

# PHYS 635 Condensed Matter Physics

## Assignment 4 (Nov 9, 2004)

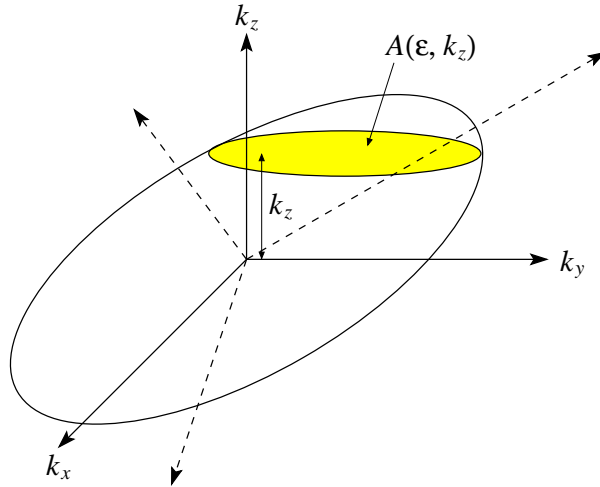
### Solutions

1. **A&M Problem 12.2.** For electrons near a band minimum or maximum, we have

$$\epsilon(\mathbf{k}) = \epsilon_0 + \frac{\hbar^2}{2}(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}_0)^T \mathbf{M}^{-1}(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}_0), \quad (1.1)$$

where  $\mathbf{M}^{-1}$  is the reciprocal effective mass tensor. As can be seen from its definition in Eq. (12.29) in A&M, the reciprocal effective mass tensor is symmetric. Near a band minimum or maximum, the eigenvalues  $1/m_i^*$  of  $\mathbf{M}^{-1}$  have the same sign, which means that the surfaces of constant energy as defined by (1.1) are ellipsoids.

(a) In the absence of a magnetic field we are free to choose the Cartesian axes to coincide with the principal axes of these ellipsoid. However, when a magnetic field is present, the direction of the magnetic field will usually be taken as the  $z$ -axis, following which the  $xy$ -plane will also be fixed. Therefore, for cyclotron motion, we would in general need to find an area  $A(\epsilon, k_z)$  like the one shown below:



To go about calculating this area, let us get ready some useful mathematical machinery.

First, consider the integral

$$I = \iiint_{x^2+y^2+z^2 \leq R^2} dx dy dz \delta(z - z_0). \quad (1.2)$$

By dimensional arguments,  $[dx] = [dy] = [dz] = \text{length}$ , while  $[\delta(z - z_0)] = 1/\text{length}$ , the integral has dimensions of  $\text{length}^2$ , i.e. it has the dimensions of an area. Going to cylindrical coordinates, we can write the integral as

$$I = \int dz \left( \int_0^{(R^2 - z^2)^{1/2}} \rho d\rho \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \right) \delta(z - z_0) dz. \quad (1.3)$$

Performing the integration over  $z$ , and noting that this partial integration of the delta function modifies the limits of the remaining integration over  $\rho$  and  $\phi$ , we find that

$$I = 2\pi \int_0^{(R^2 - z_0^2)^{1/2}} \rho d\rho = 2\pi \left[ \frac{\rho^2}{2} \right]_0^{(R^2 - z_0^2)^{1/2}} = \pi(R^2 - z_0^2), \quad (1.4)$$

which is none other than the area of the (circular) section of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2$  at a fixed  $z = z_0$ .

