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# Computational studies of the properties of copper oxide clusters and the reactions of phenol and chlorinated phenols with copper oxide clusters

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COMPUTATIONAL STUDIES OF THE PROPERTIES OF COPPER OXIDE  
CLUSTERS AND THE REACTIONS OF PHENOL AND CHLORINATED  
PHENOLS WITH COPPER OXIDE CLUSTERS

A Dissertation  
Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Louisiana State University and  
Agricultural and Mechanical College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Chemistry

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*to Kyung Ok Park*

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# ABSTRACT

We used *ab initio* simulations and calculations to study the structures and stabilities of copper oxide clusters,  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  ( $n=1-8$ ) and  $\text{CuO}_n$  ( $n=1-6$ ). The lowest energy structures of neutral and charged copper oxide clusters were determined using primarily the B3LYP/LANL2DZ model chemistry. In  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-8$ , a transition from planar to nonplanar geometries occurs at  $n=4$ . In  $\text{CuO}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-6$ , all geometries of neutral, positively, and negatively charged clusters are planar or near planar structures. Selected electronic properties, including binding energies, ionization energies, and electronic affinities, were calculated and examined as a function of  $n$ . Stabilities were examined by calculating fragmentation channels and Löwdin charge distributions.

We have also analyzed the reactions between neutral copper oxide clusters ( $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  with  $n=1-8$ ) and organic compounds (phenol, *ortho*-chlorophenol, and *para*-chlorophenol) using DFT calculations of geometries, thermodynamic properties, reaction pathways, adsorption energies, and Löwdin charge distributions.

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

The study of clusters is very important to understand the limits of isolated atoms, molecules and bulk matter and to investigate the phenomena of chemical physics such as solvation. One of the most important discoveries is that some clusters show many differences compared to their bulk counterparts for geometries, electronic and chemical properties. Metal clusters are very important in many areas, including catalysis, nanomaterials, and composite materials. Metal oxide clusters are performed for health effects.<sup>1-4</sup> For example, in the World Trade Center disaster, analysis of fine and ultrafine particulates revealed a high concentration of zinc and titanium.<sup>5</sup>

The collision of clusters with solid surfaces at high speeds can give rise to short-lived but particularly extreme conditions of temperature and pressure.<sup>6</sup> It has been shown that these impact-heated clusters provide an environment in which chemical reactions can be induced.<sup>7</sup> Other researchers have studied the formation of surface-bound radicals during the adsorption of organic molecules and aliphatic compounds on metal. Energetic cluster impact also has the potential for technological application in the formation of particularly dense and coherent metal<sup>8,9</sup> and semiconductor thin films.<sup>10</sup>

Metal oxide clusters from combustion react with many organic compounds.<sup>11,12</sup> It is well known that transition metals (iron, vanadium, and copper) are associated with particulate matter (PM). Studies show that PM is a threat to public health in cities.<sup>13</sup> We must understand the characteristics of toxic particles and how they affect the health of the inhabitants of cities. It is well known that PM can be classified as coarse, fine or ultrafine particles. Coarse particles have a diameter greater than 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  (PM<sub>2.5-10</sub>). Fine particles



(0.1 to 2.5 $\mu$ m, PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and ultrafine particles (<0.1  $\mu$ m in diameter) are predominantly derived from the combustion of fossil fuel.<sup>14</sup> Recently, government and air-quality monitoring agencies determined that both PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles from vehicle emission are the most dangerous.<sup>15</sup> PM<sub>10</sub> exposure has been associated with death from cardiopulmonary disorders and lung cancer in studies of six cities<sup>16</sup> and 151 metropolitan areas<sup>17</sup> in the United States, with a 1% increase in daily mortality for each 10 $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> increase in PM<sub>10</sub>. Ultrafine particles can penetrate deeper into lung tissue than coarse and fine particles<sup>15</sup> and can increase asthma symptoms.<sup>18</sup> Ultrafine particles also can increase hospitalization rates for respiratory disorders<sup>19-22</sup> and decrease lung function.<sup>23-27</sup> Combustion particles may have a carbon core that is coated with organic compounds, transition metal, nitrates and sulfates. All of these components may play a role in particle toxicity.<sup>28</sup> Chemically, particulate matter pollution is a complex mixture of organic and inorganic compounds, but the properties responsible for its health effects are unknown.

Fine and ultrafine particulate matter is composed predominately of inorganic, organic, and elemental carbon, sulfates and nitrates.<sup>29-31</sup> Table 1.1 shows a long list of transition metals that are present in almost every particulate. The concentration of transition metals in the particulates is determined by the origin; since fine and ultrafine particulates are almost entirely of anthropogenic origin (combustion), the type of fuel generating the particulates determines their definite composition.

Particulate air pollution contains transition metals (iron, vanadium, and copper) which can catalyze the production of reactive oxygen species, such as hydrogen peroxide, superoxide, and hydroxyl radical, which are very stable but are highly reactive.<sup>32</sup> Small organic radicals, such as phenyl, vinyl, or methyl, are somewhat less reactive but are also less stable. Recently, it has been realized that resonance stabilized radicals such as cyclopentadienyl, propargyl and phenoxy are not highly reactive with molecular species,

including oxygen, and can undergo radical-radical recombination reactions to form polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins and dibenzofurans (PCDD/F), PAH and possibly soot at moderately high temperatures in the post-flame and cool-zone region of combustion and thermal processes.

A contributor to combustion emissions, “fly ash,” has been shown to catalyze the production of reactive oxygen species and increase the level of inflammation upon instillation in rat lungs.<sup>33,34</sup>

Table 1.1: Metals in Environmental Nanoparticles and Fuels<sup>35</sup>

Metal	PM 2.5	Coal		Fuel Oil	
	( $\mu\text{g/g}$ )	Fuel (%)	Emission (%)	Fuel (ppmv)	Emission (%)
Ni	~0.2		0.015	3-21	12.8
V	13,000-60,000		0.03	3-48	17.6
Fe	$1-5 \times 10^3$	6-20 (ox)	4-20	27,800	34
Mg	~1	1-4 (ox)	1-5	7,120	6.2
Ca		2-23 (ox)	1-22	41,200	14.8
Co			0.005	2,040	1.2-1.5
Cr	~1		0.02	4,400	5.8-9.0
Cu	~2		0.02	2,780	3.3-3.8
Mn			0.07	1,040	1.2-3.5
Pb	5-10		0.015	2,040	0.7-1.0
Sr			0.1	713	1.7-3
Zn	500-22,000		0.023	5,630	3.3-3.8
Zr			0.015		
Mo			0.001	4,270	5.5-10
Si		35-45 (ox)	22-61	46,000	15-20
K			0.3-4		
Al		15-40 (ox)	13-36	32,000	19.5-28

DNA damage has been observed in cells exposed to radical-containing PM. This damage has been proposed to be due to PFRs formed by the following scheme involving a redox-active metal.<sup>36</sup>

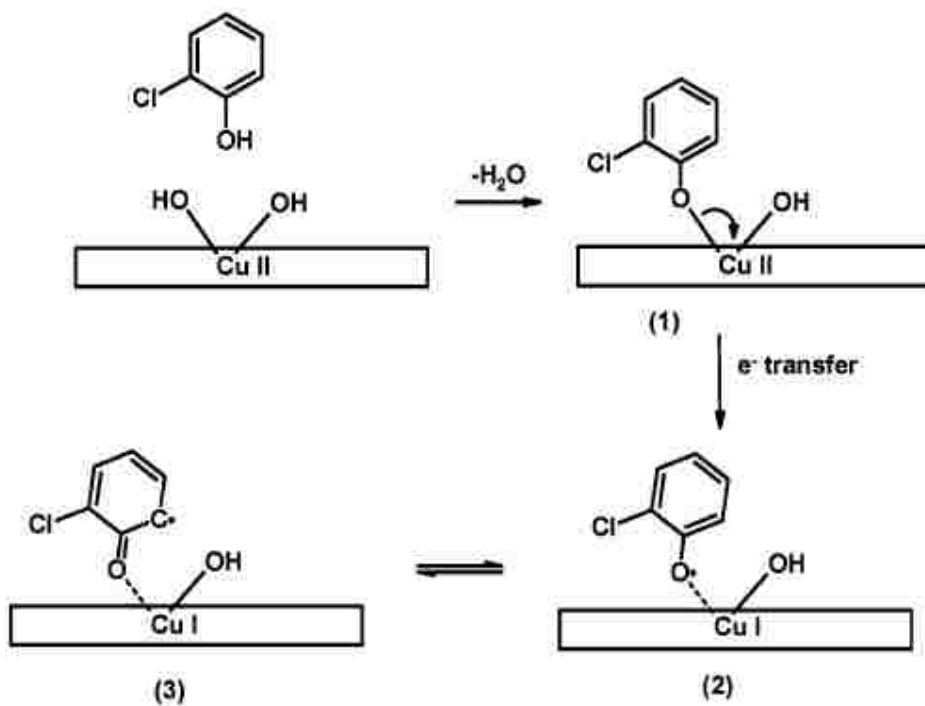


Figure 1.1: Adsorption of 2-MCP on copper (II) oxide<sup>37</sup>

Other researchers have studied the formation of surface-bound radicals during the adsorption of organic molecules on metal oxide.<sup>29,38-41</sup> These reactions may occur by chemisorption of an organic molecule or aliphatic compounds on a surface copper ion. (Figure 1.1)

Figure 1.2 shows nanoparticle formation/growth and mediation of pollutant-forming reactions in combustion systems. Metals are vaporized in the flame zone (Zone 2) and subsequently nucleate to form small metal nanoparticles or condense on the surfaces of other nanoparticles in transit to the postflame (Zone 3). Zones 3 and 4 control formation of gas-phase organic pollutants. Zone 5 is a major source of PCDD/Fs and is increasingly recognized as a source of other pollutants (CHCs, BHCs, and XHCs; polybrominated dibenzo-p-dioxins and dibenzofurans (PBDD/Fs) and PXDD/Fs; partially oxidized hydrocarbons and CHCs; and nitro-PAHs, oxy-PAHs, and oxychloro-PAHs) previously

thought to originate in zones 1-4. Most of the reactions need a transition metal catalysis to form these products.<sup>42</sup>

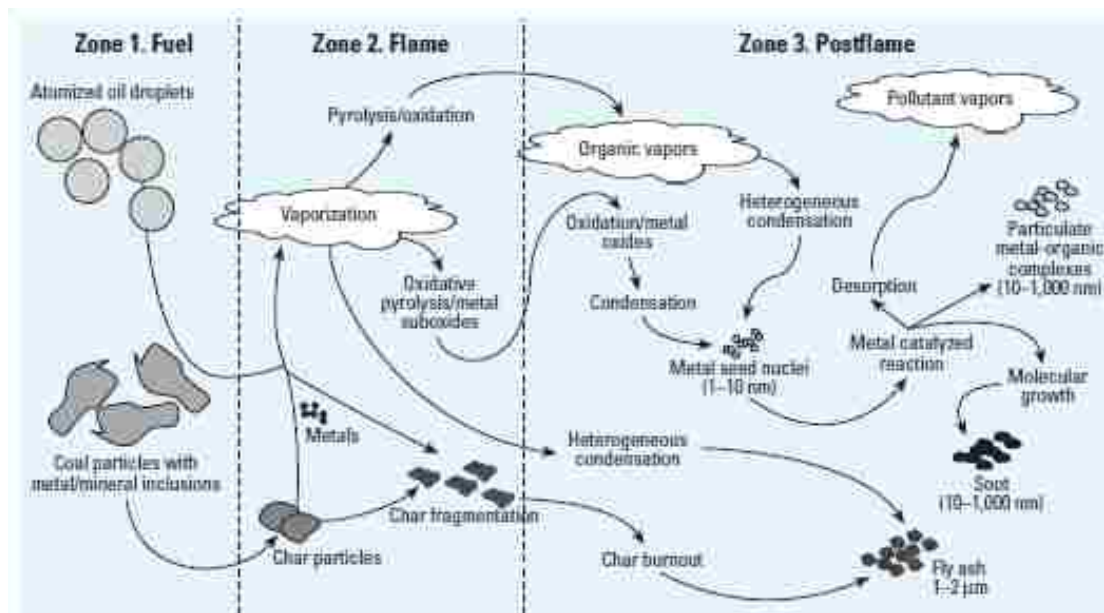


Figure 1.2: Nanoparticle formation/growth and mediation of pollutant-forming reactions in combustion systems.<sup>42</sup>

Figure 1.3 shows the formation of 4,6-dichloro-dibenzofuran (DCDF). The main PCDD/F products detected were the same as under pyrolytic conditions: dibenzo-p-dioxin (DD), 1-monochloro dibenzo-p-dioxin (MCDD), and 6-dichloro-dibenzofuran (DCDF). Molecule 8 can react with gas-phase 2-MCP and there are two possible mechanisms. Scheme (a) is the formation of MCDD and scheme (b) is the formation of DD.

