

# The crucial importance of the $t\_2g-e\_g$ hybridization in transition metal oxydes

Sylvain Landron, Marie-Bernadette Lepetit

## ▶ To cite this version:

Sylvain Landron, Marie-Bernadette Lepetit. The crucial importance of the  $t\_2g-e\_g$  hybridization in transition metal oxydes. 2007. hal-00153592v1

# HAL Id: hal-00153592 https://hal.science/hal-00153592v1

Preprint submitted on 11 Jun 2007 (v1), last revised 2 Oct 2007 (v2)

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

## The crucial importance of the $t_{2g}$ - $e_g$ hybridization in transition metal oxydes

Sylvain Landron<sup>1</sup> and Marie-Bernadette Lepetit<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>CRISMAT, ENSICAEN-CNRS UMR6508, 6 bd. Maréchal Juin, 14050 Caen, FRANCE (Dated: June 11, 2007)

We studied the influence of the trigonal distortion of the regular octahedron along the (111) direction, found in the  $CoO_2$  layers. Under such a distortion the  $t_{2g}$  orbitals split into one  $a_{1g}$  and two degenerated  $e_g'$  orbitals. We focused on the relative order of these orbitals. Using quantum chemical calculations of embedded clusters at different levels of theory, we analyzed the influence of the different effects not taken into account in the crystalline field theory; that is metal-ligand hybridization, long-range crystalline field, screening effects and orbital relaxation. We found that none of them are responsible for the relative order of the  $t_{2g}$  orbitals. In fact, the trigonal distortion allows a mixing of the  $t_{2g}$  and  $e_g$  orbitals of the metallic atom. This is this hybridization that is at the origin of the  $a_{1g}-e_g'$  relative order and of the incorrect prediction of the crystalline field theory.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Since the discovery of super-conductivity in the hydrated Na<sub>0.35</sub>CoO<sub>2</sub> – 1.3H<sub>2</sub>O<sup>1</sup> compound and of the very large thermopower in the Na<sub>0.7± $\delta$ </sub>CoO<sub>2</sub><sup>2</sup> members of the same family, the interest of the community in systems built from CoO<sub>2</sub> layers has exploded. The first step in the understanding of the electronic properties of transition metal oxides, such as the CoO<sub>2</sub>-based compounds, is the analysis of the crystalline field splitting of the d orbitals of the transition metal atom. Indeed, depending on this splitting, the spin state of the atom, the nature of the Fermi level orbitals, and thus the Fermi level properties will differ.

The  $CoO_2$  layers are built from edge-sharing  $CoO_6$  octahedra (see figure 1). In these layers, the first coordi-

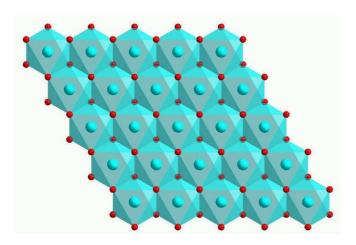


FIG. 1: Schematic representation of the CoO<sub>2</sub> layers.

nation shell of the metal atom differs from the regular octahedron by a trigonal distortion along the three-fold (111) axis (see figure 2). In all known materials, this distortion is in fact a compression along this axis. It results that the local symmetry group of the cobalt is lowered from  $O_h$  to  $D_{3d}$ . The  $T_{2g}$  irreducible representation of the  $O_h$  group is thus split into one  $E_q$  and one

 $A_{1g}$  representations. The relative energies of the resulting  $e_g'$  and  $a_{1g}$  orbitals (see figure 2) has been a subject of controversy in the recent literature. At this point let us point out the crucial importance of the knowledge of this energetic order, between the former  $t_{2g}$  orbitals, for the understanding of the low energy properties. Indeed, the possible existence of an orbital order as well as the minimal model pertinent for the description of these systems depend on this order.

Authors such as Maekawa<sup>3</sup>, following the crystalline field theory, support that the  $a_{1g}$  orbital is of lower energy than the two degenerated  $e_g$  ones, leading to an orbital degeneracy for the  $\text{Co}^{4+}$  ion. On the contrary, ab initio calculations, both using periodic density functional methods<sup>4</sup> and local quantum chemical methods for strongly correlated systems<sup>5</sup> yield an  $a_{1g}$  orbital of higher energy than the  $e'_g$  ones, and a non degenerated Fermi level of the  $\text{Co}^{4+}$  ion. Angle Resolved Photoemis-