Next suppose that the set of unprimed coordinates  $(x, y, z)$  are related to another set of primed coordinates  $(x', y', z')$  by a linear transformation  $\mathbf{r}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{r}$ , such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{xx} & A_{xy} & A_{xz} \\ A_{yx} & A_{yy} & A_{yz} \\ A_{zx} & A_{zy} & A_{zz} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{xx}x + A_{xy}y + A_{xz}z \\ A_{yx}x + A_{yy}y + A_{yz}z \\ A_{zx}x + A_{zy}y + A_{zz}z \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.5)$$

Then the volume element  $dx' dy' dz'$  is related to the volume element  $dx dy dz$  by

$$dx' dy' dz' = \begin{vmatrix} \partial x' / \partial x & \partial x' / \partial y & \partial x' / \partial z \\ \partial y' / \partial x & \partial y' / \partial y & \partial y' / \partial z \\ \partial z' / \partial x & \partial z' / \partial y & \partial z' / \partial z \end{vmatrix} dx dy dz = |\mathbf{A}| dx dy dz, \quad (1.6)$$

where  $|\mathbf{A}|$  is the determinant of the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ .

Finally, let us write the equation of a sphere in a vectorial form, i.e. instead of the usual

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2, \quad (1.7)$$

we write it as

$$\mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} x & y & z \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = R^2. \quad (1.8)$$

Now if the primed coordinates  $\mathbf{r}'$  is related to the unprimed coordinates  $\mathbf{r}$  by the linear transformation  $\mathbf{r}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{r}$ , and if the singular values of  $\mathbf{A}$  are all nonzero, and have the same sign, then in general the primed coordinate axes are rotated and scaled with respect to the unprimed coordinate axes. If we have a sphere in the unprimed coordinates, under the linear transformation  $\mathbf{A}$  we would end up with an ellipsoid in the primed coordinates. Thus

$$\mathbf{r}'^T \mathbf{A}^{-1T} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{r}' = R^2 \quad (1.9)$$

is the vectorial form of the equation describing an ellipsoid in the primed coordinates.

Comparing (1.9) with

$$(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}_0)^T \mathbf{M}^{-1} (\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}_0) = 2(\epsilon - \epsilon_0)/\hbar^2, \quad (1.10)$$

we see that the surfaces of constant energy are indeed ellipsoids, as we have stated without proof earlier. Furthermore, if we think of  $(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}_0)$  as a vector in the ‘primed’ coordinates, then we may define a vector  $\mathbf{q} = (q_x, q_y, q_z)$  in an ‘unprimed’ coordinates, such that  $(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}_0) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{q}$ , in which the surfaces of constant energy are spheres, given by

$$\mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{q} = 2(\epsilon - \epsilon_0)/\hbar^2 = 2E/\hbar^2, \quad (1.11)$$

where  $E = \epsilon - \epsilon_0$ . From (1.10) and (1.9), we see that

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1T} \mathbf{A}^{-1}, \quad (1.12)$$

or equivalently,

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T. \quad (1.13)$$

Now, we are ready to evaluate  $A(\epsilon, k_z)$  as shown in the figure. Our analysis in (1.2) through (1.4) tells us that this is given by

$$A(\epsilon, k_z) = \iiint_{\Delta \mathbf{k}'^T \mathbf{M}^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{k}' \leq 2E/\hbar^2} d^3 \mathbf{k}' \delta(k'_z - k_z), \quad (1.14)$$

where  $\Delta \mathbf{k}' = (\mathbf{k}' - \mathbf{k}_0)$ , and we have written the constraint to the volume of an ellipsoid in the vectorial form given in (1.9).

Next, we change integration variables to the ‘unprimed’ coordinates  $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{k}' - \mathbf{k}_0)$ , so that the integration volume becomes a sphere. Since the ‘primed’ integration variable  $k'_z$  appears in the delta-function, we need to write the arguments of  $\delta(k'_z - k_z)$  in terms of  $q_x$ ,  $q_y$  and  $q_z$ . Using  $(\mathbf{k}' - \mathbf{k}_0) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{q}$ , we know that

$$k'_z - k_{0z} = A_{zx}q_x + A_{zy}q_y + A_{zz}q_z, \quad (1.15)$$

and so

$$A(\epsilon, k_z) = \iiint_{\mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{q} \leq 2E/\hbar^2} |\mathbf{A}| d^3 \mathbf{q} \delta(A_{zx}q_x + A_{zy}q_y + A_{zz}q_z - (k_z - k_{0z})), \quad (1.16)$$

where we have made use of (1.6) relating the volume elements in the ‘primed’ and ‘unprimed’ coordinates.