Researchers have studied the formation of PCDD/Fs via a Cu(II)O-mediated reaction of 2-chlorophenol (2-MCP).<sup>43</sup> PCDD/F or dioxins are known as the most environmentally toxic pollutants. We are investigating copper oxide clusters and their reactions because we believe them to be an important part of the metal oxide pathway to the formation of PCDD/Fs. There are some theories about the formation of dioxins.<sup>38,44-46</sup> 1) gas-phase formation from molecular precursors at temperatures  $> 600^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 2) condensation reactions of precursors

catalyzed by transition metal oxides in “fly ash” at temperatures between 200-600 °C, and 3) de novo oxidation and chlorination of elemental carbon in soot between 200-600 °C.<sup>47-50</sup> However, the surface-mediated process can account for the formation of dioxins better than other explanations. It is well known that transition metal (copper or iron) oxides and chlorides play a significant role in dioxin formation.<sup>38</sup>

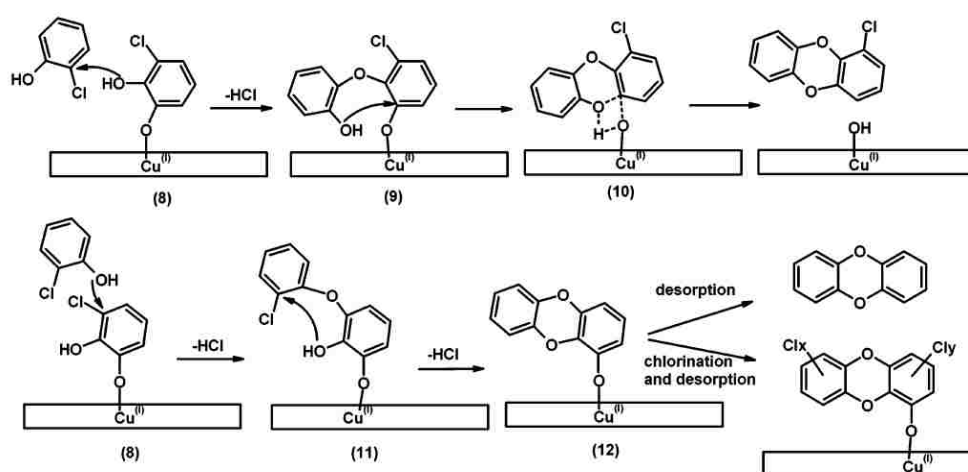


Figure 1.3: Surface-Mediated Formation of MCDD and DD.<sup>37</sup>

Experimental<sup>51-81</sup> and theoretical<sup>68-75,79,82-95</sup> studies of small copper oxide clusters have been made. Steimle and Azuma have reviewed the structure and electronic spectra of copper monoxide (CuO) by using the technique of intermodulated fluorescence.<sup>81</sup> Neutral and anionic CuO molecules have been studied using the laser photoelectron spectroscopy technique.<sup>80</sup> The electron affinity of ground state CuO was determined to be 1.777 eV. CuO<sup>-</sup> bond length is 1.670 Å and CuO<sup>-</sup> vibrational frequency is 739 cm<sup>-1</sup>. CuO bond length is 1.704 Å and CuO vibrational frequency is 682 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

Two geometries of CuO<sub>2</sub> were reported<sup>76</sup>: CuOO (bent, C<sub>s</sub>) and CuO<sub>2</sub> (side-on, C<sub>2v</sub>). Evidence for the bent complex CuOO comes from both experiment<sup>65,67</sup> and theory.<sup>73,74</sup> The linear complex OCuO has been investigated via IR,<sup>79</sup> photoelectron spectra (PES)

measurement,<sup>76</sup> and theoretically.<sup>91</sup> For  $\text{CuO}_3$ ,  $\text{OCuO}_2^-$ , and  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_3)^-$  clusters, the vibration frequencies<sup>79</sup> have been calculated.<sup>76</sup>

Experiments have been performed on  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_x$  clusters with  $x=1-4$  using anion photoelectron spectroscopy (PES).<sup>77</sup> The  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_x^-$  species are produced using a laser vaporization cluster beam apparatus, equipped with a magnetic-bottle time-of-flight (TOF) photoelectron analyzer.<sup>76,96,97</sup> Figure 1.4 shows a schematic view of a MTOF-PES apparatus. It consists of a laser vaporization cluster source, a modified Wiley-McLaren time-of-flight (TOF) mass spectrometer, a mass gate, a momentum decelerator, and a MTOF electron analyzer.

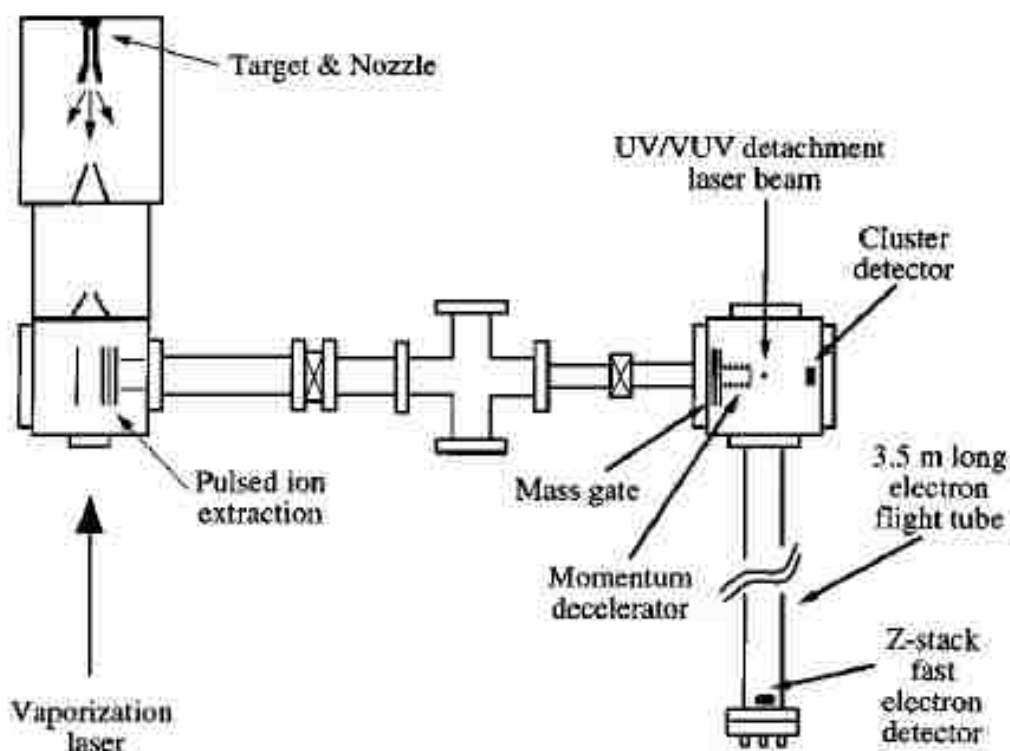


Figure 1.4: Schematic view of the laser-vaporization/magnetic-bottle photoelectron spectroscopy apparatus<sup>97</sup>

Figure 1.5 shows the PES spectra of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_x$  ( $x=1-4$ ), and the measured energies of all the states are listed in Table 1.2. The ground states of the neutral clusters are labeled “X”

and low-lying excited-state features are labeled A, B, C and so on in ascending order.

Recently, the equilibrium structures of neutral  $\text{CuO}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-6$  were determined within the framework of density functional theory with a plane-wave basis set and generalized gradient corrections. Figure 1.6 shows the calculated lowest energy structures, bond lengths, and angles of neutral  $\text{CuO}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-6$ .<sup>94</sup>

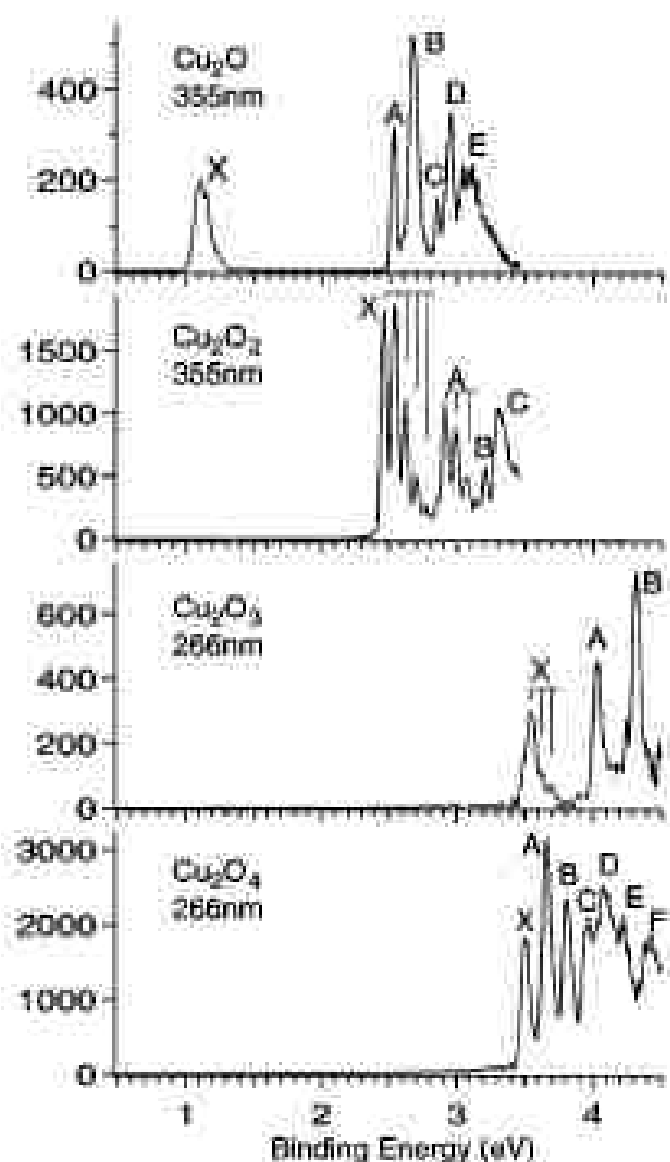


Figure 1.5: Photoelectron spectra of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_x^-$  ( $x=1-4$ ).<sup>77</sup>

Table 1.2: Observed electronic states and vibrational frequencies of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_x$  ( $x=1-4$ ) clusters and predicted electron affinities and ground-state vibrational frequencies.<sup>77</sup>

	BE <sup>a</sup> (eV)	$\nu$ (exp) <sup>b</sup> ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )	EA <sup>c</sup> (eV)	$\nu$ (theo) <sup>d</sup> ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )
<b><math>\text{Cu}_2\text{O}^e</math></b>				
X	1.10	<200	1.10	$\nu_1=681^f$
A	2.53			$\nu_2=156$
B	2.66			$\nu_3=586$
C	2.85			
D	2.95			
<b><math>\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_2</math></b>				
X	2.46	630 (30)	2.12	182 302 466
A	2.91	650 (30)		493 653 718 <sup>f</sup>
B	3.12			
C	3.30			
<b><math>\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_3</math></b>				
X	3.54	(640)	3.03	259 259 318
A	4.02			321 321 351
B	4.32			608 608 678 <sup>f</sup>
<b><math>\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_4^e</math></b>				
X	3.50		2.94	119 222 244
A	3.66			267 277 354
B	3.80			533 612 612
C	3.95			647 912 985 <sup>f</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Measured electron binding energy (uncertainty:  $\pm 0.03$  eV). The binding energy (BE) of the X ground state yields the measured adiabatic electron affinity.