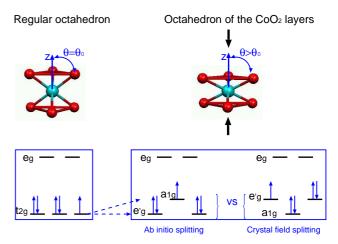


FIG. 2: Schematic representation of cobalt 3d splitting.  $\theta$  represents the angle between the **z** axis — the 3-fold (111) axis of the CoO<sub>6</sub> octahedron — and the Co — O direction.  $\theta_0 = \arccos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \simeq 54.74^{\circ}$  is the  $\theta$  angle for the regular octahedron.

sion Spectroscopy (ARPES) experiments were performed on several  $CoO_2$  compounds<sup>6</sup>. This technique probes the

Fermi surface and it appears that the Fermi surface of the  $\mathrm{CoO}_2$  layers is issued from the  $a_{1g}$  orbitals, and not at all from the  $e'_g$  orbitals (orbitals of  $E_g$  symmetry, issued from the former  $t_{2g}$  orbitals). This fact is in agreement with the ab initio calculations that find the  $e'_g$  orbitals of lower energy than the  $a_{1g}$ . Indeed, local quantum chemical calculations find the  $e'_g$  orbitals 315 meV lower than the  $a_{1g}$  ones for the superconducting compound. Density functional periodic calculations (DFT) cannot directly access such local quantities, however the computed Fermi surface is essentially issued from the  $a_{1g}$  orbitals  $^4$ , comforting the same conclusion. Let us however notice that small pockets issued from the  $e'_g$  orbitals are also observed in DFT calculations.

In the present work, we will try to understand the reasons why the crystalline field model is unable to find the good energetic order of  $t_{2g}$  orbitals in such trigonal distortions. Indeed, several hypotheses can be made to explain this fact: the delocalization of the cobalt 3d orbitals toward the ligands, the fact that the electrostatic potential of the whole crystal differs from the one assumed in the crystalline field model, the correlation effects within the 3d shell, the screening effects, etc.

The next section will present the method used in this work, section three and four will reports the calculations and analyze them, finally the last section will be devoted to the conclusion.

# II. COMPUTATIONAL METHOD AND DETAILS

The energy of the atomic 3d orbitals is an essentially local value, as supposed in the crystalline field model. However its analysis exhibits some non local contributions. Indeed, orbitals energies can be seen as resulting from the following terms:

- the electrostatic potential due to the first coordination shell in the present case, the six oxygen atoms of the octahedron, further referred as nearest neighbor oxygens (NNO) —,
- the electrostatic potential due to the rest of the crystal,
- the kinetic energy that includes the hybridization of the metal orbitals with nearest neighbor ligands,
- the Coulomb and exchange contributions within the 3d shell,
- the radial relaxation of the 3d orbitals,
- and finally the virtual excitations from the other orbitals that are responsible for the screening effects.

All these contributions, excepts for the electrostatic potential due to the rest of the crystal (nucleus attractions

and Coulomb interactions), are essentially local contributions<sup>7</sup> and known to decrease very rapidly with the distance to the metal atom. In fact, they are mostly restricted to the first coordination shell of the cobalt. On the contrary, the Madelung potential retains the resulting non local contributions from the nucleus attraction and the Coulomb electron-electron repulsion. It is known to be very slowly convergent with the distance. We thus made calculations at different levels, including first all the above effects, and then excluding them one at the time, in order to end up with the sole effects included in the crystalline field model.

The calculations will thus be done on  $\text{CoO}_6$  or Co fragments. Different embedding and different levels of calculation will be used. The Co-O distance will be fixed to the value of the super-conducing compound, i.e.  $R_{\text{Co}-\text{O}} = 1.855$  Å. The angle  $\theta$  between the Co-O direction and the  $\mathbf{z}$  axis (see figure 2) will be varied from 0 to  $90^{\circ}$ .

The calculations will be done at the Complete Active Space Self Consistent Field + Difference Dedicated Configurations Interaction<sup>8,9</sup> (CASSCF+DDCI, see subsection IIA) level for the most involved case, using the core pseudopotential and basis set of Barandiaran  $et \ al.^{10}$ . The fragment used will include all the first coordination oxygens in addition to the cobalt atom. The embedding will be designed so that to properly represent the full Madelung potential of the super-conducting material, and the exclusion effects of the rest of the crystal on the computed fragment electrons (see reference<sup>5</sup> for further details). For the simplest case a minimal basis set derived from the preceding one will be used and only the cobalt atom will be included in the computed fragment. The effect of the crystalline field will be described by -2 point charges located at the positions of the first coordination shell oxygens. The calculations will be done at the CASSCF level only. Between these two extreme cases, several intermediate ones will be considered, in order to check the previously enumerate points.

