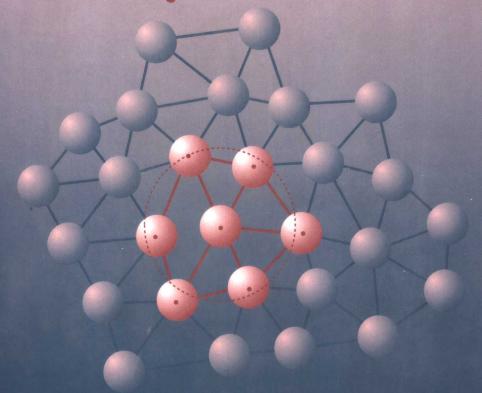
# THE MAGNETISM OF AMORPHOUS METALS AND ALLOYS

Editors

J. A. Fernandez-Baca Wai-Yim Ching



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## THE MAGNETISM OF AMORPHOUS METALS AND ALLOYS

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### THE MAGNETISM OF AMORPHOUS METALS AND ALLOYS

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### **FOREWORD**

About four years ago we were invited by the editors of World Scientific Publishing Co. Pte. Ltd. to edit a review volume on selected topics of randomness in magnetism. This subject was later narrowed down to the magnetism of amorphous metallic alloys. Of course the first question that came to our minds is "Why bother in editing a volume on a subject that has already excellent and comprehensive review books and articles like those of Mooriani and Coey and J. Chappert. 2. The immediate answer was that perhaps it was worthwhile to make an update to the literature in this field, in the form of a book that would gather a selection of topics written by the people that had made the most recent progress. This would offer current reviews from the point of view of the specialists who would concentrate on their most recent progress while not neglecting to refer the reader to the already abundant existing literature. With this in mind we invited a selected group of specialists to review their progress in this subject, some of them accepted this challenge and this book is the result of their hard work. We thank all of them for their dedication and for their commitment. Because of the way that this book came about, this volume is by no means a comprehensive review of all the progress in the subject. Rather it is a collection of selected topics in the recent progress on the study of the magnetism of amorphous metals and alloys. Finally, we recognize the title of this book is very ambitious because while a great deal has been learned about the magnetism of amorphous metallic alloys, the study of the magnetism of the pure amorphous metals is still a subject of intense activity. We hope that the content of this book will help to motivate research in this direction. We trust that the reader will find in this volume a worthwhile update of some of the progress in the field of amorphous magnetism.

J. A. Fernandez-Baca W. Y. Ching

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>K. Moorjani and J. M. D. Coey, Magnetic Glasses, (Elsevier, 1984).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>J. Chappert, "Magnetism of Amorphous Metallic Alloys", in Magnetism of Metals and Alloys, ed. M. Cyrot (North Holland, 1982)

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### CHAPTER ONE

## THEORY OF MAGNETISM IN AMORPHOUS TRANSITION METALS AND ALLOYS

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### 1. Introduction

In the past two decades, a large number of amorphous transition metal alloys showing fascinating magnetic properties have been found with the development of rapid quenching techniques [1-10]. Their physical properties, such as amorphous structure, magnetic properties, electronic states, transport properties, and magneto-optical properties, have been extensively investigated by means of microscopic experimental techniques. A variety of magnetism caused by structural disorder has opened a new field of "amorphous metallic magnetism", in which structural disorder and metallic magnetism are closely related each other *via* electronic structure. This chapter reviews theoretical aspects of recent developments in amorphous metallic magnetism of transition metals (TM) and alloys.

Needless to say, the most essential character of amorphous systems is structural disorder. In the past, experimental data for amorphous magnetic alloys have often prevented us from understanding the effects of structural disorder, because of the nonexistence of amorphous pure transition metals and the limited range of concentration in amorphous alloys. Amorphous transition metal alloys containing considerable amount of metalloids (typically 20 at.% B or P), were first systematically investigated

by Mizoguchi et al. [11-12], Hasegawa et al. [13], and O'Handley et al. [14-15] in the 1970's. The data showed that the magnetization and Curie temperature ( $T_{\rm C}$ ) were uniformly lower than those of crystalline alloys when they were plotted as a function of average d-electron numbers. Amorphous Fe<sub>80</sub>B<sub>10</sub>P<sub>10</sub> alloy [15], for example, shows ferromagnetism with the ground-state magnetization M=2.1  $\mu_{\rm B}$  and  $T_{\rm C}$ =640 K, while bcc Fe has M=2.2  $\mu_{\rm B}$  and  $T_{\rm C}$ =1040 K. Amorphous Co<sub>80</sub>B<sub>10</sub>P<sub>10</sub> alloy [15] also shows ferromagnetism with M=1.1  $\mu_{\rm B}$  and  $T_{\rm C}$ =770 K, which may be compared with M=1.7  $\mu_{\rm B}$  and  $T_{\rm C}$ =1400 K in fcc Co.