<sup>b</sup>Measured symmetric stretching vibrational frequencies for the given states. Relative peak positions can be determined more accurately.

<sup>c</sup>Calculated adiabatic electron affinities in eV

<sup>d</sup>Calculated vibrational frequencies for the ground-state cluster structures shown in Fig 1.7.

<sup>e</sup>More highly excited states are not listed due to their broad and overlapping nature.

<sup>f</sup>Totally symmetric vibrational modes.

One of the results is that the spin of the most stable isomers is quartet state when the number of oxygen atoms is odd, while it is doublet state when this number is even. They have calculated the lowest geometries of  $\text{CuO}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-6$ : linear  $\text{OCuO}$  for  $\text{CuO}_2$ ,  $\text{OCu}(\text{O}_2)$  for  $\text{CuO}_3$ , two  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_2)$  side-on units for  $\text{CuO}_4$ , one  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_2)$  side-on unit and  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_3)$  ozonide for  $\text{CuO}_5$ , and two  $\text{CuO}(\text{O}_3)$  ozonides for  $\text{CuO}_6$ .



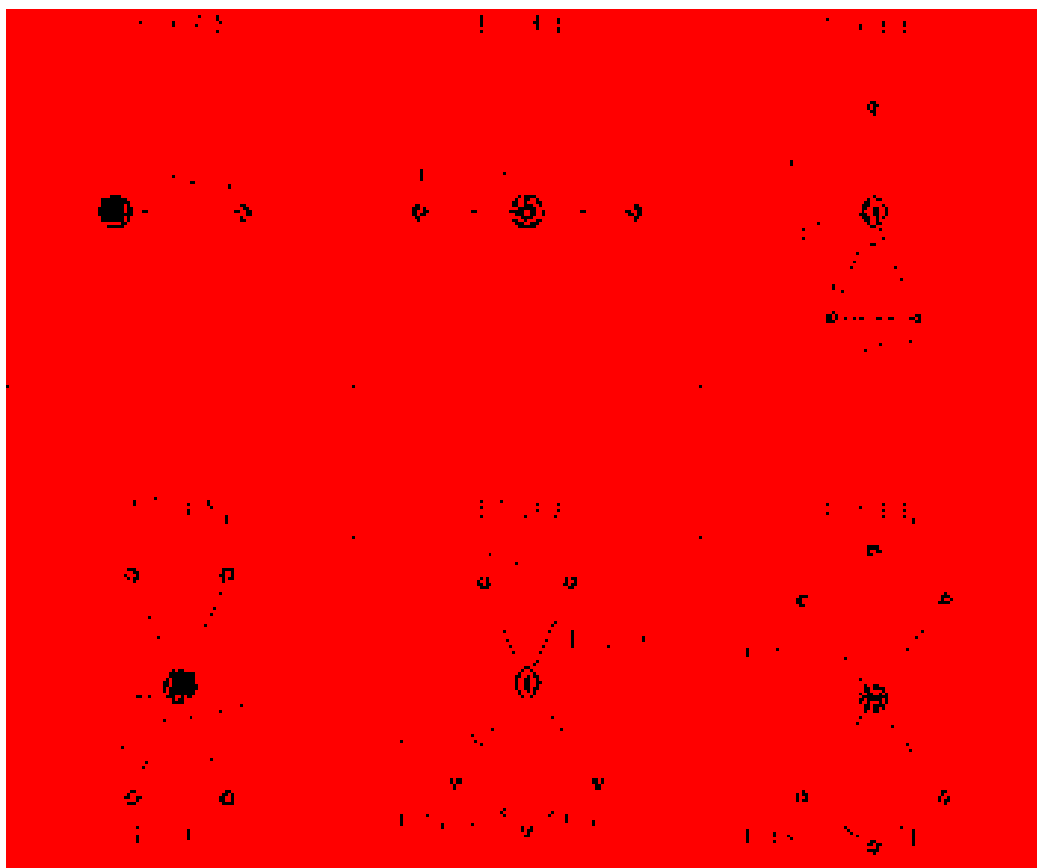


Figure 1.6: Equilibrium geometries of the building blocks identified in the neutral clusters. The bigger circle represents the copper atom, the smaller ones the oxygen atoms. All isomers are composed of one or more of these block sharing the copper atom.<sup>94</sup>

In 1996, Wang et al. investigated the electronic structures of copper oxide clusters,  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_x$  ( $x=1-4$ ), using anion photoelectron spectroscopy and density functional calculations.<sup>77</sup> They found that the ground states of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_2$  are a triangle and a rhombus, respectively. For  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_3$ , they found two isomers with close energies (bipyramid and bent structure with an O-Cu-O-Cu-O atomic arrangement); the bipyramid structure is in better agreement with the experimental electron affinity (EA). For  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_4$ , the hexagonal ring with two O-O bonds is found to be the most stable structure. Figure 1.7 shows the optimized structure and Mulliken charge distributions from density functional theory calculations for  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_x$  ( $x=1-4$ ).

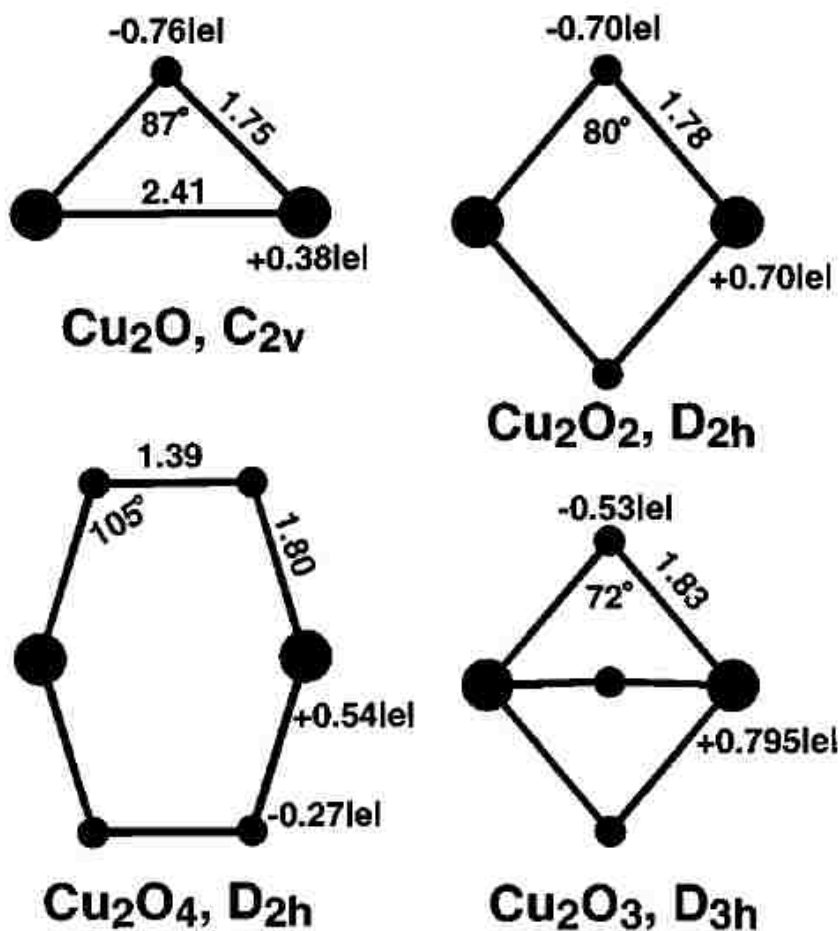


Figure 1.7: The optimized structures, bond lengths, angles and Mulliken charge distributions from density functional theory calculations for Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>x</sub> (x=1-4)<sup>77</sup>

Dai et al. have suggested that the ground state structures of neutral, positively and negatively charged Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>n</sub> clusters with n=1-4 are linear or near linear structures (Figure 1.8). Also, they found that the calculated electron affinities of the clusters with BLYP level are in good agreement with the experimental ones.<sup>77</sup>

There are relatively few experimental and theoretical studies of copper and iron oxide clusters that are presumed present in combustion systems; thus, an understanding of the reaction pathway for PCDD/F is hindered by a lack of knowledge of the structures and energetics of these clusters. Estimates of the relevant cluster sizes range from the micrometer down to just a few metal atoms. This work therefore studies the structures

and energetics of small copper oxide clusters as a first step towards understanding the interactions between metal oxides and free radicals.

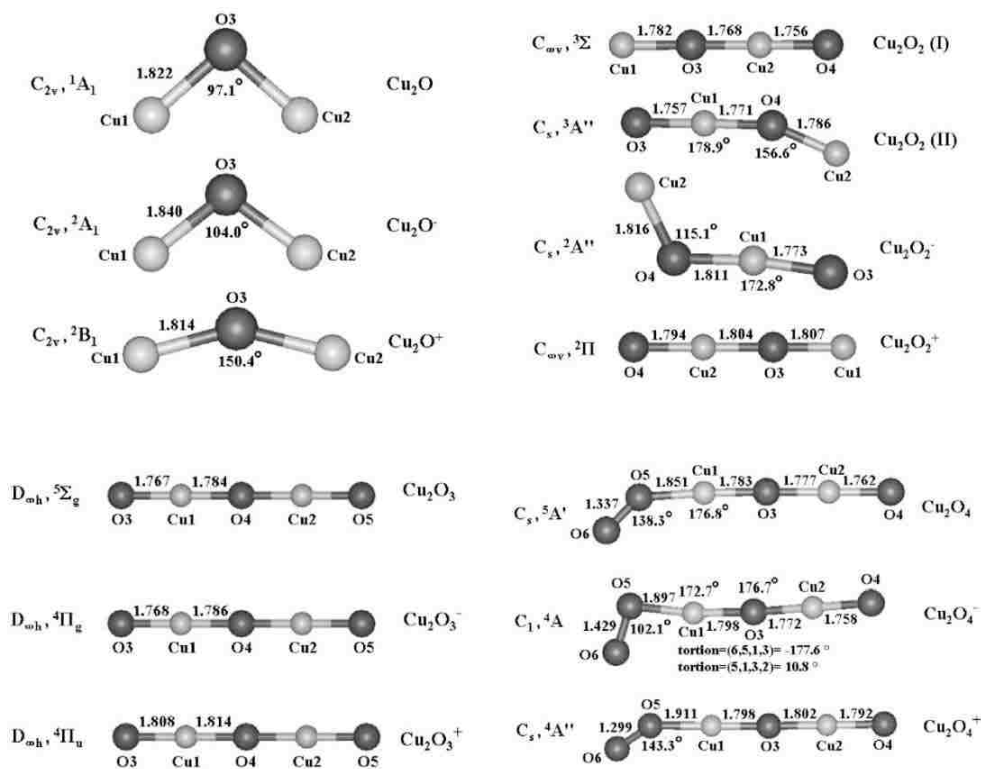


Figure 1.8: The geometries, symmetries, and configurations of the ground states of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_n$  with  $n=1-4$  and its ions. Bond lengths are given in Å.<sup>98</sup>

# CHAPTER 2

## QUANTUM CHEMISTRY METHODS

### 2.1 The Hartree-Fock Approximation

Hartree-Fock theory is the fundamental molecular orbital theory and one of the simplest approximate theories for solving the many-body Hamiltonian. Hartree-Fock theory was developed to solve the electronic Schrödinger equation. It assumed that the wavefunction can be approximated by a single Slater determinant made up of one spin orbital per electron.