The electrostatic potential due to the cobalt first oxygen neighbors (NNO), as well as the unscreened Coulomb and exchange contributions within the 3d shell, are included in all calculations. The electrostatic potential is treated either through the inclusion of the NNO in the computed fragment or through -2 point charges. The Coulomb and exchange contributions are treated through the CASSCF calculation. The electrostatic contribution of the rest of the crystal is included only in the most involved calculations, using an appropriated embedding of point charges and Total Ions pseudo-Potential<sup>11</sup>. The hybridization of the metal 3d orbitals is treated by including explicitely the NNO in the considered fragment  $(CoO_6)$ . The radial relaxation of the 3d orbitals is treated when extended basis set are used. When a minimal basis set is used, the radial part of the orbitals is frozen as in the high spin state of the isolated Co<sup>4+</sup> ion. Finally, the screening effects are treated only when the calculation is performed at the CASSCF+DDCI level.

#### A. The CASSCF and DDCI methods

Let us now described shortly the CASSCF and DDCI ab initio methods. These methods are configurations interaction (CI) methods, that is exact diagonalization methods within a selected set of Slater's determinants. These methods were specifically designed to treat strongly correlated systems, for which there is no qualitative single-determinant description. The CASSCF method treats exactly all correlation effects and exchange effects within a selected set of orbitals (here the 3d shell of the cobalt atom). The DDCI method treats in addition the excitations responsible for the screening effects on the exchange, repulsion, hopping, etc. integrals. These methods are based on the partitioning of the fragment orbitals into three sets

the occupied orbitals that are always doublyoccupied in all determinants of the Complete Active Space or CAS (here the cobalt inner electrons and the NNO ones),

the active orbitals that can have all possible occupations and spins in the CAS (here the cobalt 3d orbitals),

the virtual orbitals that are always empty in the CAS.

The CASCI method is the exact diagonalization within the above defined Complete Active Space. The CASSCF method optimizes in addition the fragment orbitals in order to minimize the CASCI wave function energy. This is a mean-field method for the occupied orbitals but all the correlation effects within the active orbitals are taken into account. Finally the DDCI method uses a diagonalization space that includes the CAS, all single- and double-excitations on all determinants of the CAS, except the ones that excite to occupied orbitals into two virtual orbitals. Indeed, such excitations can be shown not to contribute — at the second order of perturbation — to the energy differences between states that differ essentially by their CAS wave function. Therefore, they have little importance for the present work. The DDCI method thus accurately treats both the correlation within the CAS and the screening effects.

#### III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Let us first attract the attention of the reader on what is supposed to be the energy difference between the  $e'_g$  and  $a_{1g}$  orbitals of the  $Co^{4+}$  ion in an effective model. In fact, the pertinent parameters for an effective model should be such that one can reproduce by their means the exact energies or, in the present case, the ab-initio calculation of the different  $Co^{4+}$  atomic states. It results, that within a Hubbard type model, the pertinent effective

orbital energies should obey the following set of equations

$$E(|\mathbf{a_{1g}}\rangle) = 4\varepsilon(e'_g) + \varepsilon(a_{1g}) + 2U + 8U' - 4J_H$$

$$E(|\mathbf{e'_g}\rangle) = 3\varepsilon(e'_g) + 2\varepsilon(a_{1g}) + 2U + 8U' - 4J_H$$

$$\Delta E = E(|\mathbf{e'_g}\rangle) - E(|\mathbf{a_{1g}}\rangle)$$

$$= \varepsilon(a_{1g}) - \varepsilon(e'_g)$$

where the schematic picture of the  $|\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{g}}'\rangle$  and  $|\mathbf{a_{1g}}\rangle$  states is given in figure 3,  $\varepsilon(e_g')$  and  $\varepsilon(a_{1g})$  are the effective orbital energies of the  $e_g'$  and  $a_{1g}$  atomic orbitals, U is the effective electron-electron repulsion of two electrons in the same cobalt 3d orbital, U' the effective repulsion of two electrons in different cobalt 3d orbitals and  $J_H$  the atomic Hund's exchange effective integrals within the cobalt 3d shell.

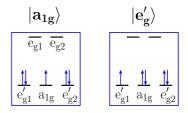


FIG. 3: Schematic representation of the Co<sup>4+</sup> states of interest. Let us point out that  $|\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{g}}'\rangle$  is doubly-degenerated, the hole being located either on the  $e'_{g1}$  or on the  $e'_{g2}$  orbitals.

#### A. The reference calculation

The reference calculation includes all effects detailed in the preceding section. For the super-conducting compound the effective  $t_{2g}$  splitting was reported in reference<sup>5</sup> to be

$$\Delta E = \varepsilon(a_{1g}) - \varepsilon(e'_g) = 315 \text{ meV}$$

This point corresponds to  $\theta \simeq 61.5^{\circ}$  (that is a value of  $\theta$  larger than the one of the regular octahedron  $\theta_0 \simeq 54.74^{\circ}$ ) where the crystalline field theory predicts a reverse order between the  $t_{2g}$  orbitals.