The argument of the delta-function in the above integral looks formidable, but its geometric interpretation is actually quite simple:

$$A_{zx}q_x + A_{zy}q_y + A_{zz}q_z = (k_z - k_{0z}) \quad (1.17)$$

is the Cartesian equation for a plane in  $q$ -space. If we denote the perpendicular distance of this plane from the origin of  $q$ -space as  $\lambda$ , then clearly the area of the intersection between this plane and the sphere of radius  $q = (2E/\hbar^2)^{1/2}$  is given by  $\pi[(2E/\hbar^2) - \lambda^2]$ . With this result, we might naively conclude that

$$A(\epsilon, k_z) = \pi |\mathbf{A}| \left[ \frac{2E}{\hbar^2} - \lambda^2 \right], \quad (1.18)$$

but this is not the case: to obtain the above result, we need the constraining delta-function to have the form  $\delta(\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{n} - \lambda)$ , whereas the delta-function in (1.16) can at most be massaged to a form like  $\delta(\alpha(\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{n} - \lambda))$ . To get the correct answer for  $A(\epsilon, k_z)$ , we need to find not just  $\lambda$ , but also the scaling factor  $\alpha$ .

To do so, let us assume the form  $\alpha(\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{n} - \lambda)$  for the argument of the delta-function, and compare it against that in (1.16):

$$\alpha(\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{n} - \lambda) = \alpha n_x q_x + \alpha n_y q_y + \alpha n_z q_z - \alpha \lambda = A_{zx}q_x + A_{zy}q_y + A_{zz}q_z - (k_z - k_{0z}), \quad (1.19)$$

which tells us that

$$\alpha n_x = A_{zx}, \quad \alpha n_y = A_{zy}, \quad \alpha n_z = A_{zz}, \quad \alpha \lambda = (k_z - k_{0z}). \quad (1.20)$$

Using the fact that  $n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2 = 1$ , we find then that

$$\alpha = (A_{zx}^2 + A_{zy}^2 + A_{zz}^2)^{1/2}. \quad (1.21)$$

Finally, using  $\delta(\alpha(x - x_0)) = \alpha^{-1} \delta(x - x_0)$ , we can at long last perform the integration to get

$$A(\epsilon, k_z) = \frac{\pi |\mathbf{A}|}{\alpha} \left[ \frac{2(\epsilon - \epsilon_0)}{\hbar^2} - \frac{(k_z - k_{0z})^2}{\alpha^2} \right]. \quad (1.22)$$

At this point, let us note that we can actually write  $|\mathbf{A}|$  and  $\alpha$  in terms of matrix elements of  $\mathbf{M}$ . First, we see from  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$  that

$$|\mathbf{M}| = |\mathbf{A}||\mathbf{A}^T|. \quad (1.23)$$

But  $|\mathbf{A}^T| = |\mathbf{A}|$ , therefore

$$|\mathbf{M}| = |\mathbf{A}|^2, \quad (1.24)$$

and we may write  $|\mathbf{A}| = |\mathbf{M}|^{1/2}$ . Secondly, writing out the matrix elements of  $\mathbf{M}$  and  $\mathbf{A}$  explicitly as

$$\begin{pmatrix} M_{xx} & M_{xy} & M_{xz} \\ M_{yx} & M_{yy} & M_{yz} \\ M_{zx} & M_{zy} & M_{zz} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{xx} & A_{xy} & A_{xz} \\ A_{yx} & A_{yy} & A_{yz} \\ A_{zx} & A_{zy} & A_{zz} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{xx} & A_{yx} & A_{zx} \\ A_{xy} & A_{yy} & A_{zy} \\ A_{xz} & A_{yz} & A_{zz} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (1.25)$$

we find that

$$M_{zz} = A_{zx}^2 + A_{zy}^2 + A_{zz}^2 = \alpha^2, \quad (1.26)$$

allowing us to write  $\alpha = M_{zz}^{1/2}$ .