Given a functional of some trial wavefunction  $\Phi$ , the expectation value  $E[\Phi]$  of the Hamiltonian operator  $H$  is a number given by

$$E[\Phi] = \langle \Phi | H | \Phi \rangle \quad (1)$$

$$|\Phi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i |\Psi_i\rangle \quad (2)$$

By equation (1), we see that  $E[\Phi]$ , its value depends on the form of the wavefunction, and equation (2) shows a linear variation trial wave function.

We minimize the energy

$$E = \langle \Phi | H | \Phi \rangle = \sum_{ij} c_i^* c_j \langle \Psi_i | H | \Psi_j \rangle \quad (3)$$

subject to the constraint that the trial wave function remains normalized

$$\langle \Phi | \Phi \rangle - 1 = \sum_{ij} c_i^* c_j \langle \Psi_i | H | \Psi_j \rangle - 1 = 0 \quad (4)$$

using Lagrange's method,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= \langle \Phi | H | \Phi \rangle - E(\langle \Phi | \Phi \rangle - 1) \\ &= \sum_{ij} c_i^* c_j \langle \Psi_i | H | \Psi_j \rangle - E \left( \sum_{ij} c_i^* c_j \langle \Psi_i | \Psi_j \rangle - 1 \right) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where E is the Lagrange multiplier. Therefore, we set the first variation in  $\mathcal{L}$  equal to zero.

Taking the differential of  $\mathcal{L}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \mathcal{L} &= \sum_{ij} \delta c_i^* c_j \langle \Psi_i | H | \Psi_j \rangle - E \sum_{ij} \delta c_i^* c_j \langle \Psi_i | \Psi_j \rangle \\ &+ \sum_{ij} c_i^* \delta c_j \langle \Psi_i | H | \Psi_j \rangle - E \sum_{ij} c_i^* \delta c_j \langle \Psi_i | \Psi_j \rangle = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

$$\sum_i \delta c_i^* \left[ \sum_j H_{ij} c_j - E S_{ij} c_j \right] + \text{complex conjugate} = 0 \quad (7)$$

where  $H_{ij} = \langle \Psi_i | H | \Psi_j \rangle$ .

$$\langle \Psi_i | \Psi_j \rangle = S_{ij} \quad (8)$$

Since  $\delta c_i$  and  $\delta c_i^*$  are arbitrary, the bracketed parts of equation (7) must be zero. Thus

$$\sum_j H_{ij} c_j = E \sum_j S_{ij} c_j \quad (9)$$

It is clear that this can be written as a matrix product and is in fact an eigenvalue equation in the form

$$\mathbf{Hc} = E\mathbf{Sc} \quad (10)$$

We need to minimize the Hartree-Fock energy expression with respect to changes in the orbitals  $\chi_a \rightarrow \chi_a + \delta\chi_a$ . We have also been assuming that the orbitals  $\chi$  are orthonormal,

$$\int dx_1 \chi_a^*(1) \chi_b(1) = [a|b] = \delta_{ab} \quad (11)$$

That is, the constraints are of the form

$$[a|b] - \delta_{ab} = 0 \quad (12)$$

We can accomplish this by Lagrange's method of undetermined multipliers, where we employ a functional  $L$  defined as

$$\mathcal{L}[\{\chi_a\}] = E_0[\{\chi_a\}] - \sum_{a=1}^N \sum_{b=1}^N \varepsilon_{ba} ([a|b] - \delta_{ab}) \quad (13)$$

where  $\varepsilon_{ba}$  are the undetermined Lagrange multipliers,  $[a|b]$  is the overlap between spin orbitals  $a$  and  $b$  and  $E_0$  is the expectation value of the single determinant  $|\Psi_0\rangle$ .

$$E_0[\{\chi_a\}] = \sum_{a=1}^N [a|h|a] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{a=1}^N \sum_{b=1}^N [aa|bb] - [ab|ba] \quad (14)$$

Because  $L$  is real and  $[a|b] = [b|a]^*$ , the Lagrange multipliers must be elements of a Hermitian matrix

$$\varepsilon_{ba} = \varepsilon_{ab}^* \quad (15)$$

Minimization of  $E_0$ , subject to the constraints, is thus obtained by minimizing  $L$ . We therefore vary the spin orbitals an arbitrary infinitesimal amount,

$$\chi_a \rightarrow \chi_a + \delta\chi_a \quad (16)$$

setting the first variation  $\delta\mathcal{L}=0$ .

$$\delta\mathcal{L} = \delta E_0 - \sum_{a=1}^N \sum_{b=1}^N \varepsilon_{ba} \delta[a|b] = 0 \quad (17)$$

This follows directly from equation (13) since the variation in a constant ( $\delta_{ab}$ ) is zero.

$$\delta[a|b] = [\delta\chi_a|\chi_b] + [\chi_a|\delta\chi_b] \quad (18)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta E_0 &= \sum_{a=1}^N [\delta\chi_a | h | \chi_a] + [\chi_a | h | \delta\chi_a] \\
&+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{a=1}^N \sum_{b=1}^N [\delta\chi_a \chi_a | \chi_b \chi_b] + [\chi_a \delta\chi_a | \chi_b \chi_b] \\
&\quad + [\chi_a \chi_a | \delta\chi_b \chi_b] + [\chi_a \chi_a | \chi_b \delta\chi_b] \\
&- \frac{1}{2} \sum_{a=1}^N \sum_{b=1}^N [\delta\chi_a \chi_b | \chi_b \chi_a] + [\chi_a \delta\chi_b | \chi_b \chi_a] \\
&\quad + [\chi_a \chi_b | \delta\chi_b \chi_a] + [\chi_a \chi_b | \chi_b \delta\chi_a]
\end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned}
&\sum_{ab} \varepsilon_{ba} ([\delta\chi_a | \chi_b] + [\chi_a | \delta\chi_b]) \\
&= \sum_{ab} \varepsilon_{ba} [\delta\chi_a | \chi_b] + \sum_{ab} \varepsilon_{ab} [\delta\chi_b | \chi_a] \\
&= \sum_{ab} \varepsilon_{ba} [\delta\chi_a | \chi_b] + \sum_{ab} \varepsilon_{ba}^* [\delta\chi_a | \chi_b]^* \\
&= \sum_{ab} \varepsilon_{ba} [\delta\chi_a | \chi_b] + \text{complex conjugate}
\end{aligned} \tag{20}$$

The first variation in  $\mathcal{L}$  of equation (17) becomes



$$\begin{aligned}
\delta\mathcal{L} = & \sum_{a=1}^N [\delta\chi_a |h| \chi_a] \\
& + \sum_{a=1}^N \sum_{b=1}^N [\delta\chi_a \chi_a | \chi_b \chi_b] - [\delta\chi_a \chi_b | \chi_b \chi_a] \\
& - \sum_{a=1}^N \sum_{b=1}^N \varepsilon_{ba} [\delta\chi_a | \chi_b] + \text{complex conjugate} = 0
\end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

We can use the coulomb and exchange operators. The exchange operator,  $\mathcal{K}_b(1)$ , can be defined by its effect when operating on a spin orbital  $\chi_a(1)$ ,

$$\mathcal{K}_b(1)\chi_a(1) = \left[ \int dx_2 \chi_b^*(2) r_{12}^{-1} \chi_a(2) \right] \chi_b(1) \tag{22}$$

and the coulomb operator can be defined as

$$\mathcal{J}_b(1)\chi_a(1) = \left[ \int dx_2 \chi_b^*(2) r_{12}^{-1} \chi_a(2) \right] \chi_b(1) \tag{23}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta\mathcal{L} = & \sum_{a=1}^N \int dx_1 \delta\chi_a^*(1) \left[ h(1)\chi_a(1) \right. \\
& + \sum_{b=1}^N (\mathcal{J}_b(1) - \mathcal{K}_b(1))\chi_a(1) \\
& \left. - \sum_{b=1}^N \varepsilon_{ba} \chi_b(1) \right] + \text{complex conjugate} \\
= & 0
\end{aligned} \tag{24}$$

Since  $\delta\chi_a^*(1)$  is arbitrary, it must be that the quantity in square bracket is zero for all

a.

Therefore,

$$\left[ h(1) + \sum_{b=1}^N J_b(1) - \mathcal{K}_b(1) \right] \chi_a(1) = \sum_{b=1}^N \varepsilon_{ba} \chi_b(1) \quad (25)$$

$$= 1, 2, \dots, N$$

We can introduce a new operator, the Fock operator, as in the above square bracket.

Therefore, the Hartree-Fock equations are just

$$f|\chi_a \rangle = \sum_{b=1}^N \varepsilon_{ba} |\chi_b \rangle \quad (26)$$

The Hartree-Fock equations can be solved numerically, or they can be solved in the space spanned by a set of basis functions. In either case, the solutions depend on the orbitals. Hence, we need to guess some initial orbitals and then refine our guesses iteratively. For this reason, Hartree-Fock is called a self-consistent-field (SCF) approach.

### 2.1.1 Unrestricted Hartree-Fock and Restricted Hartree-Fock

We must be more specific about the form of the spin orbitals to consider the actual calculation of Hartree-Fock wave functions. There are two types of spin orbitals: restricted spin orbitals, which are constrained to have the same spatial function for  $\alpha$  (spin up) and  $\beta$  (spin down) spin functions; and unrestricted spin orbitals, which have

different spatial functions for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  spins.

A Hartree-Fock wave function in which electrons whose spins are paired occupy the same spatial orbital is called RHF (restricted Hartree-Fock) wave function. Although the RHF wave function is generally used for closed-shell states, two different approaches are widely used for open-shell states. In the restricted open-shell Hartree-Fock (ROHF) method, electrons that are paired with each other are given the same spatial orbital function.

## 2.1.2 Basis Sets

In 1951, Roothaan proposed representing the Hartree-Fock orbitals as linear combinations of a complete set of known functions, called basis function. Denoting the atomic orbital basis functions as  $\psi$ , we have the expansion for each orbital  $i$ .

$$\psi_i = \sum_{\mu=1}^n C_{\mu i} \phi_{\mu} \quad (27)$$

where  $\psi_i$  is the  $i$ -th molecular orbital,  $C_{\mu i}$  are the coefficients of linear combination,  $\phi_{\mu}$  is the  $\mu$ -th atomic orbital, and  $n$  is the number of atomic orbitals.