### B. Screening effects

The effect of the screening on the  $t_{2g}$  orbital splitting can be evaluated by doing a simple CASCI calculation using the same fragment, embedding, basis set and orbitals as the preceding calculation. Without the screening effects, one finds a  $t_{2g}$  splitting of

$$\Delta E = \varepsilon(a_{1q}) - \varepsilon(e'_q) = 428 \text{ meV}$$

Obviously the screening effects cannot be taken as responsible for the qualitative energetic order between the  $a_{1g}$  and  $e'_{g}$  orbitals.

#### C. Cobalt 3d – oxygen hybridization

The effect of the hybridization of the cobalt 3d orbitals with the neighboring oxygen ligands can be evaluated by taking out the oxygen atoms from the quantum cluster, and treating them as simple -2 point charges at the atomic locations. The other parameters of the calculation are kept as in the preceding case. The new orbitals are optimized at the average-CASSCF level between the two  $|\mathbf{e}'_{\mathbf{g}}\rangle$  and the  $|\mathbf{a}_{1\mathbf{g}}\rangle$  states. It results in a  $t_{2g}$  splitting of

$$\Delta E = \varepsilon(a_{1g}) - \varepsilon(e'_q) = 40 \text{ meV}$$

for the super-conducting compound. Again the hybridization of the cobalt 3d orbitals with the neighboring oxygens cannot be taken as responsible for the inversion of the splitting between the  $a_{1g}$  and  $e_{q}'$  orbitals.

#### D. Long-range electrostatic potential

The effect of the long-range electrostatic potential can be evaluated by restricting the embedding to the NNO point charges only, that is to the electrostatic potential considered in the crystalline field method. One finds a  $t_{2q}$  splitting of

$$\Delta E = \varepsilon(a_{1g}) - \varepsilon(e'_g) = 124 \text{ meV}$$

Once again the results is positive and thus the long-range electrostatic potential is not the cause of the crystalline field inversion of the  $t_{2q}$  splitting.

#### E. Orbital radial relaxation

At this point only few effects on top of the crystalline field theory are still treated in the calculation. One of them is the radial repolarisation effect of the 3d orbitals, that allows their adaptation to the different occupations in the specific  $|\mathbf{a_{1g}}\rangle$  and  $|\mathbf{e_g'}\rangle$  states. This repolarisation is due to the use of an extended basis set. We thus reduce the basis set to a minimal basis set (only one orbital degree of freedom per (n, l) occupied or partially occupied atomic shell). The minimal basis set was obtained by the contraction of the extended one; the radial part of the orbitals being frozen as the one of the the isolated Co<sup>4+</sup> high spin state. This choice was done in order to keep a basis set as close as possible to the extended one, and because only for the isolated atom all 3d orbitals are equivalent, and thus have the same radial part. One obtains in this minimal basis set a  $t_{2g}$  splitting of

$$\Delta E = \varepsilon(a_{1q}) - \varepsilon(e'_q) = 41 \text{ meV}$$

At this point we computed the effective orbital energies in the sole crystalline field conditions, however the result is still reverse than what is usually admitted within this approximation. Indeed, the  $\mathrm{Co^{4+}}$  ion was computed in the sole electrostatic field of the NNO, treated as -2 point charges, the calculation is done within a minimal basis set, and at the average-CASSCF level.

#### F. Further analysis

In order to understand this puzzling result, we plotted the whole curve  $\Delta E(\theta)$  (see figure 4) at this level of calculation and analyzed separately all energetic terms involved in this effective orbital energy difference.

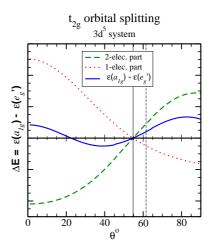


FIG. 4: Orbital splitting between the  $a_{1g}$  and  $e'_g$  orbitals when only the nearest neighbor ligands electrostatic field is included. The dotted red curve correspond to the single-electron part of the orbital energy difference, the dashed green curve correspond to the two-electron part of the orbital energy difference. The solid vertical line points out the regular octahedron  $\theta$  value and the dashed vertical line the  $\theta$  value for the super-conducting compound.

One sees on figure 4 that the  $\Delta E(\theta)$  curve is not monotonic, as expected from the crystalline field theory. Indeed, while for  $\theta=0$  the relative order between the  $a_{1g}$  and  $e'_g$  orbitals is in agreement with the crystalline field predictions, for  $\theta=90^\circ$  the order is reversed. One should also notice that, in addition to the  $\theta_0$  value of the regular octahedron, there is another value of  $\theta$  for which the three  $t_{2g}$  orbitals are degenerated. In the physically realistic region of the trigonal distortion (around the regular octahedron  $\theta_0$  value) the relative order between the  $a_{1g}$  and  $e'_g$  orbitals is reversed compared to the crystalline field predictions.