Putting all this together, we find that

$$A(\epsilon, k_z) = \pi \left( \frac{|\mathbf{M}|}{M_{zz}} \right)^{1/2} \left[ \frac{2(\epsilon - \epsilon_0)}{\hbar^2} - \frac{(k_z - k_{0z})^2}{M_{zz}} \right], \quad (1.27)$$

from which we obtain the cyclotron effective mass as

$$m_c^* = \frac{\hbar^2}{2\pi} \frac{\partial A}{\partial \epsilon} = \left( \frac{|\mathbf{M}|}{M_{zz}} \right)^{1/2}, \quad (1.28)$$

where we have made use of the given information that matrix elements of  $\mathbf{M}$  do not depend on  $\mathbf{k}$  (and hence have no dependence on  $\epsilon$ ). (Shown)

**Alternative Method.** Alternatively, you can also derive this result by brute force, by first writing out the dispersion relation

$$\frac{2E}{\hbar^2} = M_{xx}^{-1} \Delta k_x^2 + M_{yy}^{-1} \Delta k_y^2 + M_{zz}^{-1} \Delta k_z^2 + 2M_{xy}^{-1} \Delta k_x \Delta k_y + 2M_{xz}^{-1} \Delta k_x \Delta k_z + 2M_{yz}^{-1} \Delta k_y \Delta k_z \quad (1.29)$$

explicitly. For a fixed  $k_z$  (fixed  $\Delta k_z$ ), this equation can be put into the form

$$M_{xx}^{-1} (\Delta k_x - \Delta k_{1x})^2 + M_{yy}^{-1} (\Delta k_y - \Delta k_{1y})^2 + 2M_{xy}^{-1} (\Delta k_x - \Delta k_{1x})(\Delta k_y - \Delta k_{1y}) = \frac{2E}{\hbar^2} - F(\Delta k_z), \quad (1.30)$$

where

$$\Delta k_{1x} = \frac{M_{xz}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{yz}^{-1}}{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1}} \Delta k_z, \quad \Delta k_{1y} = \frac{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yz}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xz}^{-1}}{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1}} \Delta k_z, \quad (1.31)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} F(\Delta k_z) = & M_{zz}^{-1} \Delta k_z^2 - M_{xx}^{-1} \left( \frac{M_{xz}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{yz}^{-1}}{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1}} \right)^2 \Delta k_z^2 - \\ & M_{yy}^{-1} \left( \frac{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yz}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xz}^{-1}}{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1}} \right)^2 \Delta k_z^2 - \\ & 2M_{xy}^{-1} \left( \frac{M_{xz}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{yz}^{-1}}{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1}} \right) \left( \frac{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yz}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xz}^{-1}}{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1}} \right) \Delta k_z^2. \end{aligned} \quad (1.32)$$

This is the equation of an ellipse, centered at  $(\Delta k_{1x}, \Delta k_{1y})$  and rotated with respect to the  $\Delta k_x$ - and  $\Delta k_y$ -axes. To find the semi-major and semi-minor axes, we diagonalize the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} M_{xx}^{-1} & M_{xy}^{-1} \\ M_{xy}^{-1} & M_{yy}^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.33)$$

to find the eigenvalues as

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_+ &= \frac{M_{xx}^{-1} + M_{yy}^{-1}}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( M_{xx}^{-1} + M_{yy}^{-1} \right)^2 - 4 \left( M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1} \right) \right]^{1/2} \\ &= \frac{M_{xx}^{-1} + M_{xy}^{-1}}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( M_{xx}^{-1} - M_{yy}^{-1} \right)^2 + 4 M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1} \right]^{1/2} = \alpha + \beta, \\ \lambda_- &= \frac{M_{xx}^{-1} + M_{xy}^{-1}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( M_{xx}^{-1} - M_{yy}^{-1} \right)^2 + 4 M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1} \right]^{1/2} = \alpha - \beta.\end{aligned}\quad (1.34)$$