Earlier, the Slater Type Orbitals (STO's) were commonly used for atomic Hartree-Fock calculations. They are described as

$$\phi_i(\zeta, n, l, m, r, \theta, \phi) = N r^{n-1} e^{-\zeta r} Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) \quad (28)$$

where  $N$  is a normalization constant and  $\zeta$  is called the orbital exponent. The  $r$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\phi$  are spherical coordinates and  $Y_l^m$  is the angular momentum part. The  $n$ ,  $l$  and  $m$  are

quantum numbers: principal, angular momentum and magnetic, respectively.

Unfortunately, functions of this kind cannot be evaluated fast enough for efficient molecular integral evaluation. That is why Boys proposed the use of Gaussian-type functions (GTFs) instead of STOs for the atomic orbitals in an LCAO wave function. GTFs are simpler functions and frequently called Gaussian primitives.

The GTFs (also called Cartesian Gaussian) are expressed as

$$g_{ijk} = N x_b^i y_b^j z_b^k e^{-\alpha r_b^2} \quad (29)$$

where  $N$  is a normalization constant,  $i, j,$  and  $k$  are nonnegative integers,  $\alpha$  is a positive orbital exponent, and  $x_b, y_b, z_b$  are Cartesian coordinates with the origin at nucleus  $b$ .

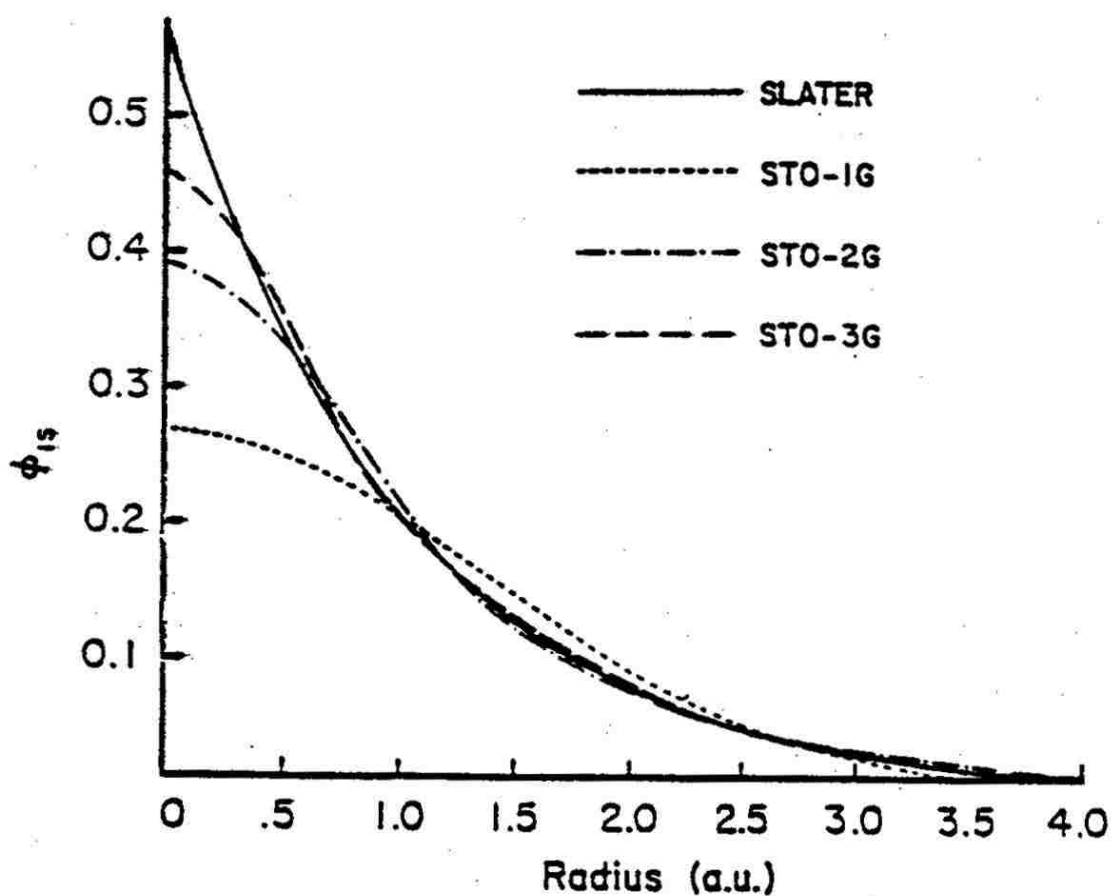


Figure 2.1: Comparison of the quality of the least-square fit of a 1s Slater function ( $\xi = 1.0$ ) obtained at the STO-1G, STO-2G, and STO-3G levels.<sup>99</sup>

The Cartesian-Gaussian normalization constant is

$$N = \left(\frac{2\alpha}{\pi}\right)^{3/4} \left[\frac{(8\alpha)^{i+j+k} i! j! k!}{(2i)! (2j)! (2k)!}\right]^{1/2} \quad (30)$$

The sum of exponents at cartesian coordinates,  $L = I + j + k$ , is used analogously to the angular momentum quantum number for atoms, to mark functions as s-type ( $L=0$ ), p-type ( $L=1$ ), d-type ( $L=2$ ), f-type ( $L=3$ ), etc.

Gaussian functions are efficient and rapid enough to calculate two-electron integrals; however, Gaussian functions are not optimum basis functions and have functional behavior that is different from the known functional behavior of molecular orbitals. This problem can be solved to fix linear combinations of the primitive Gaussian function. These linear combinations, called contractions, lead to contracted Gaussian-type function (CGTF),

$$\chi_r = \sum_u d_{ur} g_u \quad (31)$$

where the  $g_u$ 's are normalized Cartesian Gaussian (equation (29)) centered on the same atom and having the same  $i, j, k$  values as one another, but different  $\alpha$ 's. The contraction coefficients  $d_{ur}$  are contraction coefficient. In equation 31,  $\chi_r$  is called a contracted Gaussian-type function (CGTF) and  $g_u$ 's are called primitive Gaussians.

In the minimal basis set, single zeta (SZ), only one basis function (contraction) per Slater atomic orbital is used. The SZ set consists of one STO for each inner-shell and valence-shell AO of each atom.

A double-zeta (DZ) basis set has two basis functions that differ in their orbital exponents  $\xi$  (zeta), and a triple-zeta basis set replaces each STO of a minimal basis set

by three STOs that differ in their orbital exponents.

The split-valence (SV) basis set uses more contractions for each valence AO than core orbitals. Split valence sets are called valence double zeta (VDZ), valence triple zeta (VTZ), and so on, according to the number of STOs used for each valence AO.

The polarization functions are important for reproducing chemical bonding. They are usually added as uncontracted gaussians. Higher angular momentum functions improve the description for anisotropic electron distribution. Normally, p orbitals are added to H and He, d orbitals are added to first-row atoms, f orbitals are added to second-row atoms, and so on. The basis sets are also frequently augmented with the so-called diffuse functions. These gaussians have very small exponents and decay slowly with distance from the nucleus. Anions, compounds with lone pairs, and hydrogen-bonded dimers have significant electron density at a great distance from the nucleus. To improve the accuracy for such compounds, diffuse functions are used.

Symbols of Pople's basis set are like n-ijG or n-ijkG, where n is a number of primitives for the inner shells and ij or ijk is a number of primitives for contractions in the valence shell. The ij notations describe sets of valence double zeta.

## 2.2 Density Functional Theory (DFT)

### 2.2.1 The Hohenberg-Kohn Theorem

In 1964, Pierre Hohenberg and Walter Kohn proved that the ground state electron density  $\rho_0$  of a many-electron system in the presence of an external potential  $V(\mathbf{r}_i)$  uniquely determines the external potential.<sup>100</sup> Therefore, density functional theory (DFT)

attempts to calculate ground state electronic energy  $E_0$  which is function of  $\rho_0$  and other ground state molecular properties from the ground state electron density  $\rho_0$ .

We define the purely electronic Hamiltonian as

$$H = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n v(r_i) + \sum_j \sum_{i>j} \frac{1}{r_{ij}} \quad (32)$$

$$v(r_i) = - \sum_{\alpha} \frac{Z_{\alpha}}{r_{i\alpha}} \quad (33)$$

In DFT,  $v(r_i)$  is called the external potential. The potential energy of interaction between electron  $i$  and the nuclei depends on the coordinates  $x_i, y_i, z_i$  of electron  $i$  and on the nuclear coordinates.

Let us assume that two different external potentials ( $v_a$  and  $v_b$ ) can each be consistent with the same nondegenerate ground state density  $\rho_0$ . Let  $H_a$  and  $H_b$  be the  $n$ -electron Hamiltonians (equation 32) corresponding to  $v_a(r_i)$  and  $v_b(r_i)$ , where  $v_a$  and  $v_b$  are not necessarily given by equation (33). With each Hamiltonian will be associated a ground state wave function  $\Psi_0$  and its associated eigenvalue  $E_0$ . The variational theorem of molecular orbital theory dictates that the expectation value of the Hamiltonian  $a$  over the wave function  $b$  must be higher than the ground state energy of  $a$ ,

$$E_{0,a} < \langle \Psi_{0,b} | H_a | \Psi_{0,b} \rangle \quad (34)$$

We may rewrite this expression as

$$\begin{aligned}
E_{0,a} &< \langle \Psi_{0,b} | H_a - H_b + H_b | \Psi_{0,b} \rangle \\
&< \langle \Psi_{0,b} | H_a - H_b | \Psi_{0,b} \rangle + \langle \Psi_{0,b} | H_b | \Psi_{0,b} \rangle \\
&< \langle \Psi_{0,b} | v_a - v_b | \Psi_{0,b} \rangle + E_{0,b}
\end{aligned} \tag{35}$$

Since the potentials  $v$  are one-electron operators, the integral in the last line of equation (35) can be written in terms of the ground state density

$$E_{0,a} < \int [v_a(r) - v_b(r)] \rho_0(r) dr + E_{0,b} \tag{36}$$

As we have made no distinction between a and b, we get the electron density  $\rho_{0,b}$  corresponding to  $\Psi_{0,b}$ . If we go through the same reasoning with a and b interchanged, we get

$$E_{0,b} < \int [v_b(r) - v_a(r)] \rho_0(r) dr + E_{0,a} \tag{37}$$

Now, when we add inequalities equation (36) and equation (37), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
E_{0,a} + E_{0,b} &< \int [v_b(r) - v_a(r)] \rho_0(r) dr \\
&+ \int [v_a(r) - v_b(r)] \rho_0(r) dr + E_{0,b} \\
&+ E_{0,a} \\
&< \int [v_b(r) - v_a(r) + v_a(r) - v_b(r)] \rho_0(r) dr + E_{0,b} \\
&+ E_{0,a}
\end{aligned} \tag{38}$$



$$< E_{0,b} + E_{0,a}$$

This result, that the sum of the two energies is less than itself, is false. So our initial assumption, that two different external potentials could produce the same ground-state electron density, must be false.

The ground-state electronic energy  $E_0$  is thus a functional of the function  $\rho_0(r)$  and so must be its individual parts. One can write

$$E_0[\rho_0] = \bar{T}[\rho_0] + \bar{V}_{Ne}[\rho_0] + \bar{V}_{ee}[\rho_0] \quad (39)$$

This ground state energy is the sum of electronic kinetic-energy terms, electron-nuclear attractions, and electron-electron repulsions. This expression can be classified by the known term and unknown terms.  $\bar{V}_{Ne}[\rho_0]$  is known as

$$\bar{V}_{Ne} = \langle \Psi_0 | \sum_{i=1}^n v(r_i) | \Psi_0 \rangle = \int \rho_0(r) v(r) dr \quad (40)$$

where  $v(r)$  is the nuclear attracting potential energy function for an electron located at point  $r$ .