Let us now decompose  $\Delta E(\theta)$  into

- its two-electron part within the 3d shell  $\Delta E_2(\theta)$  —
- and the rest referred as 3d single-electron part  $-\Delta E_1(\theta)$ .  $\Delta E_1$  includes the kinetic energy, the electron-nucleus and electron-charge interaction, and the interaction of the 3d electrons with the inner shells electrons.

One thus has

$$\Delta E = \Delta E_1 + \Delta E_2$$
  
=  $\varepsilon(a_{1g}) - \varepsilon(e'_{g1}) = \varepsilon(a_{1g}) - \varepsilon(e'_{g2})$ 

with

$$\Delta E_{1} = \left\langle a_{1g} \left| -\frac{\nabla^{2}}{2} \right| a_{1g} \right\rangle - \left\langle e'_{g} \left| -\frac{\nabla^{2}}{2} \right| e'_{g} \right\rangle$$
(1)
$$+ \left\langle a_{1g} \left| \sum_{N} \frac{-Z_{N}}{R_{N}} \right| a_{1g} \right\rangle - \left\langle e'_{g} \left| \sum_{N} \frac{-Z_{N}}{R_{N}} \right| e'_{g} \right\rangle$$
(2)
$$+ \sum_{\chi : occ} 2 \left\langle a_{1g} \chi \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| a_{1g} \chi \right\rangle - \left\langle a_{1g} \chi \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| \chi a_{1g} \right\rangle$$

$$- \sum_{\chi : occ} 2 \left\langle e'_{g} \chi \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| e'_{g} \chi \right\rangle - \left\langle e'_{g} \chi \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| \chi e'_{g} \right\rangle$$
(3)

and

$$\Delta E_{2} = \left\langle a_{1g} \, a_{1g} \, \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| a_{1g} \, a_{1g} \right\rangle - \left\langle e'_{g} \, e'_{g} \, \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| e'_{g} \, e'_{g} \right\rangle$$

$$+ 2 \left\langle a_{1g} \, e'_{g} \, \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| a_{1g} \, e'_{g} \right\rangle - \left\langle a_{1g} \, e'_{g} \, \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| e'_{g} \, a_{1g} \right\rangle$$

$$- 2 \left\langle e'_{g1} \, e'_{g2} \, \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| e'_{g1} \, e'_{g2} \right\rangle + \left\langle e'_{g1} \, e'_{g2} \, \left| \frac{1}{r_{12}} \right| e'_{g2} \, e'_{g1} \right\rangle$$

where the equations are given in atomic units.  $Z_N$  refers to the nucleus charge of the cobalt atom and the -2 point charges located at the NNO positions.  $R_N$  is the associated electron-charge distance. The sum on  $\chi$  runs over all the orbitals of the cobalt inner-shells.

Let us now examine the dependence on  $\theta$  of each of the terms of  $\Delta E_1$  and  $\Delta E_2$ .

Kinetic energy: the radial part of each of the 3d orbitals being identical due the the minimal basis set restriction, the kinetic part is identical for all 3d orbitals and thus its contribution to  $\Delta E_1$  (terms labeled 1 of  $\Delta E_1$ ) vanishes.

Nuclear interaction: obviously this contribution to  $\Delta E_1$  (terms labeled 2 of  $\Delta E_1$ ) strongly depends on  $\theta$  through the position of the -2 charges.

Interaction with the inner-shells electrons: this term (terms labeled 3 of  $\Delta E_1$ ) depends only on the shape of the  $t_{2g}$  and inner-shells orbitals. However, the minimal basis set does not leave any degree of freedom for the relaxation of the inner-shells orbital whose shapes are thus independent of  $\theta$ . Similarly, the 3d radial part of the 3d orbitals is totally frozen.

 $\Delta \mathbf{E_2}$ : finally, the dependence of  $\Delta E_2$  can only go through the shape of the  $a_{1g}$  and  $e'_g$  orbitals whose radial part is totally frozen due to the use of a minimal basis set.

