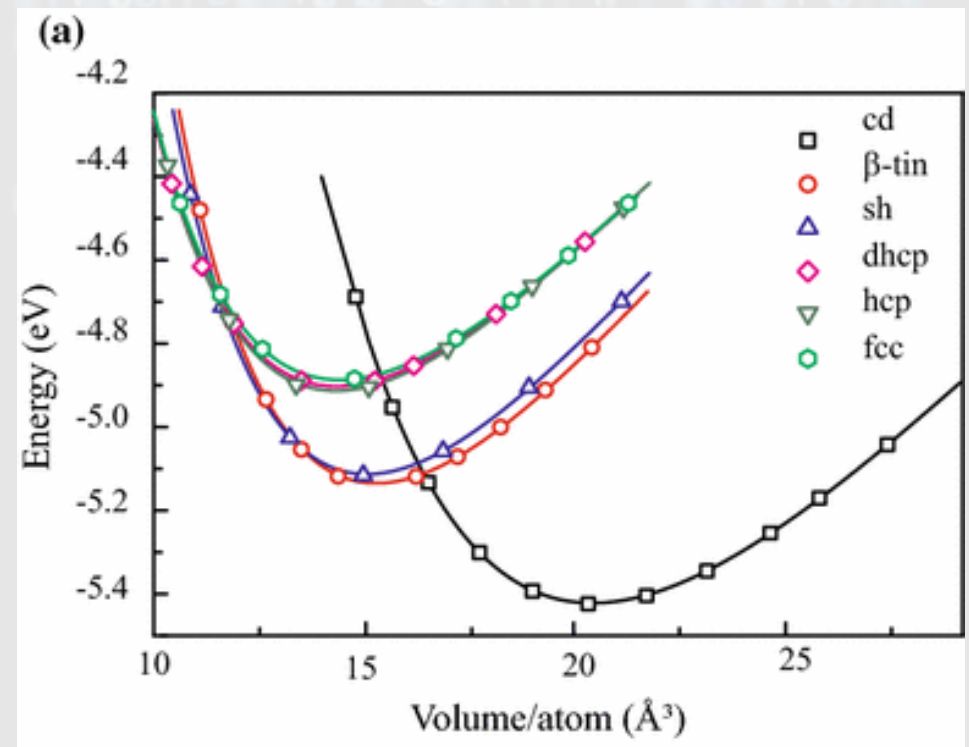
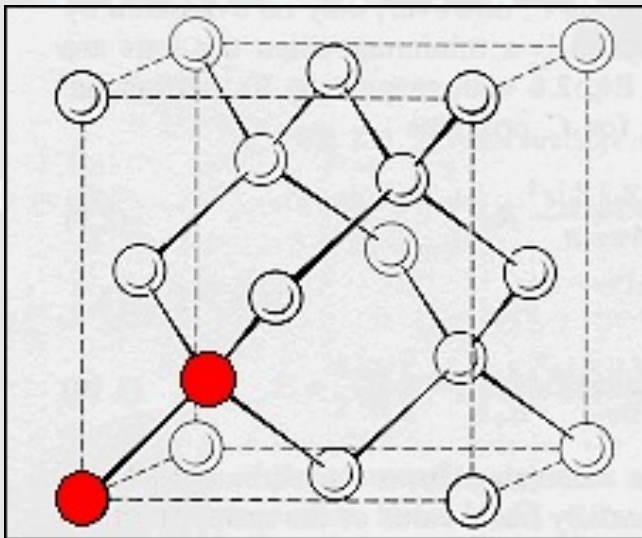
Convergence Testing

- Before generating data, you MUST ensure your parameters are converged.
- 1. E_cut Convergence: Run SCF at increasing `ecutwfc` until Total Energy stabilizes (changes by < 1 meV/atom).
- 2. K-point Convergence: Run SCF at increasing grid sizes (2x2x2, 4x4x4, 6x6x6) until Total Energy stabilizes.
- Failure to converge parameters leads to non-physical 'Pulay stress' and unreliable structures.

Example 1: Silicon Lattice Constant

Method: Run SCF calculations at various lattice parameters (a) and plot Total Energy.

The minimum of the Energy vs Volume curve gives the equilibrium lattice constant.



Hands-on 2: Band Structure of Silicon

Step 1: Perform a converged SCF run to get the ground-state density.

Step 2: Perform a 'bands' calculation along a high-symmetry path ($L \rightarrow \Gamma \rightarrow X \rightarrow U$).

Observation: You will identify Silicon as an indirect band gap semiconductor (VBM at Γ , CBM near X).

Example 3: Charge Density Visualization

Module: Use `pp.x` (post-processing) to extract the charge density $\rho(r)$ from the SCF output.

Output: A 3D volumetric data file (e.g., .cube or .xsf).

Visualization Tools: Load the file into VESTA or XCrySDen.

Insight: By setting an isosurface level, you will clearly see charge accumulation between the Silicon atoms, visualizing the sp^3 covalent bonds.