However, the functionals  $\bar{T}[\rho_0]$  and  $\bar{V}_{ee}[\rho_0]$  are unknown. We have

$$E_0[\rho_0] = \int \rho_0(r) v(r) dr + F[\rho_0] \quad (41)$$

where the functional  $F[\rho_0]$  is called Hohenberg-Kohn functional, is defined  $\bar{T}[\rho_0] + \bar{V}_{ee}[\rho_0]$  and is independent of the external potential. Therefore, equation (41) is

unhelpful in providing any indication of how to predict the density of a system, because the functional  $F[\rho_0]$  is unknown.

### 2.2.2 The Hohenberg-Kohn Variation Theorem

The proof of the Hohenberg-Kohn variation theorem is as follows. First, we have some well-behaved candidate density that integrates the proper number of electrons,  $N$ . In that case, the first theorem indicates that this density determines a candidate wave function and Hamiltonian. Therefore we can evaluate the energy expectation value

$$\langle \Psi_{\text{cand}} | H_{\text{cand}} | \Psi_{\text{cand}} \rangle = E_{\text{cand}} \geq E_0 \quad (42)$$

which must be greater than or equal to the true ground state energy.

In principle, we can keep choosing different densities and those that provide lower energies, as calculated by equation (42), are closer to correct.

### 2.2.3 The Kohn-Sham Method

We know that the density determines the external potential, which determines the Hamiltonian, which determines the wave functions. However, the Hohenberg-Kohn theorem cannot calculate the correct Hamiltonian for the electron-electron interaction term. In a key breakthrough, Kohn and Sham discovered a practical method for finding  $\rho_0$  and for finding  $E_0$  from  $\rho_0$ .<sup>101</sup>

The Kohn-Sham method started as a fictitious system (denoted by the subscript  $s$  and often called the noninteracting system) of non electrons that have the same external potential-energy functions,  $v_s(\mathbf{r}_i)$ .

Next, Kohn-Sham rewrote the energy functional from equation (39) as

$$\begin{aligned}
E_v[\rho] = & \int \rho(r)v(r)dr + \bar{T}_s[\rho] \\
& + \frac{1}{2} \iint \frac{\rho(r_1)\rho(r_2)}{r_{12}} dr_1 dr_2 + \Delta\bar{T}[\rho] \\
& + \Delta\bar{V}_{ee}[\rho]
\end{aligned} \tag{43}$$

because  $\Delta\bar{T}[\rho]$  and  $\Delta\bar{V}_{ee}[\rho]$  are defined by

$$\Delta\bar{T}[\rho] \equiv \bar{T}[\rho] - \bar{T}_s[\rho] \tag{44}$$

and

$$\Delta\bar{V}_{ee}[\rho] \equiv \Delta\bar{V}_{ee}[\rho] - \frac{1}{2} \iint \frac{\rho(r_1)\rho(r_2)}{r_{12}} dr_1 dr_2 \tag{45}$$

where  $\frac{1}{2} \iint \frac{\rho(r_1)\rho(r_2)}{r_{12}} dr_1 dr_2$  is the classical expression for the electrostatic interelectronic repulsion energy.

The difficult terms  $\Delta\bar{T}[\rho]$  and  $\Delta\bar{V}_{ee}[\rho]$  have been defined as the exchange-correlation energy functional.

$$E_{xc}[\rho] \equiv \Delta\bar{T}[\rho] + \Delta\bar{V}_{ee}[\rho] \tag{46}$$

It is very important to get a good approximation to  $E_{xc}$  for evaluating exact energy. The local density approximation (LDA) and generalized gradient approximations (GGA)

are introduced.

This is the Hamiltonian of the reference system

$$\begin{aligned}
 H_s &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 + v_s(r_i) \right] \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n h_i^{KS} \quad \text{where } h_i^{KS} \\
 &\equiv -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 + v_s(r_i)
 \end{aligned} \tag{47}$$

where  $h_i^{KS}$  is the one-electron Kohn-Sham Hamiltonian.

## 2.2.4 Local Density Approximation (LDA)

Local density approximation can be used where charge density is slowly varying and the exchange-correlation energy of an electronic system is constructed by assuming the exchange-correlation energy per electron at a point  $r$  in the electron gas.

In this case, we can write  $E_{xc}$  as

$$E_{xc}^{LDA}[\rho] = \int \rho(r) \varepsilon_{xc}(\rho) dr \tag{48}$$

where  $\varepsilon_{xc}(\rho)$  is the exchange plus correlation energy per electron in a homogeneous electron gas with electron density  $\rho$ .

## 2.2.5 Generalized Gradient Approximation (GGA)

The LDA approach will have limitations if the electron density is typically rather far from spatially uniform. The function of  $E_{xc}$  of LDA is only  $\rho$ , and LSDA (local-spin-density-approximation) deals separately with the electron density  $\rho^\alpha(r)$ , and the density  $\rho^\beta(r)$  and the functional,  $E_{xc}$ , become  $E_{xc} = E_{xc}[\rho^\alpha, \rho^\beta]$ .

GGA is also included in the gradients of the electron density  $\rho^\alpha(\mathbf{r})$  and the density  $\rho^\beta(\mathbf{r})$  in the integrand as

$$E_{xc}^{GGA}[\rho^\alpha, \rho^\beta] = \int f(\rho^\alpha(\mathbf{r}), \rho^\beta(\mathbf{r}), \nabla\rho^\alpha(\mathbf{r}), \nabla\rho^\beta(\mathbf{r}))d\mathbf{r} \quad (49)$$

where  $f$  is some function of the spin densities and their gradients.

Commonly used exchange functionals,  $E_x$ , are B86<sup>102</sup>, P<sup>103</sup>, LG<sup>104</sup> and PBE<sup>105,106</sup>.

The most popular GGA correlation functionals,  $E_c$ , are the Lee-Yang-Parr (LYP) functional,<sup>107</sup> P86 or Pc86 (Perdew 1986),<sup>103</sup> PW91 or PWc91 (Perdew and Wang 1992),<sup>108</sup> and the Becke correlation functional called Bc95 or B96.<sup>109</sup>

A B3LYP calculation combines Becke's GGA exchange with the GGA correlation functional of Lee, Yang, and Parr. This functional is defined by

$$E_{xc}^{B3LYP} = (1 - a_0 - a_x)E_x^{LSDA} + a_0E_x^{exact} + a_xE_x^{B88} + (1 - a_c)E_c^{VWN} + a_cE_c^{LYP} \quad (50)$$

## 2.3 Monte Carlo Simulation

The Monte Carlo simulations use random numbers and probability theory for solving problems. Von Neumann, Ulam and Metropolis developed the Monte Carlo simulation method at the end of the Second World War to study the diffusion of neutrons in fissionable materials.<sup>110</sup>

The name of Monte Carlo simulation was coined by S. Ulam and Nicholas Metropolis in reference to games of chance, a popular attraction in Monte Carlo, Monaco.

### 2.3.1 The Metropolis Method

The Metropolis algorithm is based on the notion of detailed balance that describes equilibrium for systems whose configurations have probability proportional to the Boltzmann factor. The Boltzmann factor,  $e^{-E/T}$ , is proportional to the probability that the system will be found in a particular configuration at energy  $E$  when the temperature of the environment is  $T$ . Therefore,

$$P \propto e^{-E/T} \tag{51}$$

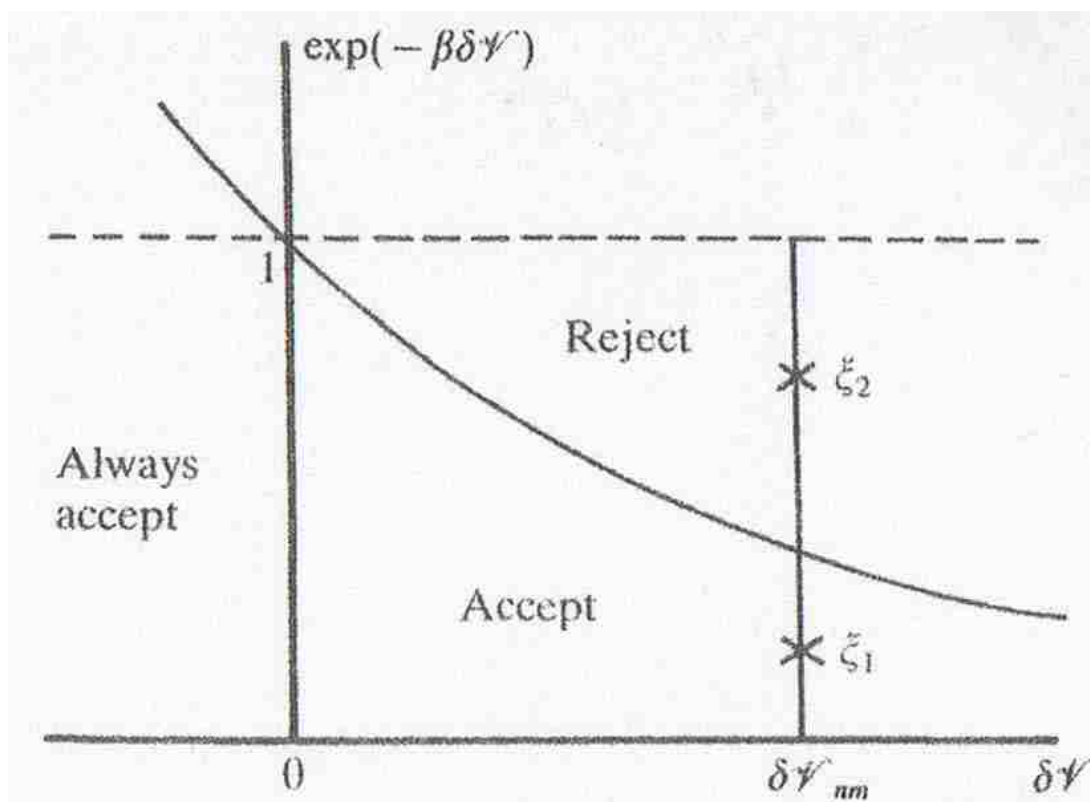


Figure 2.3: Accepting uphill moves in the MC simulation.<sup>110</sup>

Consider two configurations A and B, each of which occurs with probability proportional to the Boltzmann factor. The nice thing about forming the ratio is that it converts relative

probabilities involving an unknown proportionality constant (called the inverse of the partition function) into a pure number. In a seminal paper of 1953, Metropolis et al. noted that we can achieve the relative probability of equation (51) in a simulation by proceeding as follows:

1. Starting from a configuration A, with known energy  $E_A$ , make a change in the configuration to obtain a new (nearby) configuration B.
2. Compute  $E_B$  (typically as a small change from  $E_A$ ).
3. If  $E_B < E_A$ , assume the new configuration, since it has lower energy (a desirable thing, according to the Boltzmann factor).
4. If  $E_B > E_A$ , accept the new (higher energy) configuration with probability  $p$ .

If we follow these rules, then we will sample points in space of all possible configurations with probability proportional to the Boltzmann factor, consistent with the theory of equilibrium statistical mechanics. We can compute average properties by adding them along the path we follow through possible configurations. The hardest part about implementing the Metropolis algorithm is the first step: how to generate useful new configurations.