The semi-major and semi-minor axes of the ellipse are thus

$$\begin{aligned}a &= \lambda_+^{-1/2} \left[ \frac{2E}{\hbar^2} - F(\Delta k_z) \right]^{1/2}, \\ b &= \lambda_-^{-1/2} \left[ \frac{2E}{\hbar^2} - F(\Delta k_z) \right]^{1/2},\end{aligned}\quad (1.35)$$

and so the area of the ellipse is

$$A(\epsilon, k_z) = \pi ab = \pi \frac{2E/\hbar^2 - F(\Delta k_z)}{(\alpha + \beta)^{1/2}(\alpha - \beta)^{1/2}} = \pi \frac{2E/\hbar^2 - F(\Delta k_z)}{(\alpha^2 - \beta^2)^{1/2}}, \quad (1.36)$$

where

$$\alpha^2 - \beta^2 = \left( \frac{M_{xx}^{-1} + M_{yy}^{-1}}{2} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} \left[ \left( M_{xx}^{-1} - M_{yy}^{-1} \right)^2 + 4 M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1} \right] = M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1}. \quad (1.37)$$

Next, we make use of the fact (see for example, in G. Arfken, *Mathematical Methods for Physicists*) that

$$M_{ij} = \frac{C_{ji}}{|\mathbf{M}^{-1}|}, \quad (1.38)$$

where  $C_{ji}$  is the cofactor of  $\mathbf{M}^{-1}$  associated with the indices  $i$  and  $j$ . For  $i = j = z$ , we have

$$M_{zz} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} M_{xx}^{-1} & M_{xy}^{-1} \\ M_{xy}^{-1} & M_{yy}^{-1} \end{vmatrix}}{|\mathbf{M}^{-1}|} = \frac{M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1}}{|\mathbf{M}^{-1}|}. \quad (1.39)$$

This let us write

$$M_{xx}^{-1} M_{yy}^{-1} - M_{xy}^{-1} M_{xy}^{-1} = M_{zz} |\mathbf{M}^{-1}| = \frac{M_{zz}}{|\mathbf{M}|}, \quad (1.40)$$

which in turn gives us

$$A(\epsilon, k_z) = \pi \left( \frac{|\mathbf{M}|}{M_{zz}} \right)^{1/2} \left[ \frac{2E}{\hbar^2} - F(\Delta k_z) \right]. \quad (1.41)$$

Finally, noting that  $F(\Delta k_z)$  contains only  $\Delta k_z$  and matrix elements of  $\mathbf{M}^{-1}$ , which do not depend on  $\epsilon$ , we can take the derivative of  $A(\epsilon, k_z)$  with respect to  $\epsilon$  to find that

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial \epsilon} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{|\mathbf{M}|}{M_{zz}} \right)^{1/2}. \quad (1.42)$$

The cyclotron effective mass is therefore

$$m_c^* = \frac{\hbar^2}{2\pi} \frac{\partial A}{\partial \epsilon} = \left( \frac{|\mathbf{M}|}{M_{zz}} \right)^{1/2}. \quad (\text{Shown}) \quad (1.43)$$

(b) For the band structure given in (1.1), the density of states is given by

$$g(\epsilon) = \int \frac{d^3 \mathbf{k}}{4\pi^3} \delta \left( \epsilon - \epsilon_0 - \frac{\hbar^2}{2} (\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}_0)^T \mathbf{M}^{-1} (\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}_0) \right). \quad (1.44)$$

As done in part (a) of the problem, let us go to  $q$ -space to get rid of the matrix  $\mathbf{M}^{-1}$ . While we are at it, we might as well scale  $\mathbf{q}$  further by  $(2/\hbar^2)^{1/2}$  so that the argument of the delta-function becomes  $(\epsilon - \epsilon_0 - \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{q}) = (\epsilon - \epsilon_0 - q^2)$ .