The magnetization vs. concentration curves were analyzed by using a concept of generalized Slater-Pauling curves suitable for the strong ferromagnets [16-19]. This method is based on the following identity:

$$M = Z_{\rm m} + 2n_{\rm sp\uparrow} \quad . \tag{1.1}$$

Here  $n_{\rm sp\uparrow}$  is the averaged number of sp-electrons with up spin.  $Z_{\rm m}$  is the averaged magnetic valence defined by  $Z_{\rm m}=\sum_{\alpha}c_{\alpha}(2n_{\alpha\uparrow}-Z_{\alpha})$ .  $c_{\alpha},\ n_{\alpha\uparrow},\ {\rm and}\ Z_{\alpha}$  are the concentration, d-electron number with up spin, and the chemical valence for the constituent atom  $\alpha$ , respectively. Since  $Z_{\rm m}$  and  $n_{\rm sp\uparrow}$  are linear with respect to the concentration in transition metal alloys with strong ferromagnetism, we have a linear relation between M and  $Z_{\rm m}$ .

The simple behaviors of M and  $T_{\rm C}$  in TM-metalloids alloys were often regarded as inherent properties of amorphous structure rather than as effects of the presence of metalloids. It was concluded that the structural disorder merely introduced such simple behaviors into the magnetic properties [4]. However, the above picture changed with the appearance of amorphous transition metal alloys containing early transition metals or rare-earth (RE) metals in the 1980's [10,20-27]. In particular, Hiroyoshi and Fukamichi [22], Saito et al. [23], Coey et al. [24-25], Wakabayashi et al. [26], and Fukamichi et al. [21] found that the ferromagnetism in Fe-rich amorphous alloys collapses completely beyond 90 at. % Fe, and that a new spin-glass (SG) phase appears in which the transition temperatures are 120 K irrespective of the second elements, contradicting the early data on alloys containing metalloids. Furthermore, Fukamichi, Goto, and Mizutani [27] found that the Curie temperatures in Co-rich Co-Y amorphous alloys are enhanced as compared with those in their crystalline counterparts. It was suggested that the Curie temperature extrapolated to amorphous pure Co should reach 1850 K, which is 450 K higher than for fcc Co. These drastic changes of magnetism in the vicinity of amorphous pure metals have revealed the important role of structural disorder in amorphous metallic magnetism. It is our main purpose to describe such a new feature of amorphous metallic magnetism from the theoretical point of view.

There are two directions in the development of solid state physics. One is to include more and more electron correlations in order to achieve microscopic understanding of magnetism, metal-insulator transition, and high- $T_{\rm C}$  super conductors [28-29]. In particular, theoretical description of the magnetism in transition metals and alloys

has been the main part of correlation problems, since the transition metal alloys show both itinerant and localized behaviors in their magnetic properties [30]. The other direction is to take account of more and more disorder [31]. The theory of transition metals and alloys in this direction has been developed in the order of magnetic impurities, substitutional alloys, and amorphous alloys [32-33]. A quantitative theory of amorphous metallic magnetism is, therefore, a goal that these two lines of investigation should reach at the end of the development.