If the random number,  $\xi$ , is less than a probability of  $\exp(-\beta\delta V_{nm})$ , the move is accepted. Figure 2.3 shows this procedure. Suppose that a particular uphill move is attempted in running the procedure. There are two points at random numbers,  $\xi_1$  and  $\xi_2$ . If the random number  $\xi_1$  is chosen, the move is accepted, but if  $\xi_2$  is chosen, the move is rejected.

The Monte Carlo simulations need to compare only potential energy ( $V$ ). First of all, we calculate the initial potential energy ( $V_1$ ) at the initial state ( $R_1$ ), moving coordinate directions using a random number generator to get the new state ( $R_2$ ) and to calculate new potential energy ( $V_2$ ).

In our MC simulations, we generate the initial structure by attaching CuO molecule to an optimized and smaller copper oxide clusters. The simulations repeated the

following steps: (1) Given the initial configuration  $R_1$ , new configuration  $R_2$  is generated by random number generator of one randomly chosen atom. (2) Once the total energies ( $V_1$  and  $V_2$ ) of these two configurations are calculated, the acceptance probability of the new configuration  $R_2$  is then determined as

$$P(R_2|R_1) = \min[1, \exp(\beta(V_2 - V_1))] \quad (52)$$

where  $\beta = -1/k_B T$ ,  $T$  is the temperature and  $k_B$  is Boltzmann's constant. (3) If the configuration  $R_2$  is accepted, it will be the configuration of the next MC step, and  $V_1$  is set equal to  $V_2$ . If the configuration  $R_2$  is not accepted, the configuration  $R_1$  and its energy  $V_1$  are retained and used to start the next step. In this way, the simulations will eventually reach equilibrium. This procedure is the Metropolis method.<sup>111</sup> About 500 MC steps were needed to reach the equilibrium state. We performed our MC simulations at temperature from 2000K to 300K.



# CHAPTER 3

## $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$ (n=1-8) CLUSTERS

We used *ab initio* simulations and calculations to study the structures and stabilities of copper oxide clusters,  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  (n=1-8). The lowest energy structures of neutral and charged copper oxide clusters were determined using primarily the B3LYP/LANL2DZ model chemistry. A transition from planar to nonplanar geometries occurs at n=4. Selected electronic properties including binding energies, ionization energies, and electronic affinities were calculated and examined as a function of n. Stabilities were examined by calculating fragmentation channels and Löwdin charge distributions.

### 3.1 Method

#### 3.1.1 Monte Carlo Simulations

We performed *ab initio* Monte Carlo simulation (using Gaussian 03<sup>112</sup> and homegrown scripts) to locate stable geometric structures for  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  clusters with n=1-8. The simulations used multiple starting geometries for each cluster size. To calculate the total energy at each MC step, we used Gaussian 03<sup>112</sup> program with B3LYP (Becke's 3-parameter exchange functional with Lee-Yang-Parr correlation energy functional)<sup>107,113,114</sup> and 6-31G\*\* basis set.<sup>115,116</sup> About 500 MC steps were needed to reach the equilibrium state. We performed our MC simulations at temperatures from 2000K to 300K.

The Monte Carlo simulations of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$  cluster are shown in Figure 3.1. We generate the initial structure: Cu-O molecule is attached on optimized copper oxide clusters. We

performed 160 MC steps to find the local energy of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$  cluster.

These geometries were then optimized using standard *ab initio* methods using the GAMESS<sup>117</sup> quantum chemistry package. The smaller clusters were then used as starting points to look for the global minimum geometries for larger clusters where the Monte Carlo procedure was not practical. We used the B3LYP (Becke's 3-parameter exchange functional with Lee-Yang-Parr correlation energy functional)<sup>107,113,114</sup> version of DFT with LANL2DZ basis set.

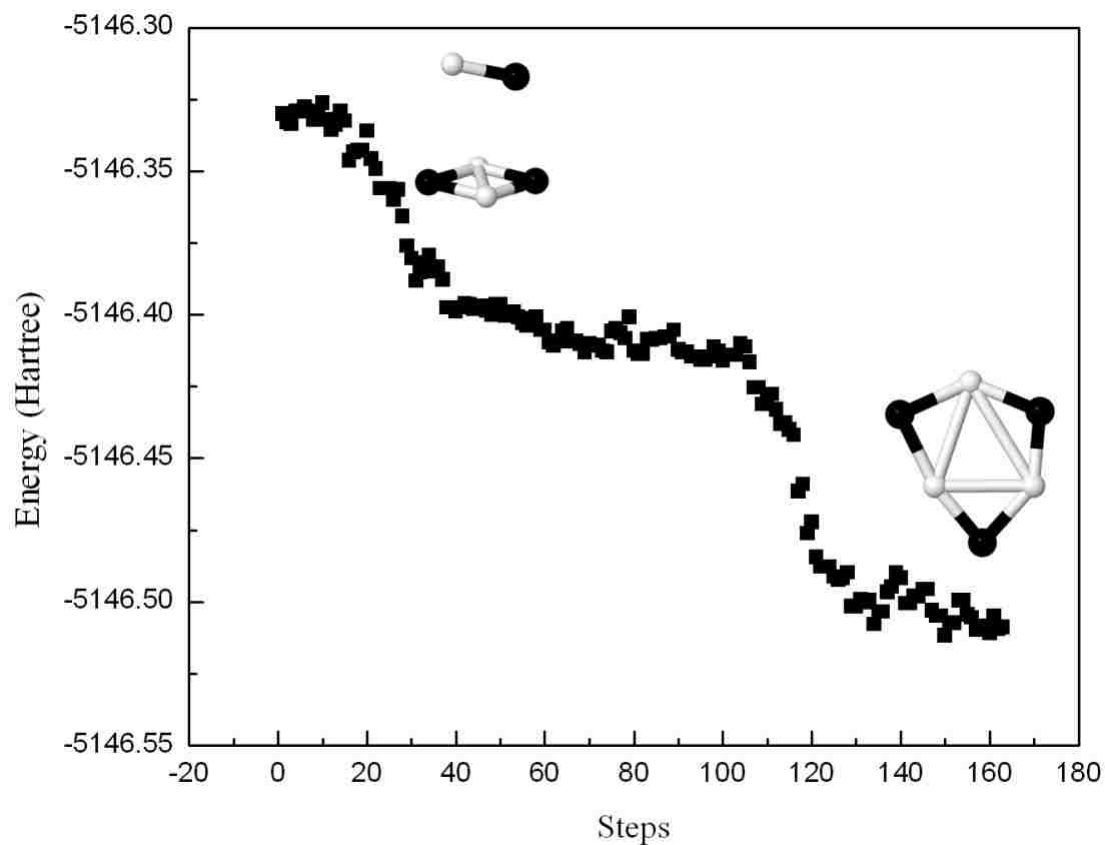


Figure 3.1: Monte Carlo simulation of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$  cluster. Copper/oxygen atoms are colored white/black.

### 3.1.2 Basis Sets

We used 6-31G\*<sup>118-120</sup>, 6-31++G\*\*,<sup>118,121-125</sup> 6-311G\*\*<sup>124,126-128</sup>, 6-311++G\*\*<sup>123,124</sup>, LANL2DZ<sup>129-131</sup> and DGDZVP<sup>132,133</sup> basis set to choose the best basis set for copper oxide clusters. 6-31G\* basis set is described by six 3d functions per atom:  $3d_{xx}$ ,  $3d_{yy}$ ,  $3d_{zz}$ ,  $3d_{xy}$ ,  $3d_{yz}$ , and  $3d_{zx}$ . These six, the Cartesian Gaussian, are linear combinations of the usual five 3d functions:  $3d_{xy}$ ,  $3d_{x^2-y^2}$ ,  $3d_{yz}$ ,  $3d_{zx}$ , and  $3d_{z^2}$  and 3s function ( $x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ), including polarization functions. The polarization functions are denoted by an asterisk, \*. Two asterisks, \*\*, indicate that polarization functions are also added to light atoms (hydrogen and helium). The diffuse functions are denoted by a plus sign, +. Two plus signs, ++, indicate that diffuse functions are also added to light atoms (hydrogen and helium).

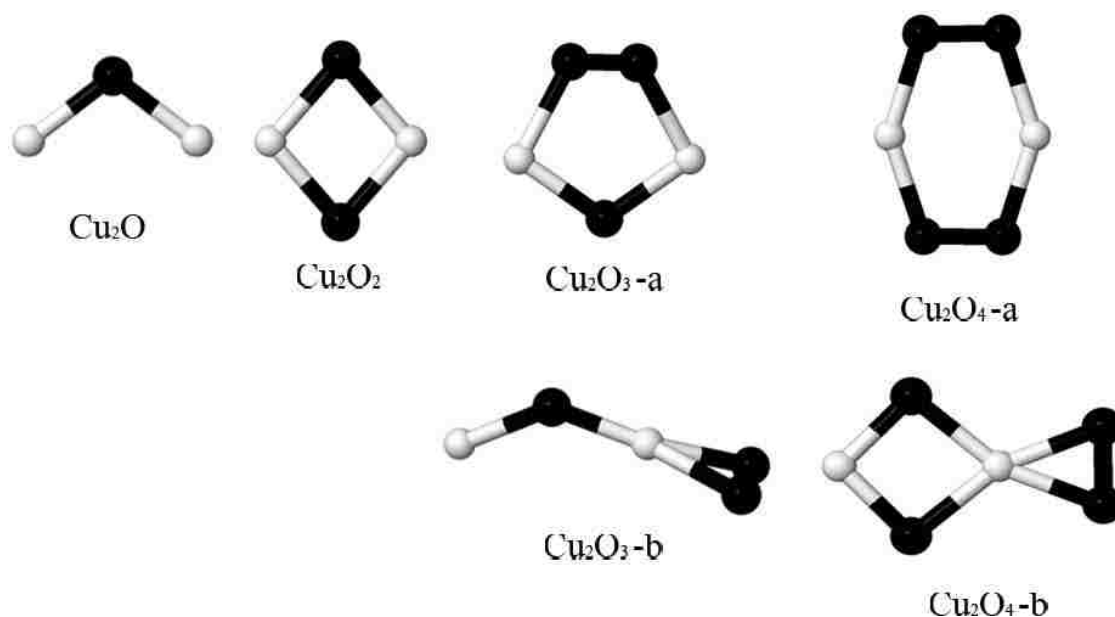


Figure 3.2: Lowest energy clusters for  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_n$ ,  $n=1-4$ . Different basis sets give different lowest isomers for  $n=3$  and 4 ( $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_3$ -a: 6-31G\*\*;  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_3$ -b: 6-31++G\*\*, 6-311G\*\*, 6-311++G\*\*, LANL2DZ and DGDZVP;  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_4$ -a: 6-31++G\*\*, 6-311++G\*\*, LANL2DZ and DGDZVP;  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_4$ -b: 6-31G\*\* and 6-311G\*\*) (See Table 2.1 for details.) Copper/oxygen atoms are colored white/black.