As in part (a) of the problem, we pick up a factor of  $|\mathbf{A}| = |\mathbf{M}|^{1/2}$  with the change from integration over  $\mathbf{k}$  to integration over  $\mathbf{q}$ , as well as a factor of  $(2/\hbar^2)^{3/2}$  from the additional scaling we are introducing here. We thus have

$$\begin{aligned} g(\epsilon) &= \frac{1}{\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2|\mathbf{M}|)^{1/2} \int_0^\infty q^2 dq \delta(\epsilon - \epsilon_0 - q^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2|\mathbf{M}|)^{1/2} \int_0^\infty q^2 dq \left[ \frac{\delta(q - \sqrt{\epsilon - \epsilon_0})}{\sqrt{\epsilon - \epsilon_0}} + \frac{\delta(q + \sqrt{\epsilon - \epsilon_0})}{\sqrt{\epsilon - \epsilon_0}} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2|\mathbf{M}|)^{1/2} \sqrt{\epsilon - \epsilon_0}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.45)$$

With this result, the electronic specific heat is therefore given by

$$c_v = \frac{\pi^2}{3} k_B^2 T g(\epsilon_F) = \frac{k_B^2 T}{3\hbar^3} (2|\mathbf{M}|)^{1/2} (\epsilon_F - \epsilon_0)^{1/2}. \quad (1.46)$$

Now, in the case of free electrons, the density of state is given by

$$g(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left( \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \epsilon^{1/2}, \quad (1.47)$$

with the bare mass  $m$  of the electron appearing cubed in the expression. If we want to define an effective mass  $m^*$  so that (1.45) can be written as

$$g(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \left( \frac{2m^*}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} (\epsilon - \epsilon_0)^{1/2}, \quad (1.48)$$

then it is clear that we must have  $m^{*3} = |\mathbf{M}|$ , i.e. the (specific heat) effective mass is  $m^* = |\mathbf{M}|^{1/3}$ . (Shown)

2. **A&M Problem 13.5.** For a metal subject simultaneously to a nonzero electric field  $\mathbf{E} \neq \mathbf{0}$  and nonzero thermal gradient  $\nabla T \neq \mathbf{0}$ , the heat production per unit volume  $dq/dt$  is given by

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{du}{dt} - \mu \frac{dn}{dt}, \quad (2.1)$$

where  $u$  is the energy per unit volume,  $\mu$  the chemical potential, and  $n$  the number of electrons per unit volume. The number density  $n$  satisfies the continuity equation

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^n, \quad (2.2)$$

where  $\mathbf{j}^n$  is the number current density. The rate of change of the energy density is

$$\frac{du}{dt} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^\epsilon + \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{j}, \quad (2.3)$$

where  $\mathbf{j} = -e\mathbf{j}^n$  is the charge current density,  $\mathbf{j}^\epsilon$  is the energy current density, and  $\mathbf{E}$  is the electric field. Substituting (2.2) and (2.3) into (2.1), we obtain

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^\epsilon + \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{j} + \mu \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^n. \quad (2.4)$$

To express the rate of heat production  $dq/dt$  to the heat current density  $\mathbf{j}^q$  and the charge current density  $\mathbf{j}$ , we use Eq. (13.40) in A&M, which tells us that

$$\mathbf{j}^q = \mathbf{j}^\epsilon - \mu \mathbf{j}^n. \quad (2.5)$$

Taking the divergence of this equation, we find that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^q = \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{j}^\epsilon - \mu \mathbf{j}^n] = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^\epsilon - \nabla \mu \cdot \mathbf{j}^n - \mu \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^n, \quad (2.6)$$

or, equivalently,

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^n = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^\epsilon + \nabla \mu \cdot \mathbf{j}^n + \mu \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^n. \quad (2.7)$$

Substituting this into (2.4), we then find

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^q - \nabla \mu \cdot \mathbf{j}^n - \mu \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^n + \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{j} + \mu \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^n = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^q + \frac{1}{e} \nabla \mu \cdot \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{j} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^q + \mathcal{E} \cdot \mathbf{j}, \quad (2.8)$$

where  $\mathcal{E} = \mathbf{E} + \frac{1}{e} \nabla \mu$  is the field associated with the electrochemical potential. (Shown)