This chapter is organized as follows. We discuss in the following section the theoretical problems and historical developments in amorphous metallic magnetism. There are discussions on the amorphous structure, electronic structure, and magnetism in Sec. 2.1. The most important advances in the recent theories of amorphous metallic magnetism have been the first-principles band calculation of the ground-state amorphous electronic structure and the development of a finite-temperature theory. The former was established by Fujiwara [34-35] through a combination of the linearmuffin-tin-orbital (LMTO) method [36-37] with the recursion method [38-39] in the framework of the band theory, which will be reviewed in Sec. 2.2. The latter was recently proposed by Kakehashi [40-42] on the basis of the functional integral method [43-45] and the distribution-function method [46-47]. The finite-temperature theory is reviewed in Sec. 2.3. Section 3 is devoted to the magnetism in amorphous transition metals, in particular, amorphous Fe, Co, and Ni. Numerical examples for these systems will demonstrate the basic effects of structural disorder. The magnetic properties of transition metal alloys are governed by both structural and configurational disorders. In Sec. 4, we discuss the magnetic properties of TM-TM alloys (Sec. 4.1), TM-RE alloys (Sec. 4.2), and TM-metalloid alloys (Sec. 4.3) on the basis of their electronic structures, which have been obtained in the last decade.

### 2. Theoretical Approach to Amorphous Metallic Magnetism

### 2.1. Basic Problems and Developments

Amorphous transition metals and alloys are characterized by structural disorder and itinerant magnetism. In the latter, electrons move from site to site with the electron hopping integrals which form electronic band structure. The magnetism is known to be caused by competition between the electron hopping and the electron-electron Coulomb interactions. The magnetic properties are sensitive to the band structure rather than the Coulomb interactions in metals, because the screened Coulomb interactions act mainly between the on-site electrons, and thus depend very little on the structure of solids. It is therefore essential to take into account the effect of the structural disorder on the electronic band structure. This implies that it is difficult to understand the magnetic properties of amorphous transition metals and alloys without taking the following regular steps:

### (1) Construction of amorphous structure

- (2) Calculation of electronic structure
- (3) Constructing a theory of amorphous magnetism on the basis of the electronic structure

In what follows, we briefly discuss the theoretical problems in these three steps, as well as historical developments.

### 2.1.1. Amorphous structure

In crystalline systems, the crystal structure and lattice constants can be determined by analyzing the Bragg peaks in X-ray or neutron diffraction, and thus the electronic structure can be calculated on the basis of the Bloch theory [37,48]. This procedure is no longer available for amorphous metals and alloys, because of the lack of translational symmetry. X-ray experimental techniques [49,50] give us only the pair distribution functions (PDF)  $g_{\alpha\gamma}(R)$ , which are defined as follows:

$$g_{\alpha\gamma}(R) = \frac{\rho_{\alpha\gamma}(R)}{\rho_{\gamma}} ,$$
 (1.2)

where  $\rho_{\alpha\gamma}(R)$  is the density of a  $\gamma$  atom at a distance R from an  $\alpha$  atom, and  $\rho_{\gamma}$  is the density of the  $\gamma$  atom. The distribution function  $g_{\alpha\gamma}(R)$  converges to 1 as R approaches infinity. Reduced PDF  $G_{\alpha\gamma}(R)$  are also used, and are defined as follows.

$$G_{\alpha\gamma}(R) = 4\pi R^2 \{ g_{\alpha\gamma}(R) - 1 \}$$
 (1.3)

Although we can obtain further information on the amorphous structure from EXAFS (extended X-ray absorption fine structure) and neutron measurements [9], it is not possible to determine experimentally all the atomic positions in the amorphous structure, though these are indispensable for electronic-structure calculations of amorphous systems and microscopic understanding of magnetic properties. This difficulty imposes us on the above theoretical problem (1), namely, how to construct a reasonable model for an amorphous structure.

The simplest model for amorphous metals and alloys is the dense random packing of hard spheres (DRPHS) model. The model was first proposed by Bernal [51-52]. He constructed the model by squeezing and kneading rubber bladders filled with ball bearings of the same size. He found that the DRPHS model consists of only the five types of polyhedra (so-called 'Bernal holes') shown in Fig. 1.1. Finney [53] constructed a much larger cluster model by using the same method as Bernal, and obtained a PDF. Bennett [54] constructed a DRPHS model by using a computer. His algorithm for generating the cluster is as follows: (1) make an equilateral triangle consisting of three hard spheres touching each other, (2) list up all the pockets in which new sphere could be added in hard contact with three spheres which already exist in the cluster, (3) add the new sphere to the nearest pockets from the origin of

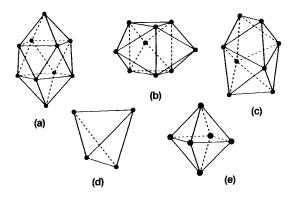


Fig. 1.1: Five types of polyhedra in the DRPHS model: (a) Archimedian antiprism, (b) trigonal prism, (c) tetragonal dodecahedron, (d) tetrahedron, and (e) octahedron

the cluster, and (4) return to the step (3). The PDF calculated from this computersimulated cluster model was quite similar to that of the ball bearing model. It was however somewhat different from the experimental one. In particular, the splitting of a second peak into two peaks and their relative amplitudes could not be reproduced.