If one accepts that the  $a_{1g}$  and  $e'_g$  orbitals are issued from the  $t_{2g}$  orbitals of the regular octahedron, their form is thus totally given by the symmetry (see eq. 4, 5) and

both  $\Delta E_2$  and the third contribution of  $\Delta E_1$  should be independent of  $\theta$ .

$$e_g \begin{cases} e_{g1}^{\circ} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} d_{xy} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} d_{xz} \\ e_{g2}^{\circ} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} d_{x^2 - y^2} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} d_{yz} \end{cases}$$
(4)

$$t_{2g} \begin{cases} a_{1g}^{\circ} = d_{z^{2}} \\ e_{g1}^{\circ \prime} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} d_{xy} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} d_{xz} \\ e_{g2}^{\circ \prime} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} d_{x^{2} - y^{2}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} d_{yz} \end{cases}$$
 (5)

The x, y and z coordinates are respectively associated with the  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$  crystallographic axes.

Figure 4 displays both  $\Delta E_1$  (dotted red curve) and  $\Delta E_2$  (dashed green curve) contributions to  $\Delta E$ . One sees immediately that  $\Delta E_2$  is not at all independent of  $\theta$  but rather monotonically increasing with  $\theta$ . It results that the above hypotheses of the  $t_{2g}$  exclusive origin of the  $e'_g$  orbitals is not valid. Indeed, out of the  $\theta = \theta_0$  point, the only orbital perfectly defined by the symmetry is the  $a_{1g}$  orbital. The  $e'_g$  and  $e_g$  orbitals belong to the same irreducible representation  $(E_g)$  and can thus mix despite the large  $t_{2g}$ – $e_g$  energy difference. If we name this mixing angle  $\alpha$ , it comes

$$e_{gi} = e_{gi}^{\circ\prime} \cos \alpha + e_{gi}^{\circ} \sin \alpha$$
  
 $e'_{qi} = -e_{qi}^{\circ\prime} \sin \alpha + e_{qi}^{\circ} \cos \alpha$ 

Figure 5 displays  $\alpha$  as a function of  $\theta$ . One sees that

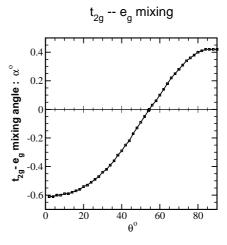


FIG. 5:  $t_{2g}-e_g$  hybridization angle in the trigonal distortion.

the  $t_{2g}-e_g$  hybridization angle  $\alpha$  is non null — except for the regular octahedron — and a monotonic, increasing function of  $\theta$ . Even if very small ( $\pm 0.6^{\circ}$ ), this  $t_{2g}-e_g$  hybridization has an important energetic effect, since it lowers the the  $e'_g$  orbital energy while increasing the  $e_g$  one.  $\alpha$  is very small but it modulates large energetic factors in  $\Delta E_2$ : on-site Coulomb repulsions of two electrons in the 3d orbitals. The result is a monotonic increasing

variation of  $\Delta E_2$  as a function of  $\theta$ . The variation of the  $\Delta E_1$  term is dominated by its nuclear interaction part and exhibits a monotonic decreasing variation as a function of  $\theta$ , as expected from the crystalline field theory. The nuclear interaction and  $t_{2g}-e_g$  hybridization have thus opposite effects on the  $a_{1g}-e_g'$  splitting. The failure of the crystalline field theory thus comes from not considering the  $t_{2g}-e_g$  hybridization.

In the calculations presented at this point, the screening effects on the on-site Coulomb repulsions and exchange integrals were not taken into account. Thus, the absolute value of  $\Delta E_2$  as a function of the hybridization  $\alpha$ , is very large and  $\alpha$  is very small. When the screening effects are properly taken into account, the absolute value of  $\Delta E_2$  as a function of  $\alpha$  is reduced by a factor about 6, and the  $t_{2g}$ - $e_g$  hybridization is much larger than the values presented in figure 5. Indeed, in the superconducting compound, for a realistic calculation including all effects, one finds  $\alpha \simeq 13^{\circ}$  ( $\theta = 61.5^{\circ}$ ).

#### IV. OTHER CASES

We considered up to now a  $Co^{4+}$  ion, that is five electrons in the 3d shell. Let us now examine the  $a_{1g}-e_g'$  splitting and related  $t_{2g}-e_g$  hybridization for different fillings of the 3d shell. The calculations presented in this section follow the same procedure as in sections III E, III F. In all cases a typical example in the transition metal oxides family was used to define the type of metallic atom and metal oxygen distances. Minimal basis set issued from full contraction of the basis set given in reference<sup>10</sup> will be used.

#### A. $3d^1$

The simplest case corresponds to only one electron in the 3d shell. This is, for instance, the case of the NaTiO<sub>2</sub> compound. The calculations were done using the average Ti–O distance found in NaTiO<sub>2</sub><sup>12</sup>:  $R_{\rm Ti-O}=2.0749 {\rm \AA}$ .