Next, we want to write  $dq/dt$  in terms of the physically measurable resistivity  $\rho$ , thermal conductivity  $\mathbf{K}$  and thermoelectric power  $\mathbf{Q}$ . To do this, let us first write down Eq. (13.45) of A&M,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{j} &= \mathbf{L}^{11} \mathcal{E} - \mathbf{L}^{12} \nabla T, \\ \mathbf{j}^q &= \mathbf{L}^{21} \mathcal{E} - \mathbf{L}^{22} \nabla T, \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

and the relations between  $\rho$ ,  $\mathbf{K}$ ,  $\mathbf{Q}$  and the tensors  $\mathbf{L}^{ij}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^{-1} &= \sigma = \mathbf{L}^{11}, \\ \mathbf{K} &= \mathbf{L}^{22} - \mathbf{L}^{21} (\mathbf{L}^{11})^{-1} \mathbf{L}^{12}, \\ \mathbf{Q} &= \mathbf{L}^{12} (\mathbf{L}^{11})^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

When we have cubic symmetry, the tensors  $\mathbf{L}^{ij}$  are diagonal and of the form

$$\mathbf{L}^{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} L^{ij} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & L^{ij} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & L^{ij} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2.11)$$

and thus  $\mathbf{L}^{ij}$ ,  $\rho$ ,  $\mathbf{K}$  and  $\mathbf{Q}$  can all be treated as scalars. With this simplification, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{j} &= L^{11} \mathcal{E} - L^{12} \nabla T, \\ \mathbf{j}^q &= L^{21} \mathcal{E} - L^{22} \nabla T, \end{aligned} \quad (2.12)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\rho} &= \sigma = L^{11}, \\ K &= L^{22} - \frac{L^{21} L^{12}}{L^{11}}, \\ Q &= \frac{L^{12}}{L^{11}}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.13)$$

Furthermore, from the definition of  $\mathbf{L}^{ij}$  in Eq. (13.47) in A&M, we see in Eq. (13.51) of A&M that

$$L^{21} = T L^{12}. \quad (2.14)$$

With these results at hand, we write  $\mathcal{E}$  in terms of  $\mathbf{j}$  and  $\nabla T$  as

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{1}{L^{11}} \mathbf{j} + \frac{L^{12}}{L^{11}} \nabla T = \rho \mathbf{j} + Q \nabla T, \quad (2.15)$$

and simplify the second term of  $dq/dt$  in (2.8) as

$$\mathcal{E} \cdot \mathbf{j} = \rho \mathbf{j}^2 + Q \nabla T \cdot \mathbf{j}. \quad (2.16)$$

To simplify the first term of  $dq/dt$  in (2.8), let us substitute  $\mathcal{E}$  into  $\mathbf{j}^q$  to write

$$\mathbf{j}^q = \frac{L^{21}}{L^{11}} \mathbf{j} + \frac{L^{21} L^{12}}{L^{11}} \nabla T - \left( K + \frac{L^{21} L^{12}}{L^{11}} \right) \nabla T = T Q \mathbf{j} - K \nabla T. \quad (2.17)$$

Taking the divergence of this equation, we then find

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^q = Q \nabla T \cdot \mathbf{j} + T \nabla Q \cdot \mathbf{j} + T Q \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} - \nabla K \cdot \nabla T - K \nabla^2 T. \quad (2.18)$$

For uniform current flow and uniform temperature gradient, we have the conditions  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} = 0$  and  $\nabla^2 T = 0$ , which means that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}^q = Q \nabla T \cdot \mathbf{j} + T \nabla Q \cdot \mathbf{j} - \nabla K \cdot \nabla T. \quad (2.19)$$

Combining (2.19) and (2.16), we then write

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = \rho \mathbf{j}^2 + \nabla K \cdot \nabla T - T \nabla Q \cdot \mathbf{j}. \quad (2.20)$$