Ichikawa [55] suggested that this splitting was related to the tetrahedral local atomic structure, and improved Bennett's algorithm. He introduced a parameter  $\Lambda$  which measured the perfection of the tetrahedral structure. It is given in the form

$$\Lambda = \frac{r_{ij}^{\text{max}}}{R_i + R_j} \quad . \tag{1.4}$$

where each i or j denotes one of the three spheres in the cluster forming a new pocket in step (2) of Bennett's algorithm.  $r_{ij}$  is the distance between the spheres i and j.  $R_i$  is the radius of the sphere i. Obviously,  $\Lambda$  changes from 1 to 2 for a single-size sphere system in Bennett's algorithm. The deviation from a perfect tetrahedral structure is evaluated as the deviation from the condition  $\Lambda = 1$ .

Ichikawa constructed a DRPHS model with several  $\Lambda$  values, and found that the PDF was well reproduced when  $\Lambda$  was 1.2. Although the PDF was well reproduced, the packing fraction of the model was smaller than in the experimental data because of porosity of the model structure.

These disadvantages were overcome by a process for structural relaxation of a DRPHS model through the atomic force produced by appropriate pair potentials [56,57]. This method, the so-called relaxed DRPHS model, was proposed by Cargill [49].

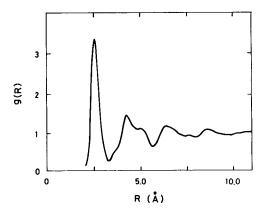


Fig. 1.2: Pair-distribution function of computer-generated amorphous iron [58]

Figure 1.2 shows an example of a pair-distribution function for amorphous Fe calculated by Yamamoto and Doyama [58], using the relaxed DRPHS model. The first peak at  $r_1 = 2.54$  Å is sharp, and is clearly separated from the second and third ones. This means that there exists a well-defined nearest-neighbor (NN) shell even in amorphous systems. The ratio of the fluctuation of the NN interatomic distance to the average NN distance is estimated from the width of the first peak to be 0.067, which is in agreement with recent experimental data for Fe-rich amorphous alloys [59]. The second peak, at  $r_2 = 1.67r_1$ , is considered to originate in the local structures of the rhombi, each of which consists of two regular triangles with a side  $r_1$ , and the hexahedra, each of which consists of two tetrahedra with a side  $r_1$ . The third peak at  $r_3 = 2r_1$  is associated with three contact atoms on a line.

The thermodynamical molecular-dynamics (MD) method [60] is a more sophisticated way of constructing an amorphous structure. In this method, the constituent atoms are distributed in a box with a periodic boundary condition, and the Newton equations of atomic motion are solved by assuming appropriate short-range interatomic pair potentials. Rapid quenching is simulated by reducing the kinetic energy, which is proportional to the temperature, at constant time intervals, under the condition that either the pressure or volume is constant. The method aims to simulate the formation of an amorphous structure according to the physical principle by using computers.

More recently, an ab-initio MD method was developed by Car and Parrinello [61]. In this method, interatomic forces are calculated directly from electronic structure and atomic structure without any empirical parameters, so that both the electronic and atomic structure are treated on an equal footing. Car and Parrinello greatly

accelerated the *ab-initio* MD calculation by solving the equations of motions for both atoms and electrons at the same time. The method is most efficient when combined with the pseudo-potential technique and plain wave orbitals, and has been applied to amorphous semiconductors [62-63], surfaces of semiconductors, and interdiffusion in semiconductors [64].

Although MD calculations are very effective for constructing an atomic structure model of amorphous materials, there are some limitations at the present stage. The MD calculations are limited to rather small systems ( $100 \sim 1000$  atoms in a box) because of the insufficient efficiency of computers. Moreover, the minimum cooling rate in the MD is about  $10^{11}$  (K/s), which is too large as compared with the experimental rates ( $\simeq 10^6$  (K/s)). We do not enter into the details of these problems because they fall outside the scope of our discussion.