In this case,  $\Delta E_2 = 0$  and  $\Delta E(\theta) = \Delta E_1(\theta)$  behaves as pictured in figure 4. The  $a_{1g}$  orbital is of lower energy than the  $e'_g$  for  $\theta > \theta_0$  and of higher energy for  $\theta < \theta_0$ . This result is in perfect agreement with the crystalline field theory.

#### **B.** $3d^2$

A simple example of the  $3d^2$  filling in transition metal oxides is the LiVO<sub>2</sub> compound. Indeed, the vanadium atom is in the V<sup>3+</sup> ionization state. We thus used a metal oxygen distance of  $R_{\rm V-O}=1.9787 {\rm \AA}^{13}$ . Figure 6 displays the  $a_{1g}$ – $e'_g$  splitting as well as its decomposition into the single-electron and two-electron parts. As in the  $3d^5$  case (figure 4), the single-electron and two-electron parts behave in a monotonic way as a function of  $\theta$ , and

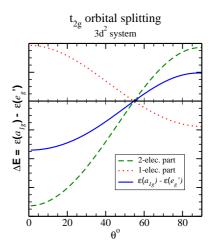


FIG. 6: Orbital splitting between the  $a_{1g}$  and  $e'_g$  orbitals for a  $3d^2$  transition metal. Only the nearest neighbor ligands electrostatic field is included in the calculation. The dotted red curve corresponds to the single-electron part of the orbital energy difference, the dashed green curve correspond to the two-electron part of the orbital energy difference.

in an opposite manner. In the present case, however, the two-electron part always dominates over the one-electron part and the  $a_{1g}-e_g'$  orbital splitting is always reversed compared to the crystalline field predictions. As for the  $3d^5$  system, there is a slight  $e_g'-e_g$  hybridization that is responsible for the  $t_{2g}$  orbitals order.

#### C. $3d^3$

Examples of  $3d^3$  transition metal oxides are found easily in the chromium compounds. Let us take for instance the  $NaCrO_2$  system<sup>14</sup>. The metal oxygen distance is thus :  $R_{\rm Cr-O} \simeq 1.901 \text{Å}$ . Figure 7 displays the  $a_{1g}$ – $e_g'$ orbital splitting as well as its decomposition into singleand two-electron parts. As usual the single-electron part and the two-electron part are monotonic as a function of  $\theta$  but with slopes of opposite signs. This case is quite similar to the  $3d^5$  case since none of the single- and twoelectron parts dominates the  $t_{2g}$  orbital splitting over the whole range. Indeed, for small values of  $\theta$ , the crystalline field effect dominates and the  $a_{1g}$  orbital is above the  $e'_{g}$ ones while, for large values of  $\theta$ , the two-electron part dominates and the  $a_{1g}$  orbital is again above the  $e'_q$  ones. In a small intermediate region the order is reversed. In the realistic range of  $\theta$  ( $\theta \simeq \theta_0$ ) there is a strong competition between the two effects (quasi-degeneracy of the  $a_{1q}$ and  $e'_{a}$  orbitals) and no simple theoretical prediction can be made. The crystalline field theory is not predictive but the present calculations cannot be considered as predictive either, since all the neglected effects may reverse the  $a_{1g}-e'_q$  order.

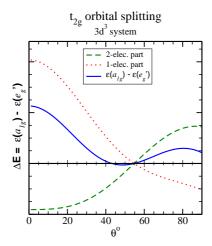


FIG. 7: Orbital splitting between the  $a_{1g}$  and  $e'_g$  orbitals for a  $3d^3$  transition metal. Only the nearest neighbor ligands electrostatic field is included in the calculation. The dotted red curve corresponds to the single-electron part of the orbital energy difference, the dashed green curve correspond to the two-electron part of the orbital energy difference.

#### V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In the present work we studied the validity of the crystalline field theory under the application of a trigonal distortion on the regular octahedron is applied. Under such a distortion, the  $T_{2g}$  irreducible representation (irrep) of the  $O_h$  group spits into  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  irreps  $(T_{2g} \longrightarrow A_{1g} \oplus E_g)$ , while the  $e_g$  irrep remains untouched  $(E_g \longrightarrow E_g)$ . The hybridization between the  $t_{2g}$  and  $e_g$  orbitals thus become symmetry allowed, even if hindered by energetic factors. This hybridization is not taken into account in the crystalline field theory. It is however of crucial importance for the relative order between the for-

mer  $t_{2g}$  orbitals and the reason of the failure of the crystalline field theory to be predictive. Indeed, due to the  $t_{2g}-e_g$  orbitals hybridization, the two-electron part of the  $e'_g$  orbital energy becomes dependant of the amplitude of the distortion and of opposite effect to the single-electron part. The relative order of the  $t_{2g}$  orbitals thus depends on the competition between these two effects.