Now, from the definitions of  $\mathbf{L}^{ij}$ , we see that  $K$  and  $Q$  depend on  $\mathbf{r}$  essentially through the local chemical potential  $\mu(\mathbf{r})$ . But as with the case of global thermal equilibrium, where the chemical potential



is determined by the particle number constraint to be a function of the temperature  $T$ , i.e.  $\mu = \mu(T)$ , we extend this relation to the case of local equilibrium to write  $\mu(\mathbf{r}) = \mu(T(\mathbf{r}))$ . This means then that  $K = K(\mu(\mathbf{r})) = K(T(\mathbf{r}))$  and  $Q = Q(\mu(\mathbf{r})) = Q(T(\mathbf{r}))$ , and we can write their gradients as

$$\nabla K = \frac{dK}{dT} \nabla T, \quad \nabla Q = \frac{dQ}{dT} \nabla T, \quad (2.21)$$

giving us

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = \rho \mathbf{j}^2 + \frac{dK}{dT} (\nabla T)^2 - T \frac{dQ}{dT} \nabla T \cdot \mathbf{j}. \quad (\text{Shown}) \quad (2.22)$$

In the last part of this question, we are asked to compare the numerical values of the coefficient  $-T(dQ/dT)$ , obtained using the relaxation time approximation in a quantum-mechanical context, and the coefficient  $(ne\tau\rho/m)(d\varepsilon/dT)$ , obtained using the relaxation time approximation in the classical context (i.e. the Drude approximation), of  $\nabla T \cdot \mathbf{j}$ . For free classical electrons, the Drude relaxation time  $\tau$  is determined from the measured resistivity of the metal as (Eq. (1.7) in A&M)

$$\tau = \frac{m}{ne^2\rho}, \quad (2.23)$$

which means that the coefficient of  $\nabla T \cdot \mathbf{j}$  in the Drude approximation is

$$\frac{1}{e} \frac{d\varepsilon}{dT}, \quad (2.24)$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is the mean thermal energy of the electrons. For a free classical electron gas in equilibrium at temperature  $T$ , the average thermal energy ought to be  $\varepsilon = \frac{3}{2}k_B T$ , which follows from the Equipartition Theorem. In the presence of a uniform electric field and electron-electron interactions, however, there is no reason to expect the Equipartition Theorem to be valid. We simply make a leap of faith in the Drude approximation by assuming that electron-electron interactions results locally in relaxation to a local thermal distribution characterized by a temperature  $T(\mathbf{r})$ , which varies from point to point. Within such an approximation, the average thermal energy  $\varepsilon(\mathbf{r})$ , which depends on where we are in the metal, should still be given locally by  $\varepsilon(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{3}{2}k_B T(\mathbf{r})$ , and thus

$$\frac{1}{e} \frac{d\varepsilon}{dT} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{k_B}{e}. \quad (2.25)$$

For free quantum-mechanical electrons, we have (Eq. (2.94) in A&M)

$$Q = -\frac{\pi^2}{6} \frac{k_B}{e} \left( \frac{k_B T}{\epsilon_F} \right), \quad (2.26)$$

and thus the coefficient of  $\nabla T \cdot \mathbf{j}$  in the quantum-mechanical relaxation time approximation for free electrons is

$$-T \frac{dQ}{dT} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \frac{k_B}{e} \left( \frac{k_B T}{\epsilon_F} \right). \quad (2.27)$$

The ratio of the magnitude of the Thomson effect predicted by the quantum-mechanical relaxation time approximation as compared to that predicted by the classical Drude approximation is thus

$$\frac{-T(dQ/dT)}{(1/e)(d\varepsilon/dT)} = \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \frac{k_B T}{\epsilon_F}. \quad (2.28)$$

At room temperature,  $T = 300$  K, and using the typical value of  $\epsilon_F = 5$  eV, we find the numerical value of this ratio to be on the order of  $10^{-2}$ .

.../Siew-Ann Cheong