### 2.1.2. Electronic structure calculations

Amorphous systems lose translational symmetry and the Bravais lattice. This makes it impossible to calculate their electronic structures by making use of the Bloch theorem. Much theoretical effort, therefore, has been concentrated on this problem in the past twenty years.

The best single-site approximation was first established by Roth [65-66]. She introduced a k-dependent effective selfenergy caused by the structural disorder. The selfconsistent equations for the selfenergy were obtained from a single-site decoupling to the coupled equations for the averaged T-matrices. This is called the effective medium approximation, and is regarded as a natural extension of coherent potential approximation (CPA) in disordered substitutional alloys [67-68].

The single-site approximation does not describe the details of the local environment effects (LEE) on the densities of states and the local magnetic moments, which are in particular important for transition metal alloys. Fujiwara [34] developed a general method going beyond single-site approximation. He combined the tight-binding linear muffin-tin orbital method (LMTO) [36] with the recursion method [38-39] in electronic-structure calculations. The former gives an effective tight-binding Hamiltonian which greatly simplifies the band-structure calculations within the framework of the local-spin density functional theory [69-71]. The latter is powerful for the electronic structure calculations of disordered systems when their Hamiltonians can be described in a tight-binding form. The method provide us with first-principles electronic structure calculations for a given amorphous structure, and is regarded as the best method for calculating the electronic structure of amorphous transition metals and alloys. We will review the theory briefly in Sec. 2.2.

An alternative approach which also aims at the first-principles calculations of amorphous metals and alloys is to simulate the amorphous structure by means of a crystal with a large unit cell. This "supercell" approach [72-76] was made effective by the development of the linear method [36-37] and super computers. It is now possible

to perform first-principles calculations for an amorphous "compound" with 50 to 100 atoms in a unit cell.

### 2.1.3. Calculating magnetic properties

When we calculate magnetic properties on the basis of electronic structure, we have to take into account the spin degrees of freedom. This causes two major difficulties in the theoretical investigations of amorphous transition metals and alloys. First, the local magnetic moments (LM) change their directions as well as their amplitudes according to their local environments, as a result of the structural disorder. The question is then how one determines the LM configuration selfconsistently. This is not an easy problem even at the ground state when the ferro- and antiferro-magnetic interactions compete with each other in the disordered system, because many local minima in energy are expected, and finding the lowest energy is beyond the trial-and-error calculations. The problem is essential for the description of spin glasses, in which LM's are spatially disordered with no net magnetization, but are ordered or frozen thermodynamically [77-78].

As far as the ground state is concerned, one possibility may be to use the simulated annealing method [79]. In this method, the total energy E is minimized relative to the spin densities  $\{\langle m_i \rangle\}$  by generating a succession of  $\{\langle m_i \rangle\}$  's with a Boltzmann-type probability for a fictitious temperature T in a Monte-Carlo method, or by solving the equations of motion for classical particles with a "potential energy" E in the MD method. When  $T \to 0$ , the state with the lowest energy may be reached. However, these methods have not been applied yet.

The second problem is that transition metals show local-moment as well as itinerant-electron behaviors in their magnetism [80]. The band theory based on the Stoner model explains the non-integer ground-state magnetization, the existence of the Fermi surface, and the T-linear specific heat at low temperatures. But it does not lead to the local-moment behaviors such as a reasonable  $T_{\rm C}$ , the Curie-Weiss susceptibility, and a large specific heat at  $T_{\rm C}$  in Fe, Co, and Ni. Although the difficulty has been a long-standing problem in the theory of itinerant magnetism, it has been clarified in the past decade that it can be solved by taking into account the thermal spin fluctuations missing in the Stoner model [29-30]. Such a spin fluctuation theory has recently been applied to amorphous metallic systems by Kakehashi [40-42]. He took into account thermal spin fluctuations by making use of the functional integral method developed by Cyrot [43], Hubbard [44], and Hasegawa [45], and determined the LM distribution due to the structural disorder using the distribution-function method developed by Matsubara and Katsura [46-47]. This is the only theory which is available at finite temperatures at present. It will be reviewed in detail in Sec. 2.3.