In this work we studied the  $O_h$  to  $D_{3d}$  distortion, however one can expect similar effects to take place for other distortions of the regular octahedron. The condition for these effects to take place is that the  $T_{2g}$  irreducible representation splits into a one-dimensional irrep (A) and the same two-dimensional irrep (E) as the one the  $e_g$ orbitals are transformed to

$$\begin{array}{ccc} T_{2g} & \longrightarrow & A \oplus E \\ E_g & \longrightarrow & E \end{array}$$

Indeed, under such a distortion,  $t_{2g}$ – $e_g$  hybridization phenomena are allowed. The distortion should thus transform  $O_h$  into sub-groups that keep the  $C_3$  (111) symmetry axis:  $C_3$ ,  $C_{3v}$ ,  $D_3$ ,  $S_6$  and  $D_{3d}$ . Examples of such deformations are the elongation of the metal–ligand distance of one of the sets of three symmetry related ligands, or the rotation of such a set three ligands around the (111) symmetry axis.

#### Acknowledgments

The authors thank Jean-Pierre Doumerc and Michel Pouchard for helpful discussions and Daniel Maynau for providing us with the CASDI suite of programs. These calculations where done using the CNRS IDRIS computational facilities under project n°1842.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> K. Takada, H. Sakurai, E. Takayama-Muromachi, F. Izumi, R. A. Dilanian and T. Sasali, Nature 422, 53 (2003).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> I. Terasaki, Y. sasago and K. Uchinokura, Phys. Rev. B 56, R 12685 (1997).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> W. Koshibae and S. Maekawa, Phys, Rev. Letters **91**, 257003 (2003).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> L.-J. Zou, J.-L. wang and Z. Zeng, Phys. Rev. B 69, 132505 (2004); M. D. Johannes, I. I. Mazin, D. J. Singh and D. A. Papaconstantopoulos, Phys. Rev. Letters 93, 97005 (2004).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> S. Landron and MB Lepetit, Phys. Rev. B **74** 184507 (2006).

M. Z. Hasan, Y.-D. Chuang, D. Qian, Y. W. Li, Y. Kong, A. Kuprin, A. V. Fedorov, R. Kimmerling, E. Rotenberg, K. Rossnagel, Z. Hussain, H. Koh, N. S. Rogado, M. L. Foo and R. J. Cava, Phys. Rev. Letters 92, 246402 (2004); H.-B. Yang, S.-C. Wang, A. K. P. Sekharan, H. Matsui, S. Souma, T. Sato, T. Takahashi, T. Takeuchi, J. C. Campuzano, R. Jin, B. C. Sales, D. Mandrus, Z. Wang and H. Ding, Phys. Rev. Letters 92, 246403 (2004); H.-B. Yang,

Z.-H. Pan, A. K. P. Sekharan, T. Sato, S. Souma, T. Takahashi, R. Jin, B. C. Sales, D. Mandrus, A. V. Fedorov, Z. Wang and H. Ding, Phys. Rev. Letters **95**, 146401 (2005).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> MB Lepetit, Recent Research Developments in Quantum Chemistry 3, p. 143, Transword Research Network (2002).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> B. O. Roos, P. R. Taylor and P. E. Siegbahn, Chem. Phys. **48**, 157 (1980); B. O. Roos, Advances in Chemical Physics; Ab Initio Methods in Quantum Chemistry - II, chapter **69**, p. 399, John Wiley & Sons Ltd, Chichester, England (1987).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> J. Miralles, J. P. Daudey and R. Caballol, Chem. Phys. Lett. **198**, 555 (1992); V. M. García *et al.*, Chem. Phys. Lett. **238**, 222 (1995); V. M. García, M. Reguero and R. Caballol, Theor. Chem. Acc. **98**, 50 (1997).

Z. Barandiaran and L. Seijo, Can. J. Chem. **70**, 409 (1992).
 N. W. Winter, R. M. Pitzer, and D. K. Tample, L. Chem.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> N. W. Winter, R. M. Pitzer and D. K. Temple, J. Chem. Phys. **86**, 3549 (1987).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> S. J. Clarke, A. J. Fowkes, A. Harrison, R. M. Ibberson and M. J. Rosseinsky, Chem. Materials **10**, 372 (1998).

- L. P. Cardoso, D. E. Cox, T. A. Hewston and B. L. Chamberland, J. Solid State Chem. 72, 234 (1988).
   W. Ruedorff and H. Becker, Zeitschrift fuer Naturforschung, Teil B. Anorganische Chemie, Organische
- Chemie **9**, 614 (1954).

  I. Gil de Muro, M. Insausti, L. Lezama and T. Rojo, J. Solid State Chem. **178**, 928 (2005).