Effective core potential (ECP) or Effective Potential (EP) approaches are developed to treat inner shell electrons as if they were some averaged potential rather than actual particles. An effective core potential (ECP) is a linear combination of specially designed Gaussian functions that model the core electrons; the core electrons are represented by an effective potential, and one treats only the valence electrons explicitly. LANL2DZ basis set is known as Los Alamos National Laboratory basis set and was developed by Hay and Wadt.<sup>129-131</sup> LANL2DZ basis set has been widely used in quantum chemistry in the study of compounds or clusters containing heavy elements. The functions of this basis set have been obtained by fitting the procedure of pseudo-orbitals with Gaussian functions. DGDZVP basis sets are denoted by double-zeta valence plus polarization (DZVP) in DGauss.<sup>132-134</sup>

Table 2.1: Electronic affinities comparing basis sets with experimental data

	Electron Affinities (eV)						
	6-31G**	6-31++G**	6-311G**	6-311++G**	LANL2DZ	DGDZVP	EXP <sup>77</sup>
Cu <sub>2</sub> O	0.94	1.27	0.14	1.24	1.15	1.15	1.10
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	1.41	2.33	0.89	1.76	2.41	2.24	2.46
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	2.35	2.65	1.67	3.09	3.25	3.08	3.54
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	3.26	3.34	2.75	3.35	3.54	3.31	3.50

Calculations found the lowest energy clusters for Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>n</sub> (n=1-4), shown in Figure 2.2. For Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, different isomers were found depending on the basis set (Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-a: 6-31G\*\*; Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-b: 6-31++G\*\*, 6-311G\*\*, 6-311++G\*\*, LANL2DZ and DGDZVP; Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-a: 6-31++G\*\*, 6-311++G\*\*, LANL2DZ and DGDZVP; Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-b: 6-31G\*\* and 6-311G\*\*). Experimental data of electron affinities of Cu<sub>2</sub>O to Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> clusters are available.<sup>77</sup> A comparison of calculated and measured electron affinities are shown in Table 2.1. The best agreement with experimental data is found with the LANL2DZ basis set, which is therefore used in the remainder of this work.

## 3.2 Results

### 3.2.1 Geometric Structures

The optimized structures of neutral and charged  $(\text{CuO})_n$  clusters with  $n=1-8$  are shown in Figure 3.2 and the corresponding bond lengths in Table 3.1. Spin states, adiabatic ionization energies, adiabatic electron affinities, and binding energies per copper atoms are given in Table 3.2. The lowest spin state (i.e., singlet, doublet, triplet and quartet) of a given cluster was used in these calculations. Every neutral copper oxide cluster,  $(\text{CuO})_n$ , can be formed from a  $\text{Cu}_{n-1}\text{O}_{n-1}$  cluster by attaching a Cu-O molecule to the side of a  $\text{Cu}_{n-1}\text{O}_{n-1}$  cluster.

The calculated bond lengths for  $\text{CuO}^-$  and  $\text{CuO}$  are  $1.74\text{\AA}$  and  $1.81\text{\AA}$  and are in acceptable agreement with the measured values of  $1.67\text{\AA}$  and  $1.72\text{\AA}$ .<sup>80</sup> Based on the present simulations and calculations, the structure of the lowest energy  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_2$  cluster is a rhombus. The spin states of optimized structures are singlet, doublet, and doublet for the neutral, cation, and anion clusters, respectively. Wang et al.<sup>77</sup> and Dai et al.<sup>98</sup> have suggested minimum energy structures for  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_2$  based on ab initio calculations and/or experimental measurements. Wang et al. suggest the structure is a rhombus, while Dai et al. suggest the structure is linear or near linear. The rhombic structure of Wang et al. has a Cu-O bond length of  $1.78\text{\AA}$  and a Cu-O-Cu bond angle of  $80^\circ$ . Our calculations give a Cu-O bond length of  $\approx 1.86\text{\AA}$  and a Cu-O-Cu bond angle of  $\approx 82^\circ$ . The present work supports the rhombic structure as the lowest energy structure for  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_2$ .

Our calculations find  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$  clusters to be nearly planar. The neutral cluster is a quartet, while the charged clusters have triplet ground states. The average Cu-O-Cu bond angles are  $121.8^\circ$  (cation),  $98.1^\circ$  (neutral), and  $94.2^\circ$  (anion). The calculated Cu-O bond lengths are  $1.89\text{\AA}$  (cation),  $1.90\text{\AA}$  (neutral), and  $1.85$  (anion).

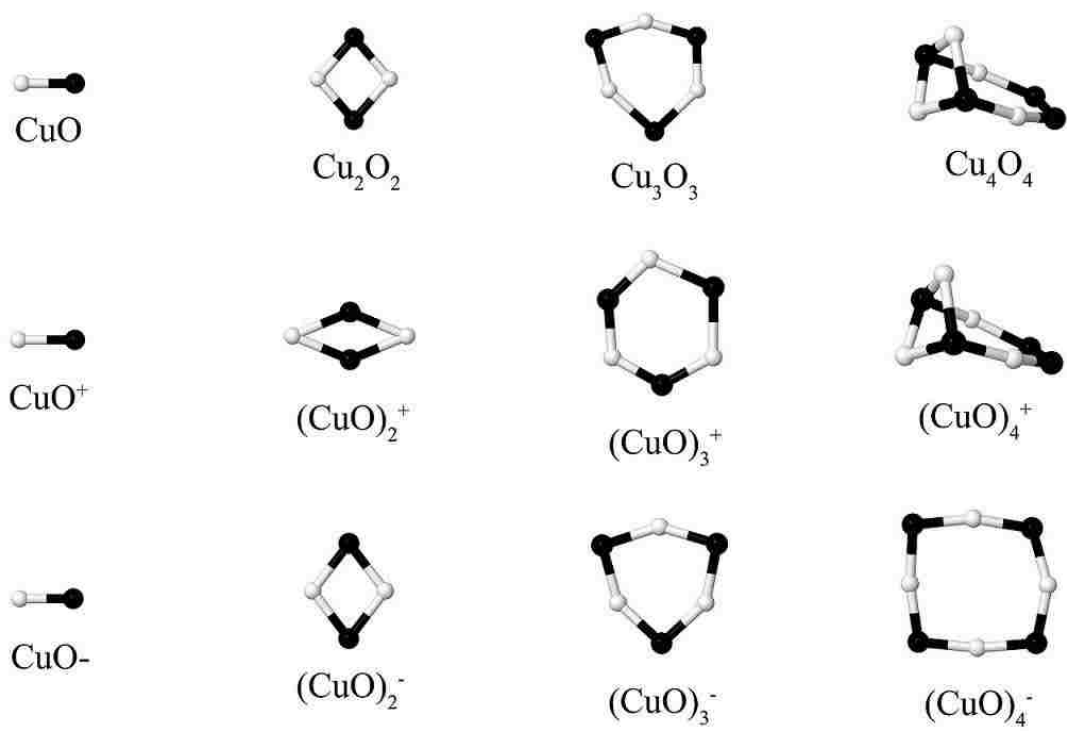


Figure 3.3: Optimized structures of neutral, positively, and negatively charged (CuO)<sub>n</sub> clusters with n=1-4. Copper/oxygen atoms are colored white/black.

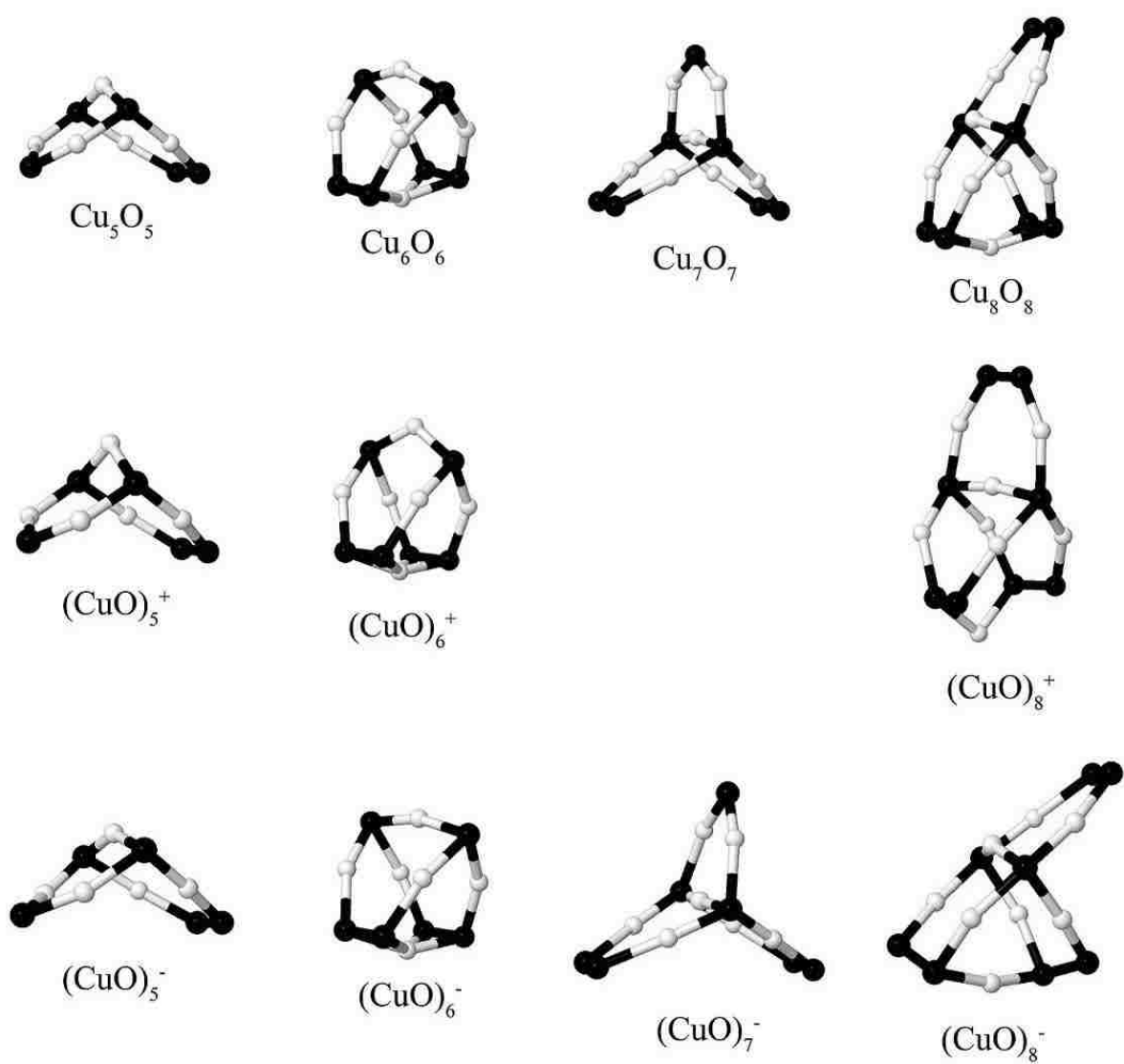


Figure 3.4: Optimized structures of neutral, positively, and negatively charged  $(\text{CuO})_n$  clusters with  $n=5-8$ . Copper/oxygen atoms are colored white/black.

Table 3.1: Bond lengths ( $\text{\AA}$ ) of Cu-O-Cu in  $(\text{CuO})_n$  ( $n=1-8$ ) clusters

Clusters		$d$			
CuO	CuO	$d_{1-2}=1.81$			
	CuO <sup>+</sup>	$d_{1-2}=1.76$			
	CuO <sup>-</sup>	$d_{1-2}=1.74$			
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	$d_{1-3}=1.86$	$d_{1-4}=1.86$	$d_{2-3}=1.86$	$d_{2-4}=1.86$
	Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	$d_{1-3}=2.01$	$d_{1-4}=2.01$	$d_{2-3}=2.01$	$d_{2-4}=2.01$
	Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	$d_{1-3}=1.92$	$d_{1-4}=1.92$	$d_{2-3}=1.92$	$d_{2-4}=1.92$
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	$d_{1-4}=1.83$	$d_{1-6}=2.06$	$d_{2-4}=1.81$	
		$d_{2-5}=1.83$	$d_{3-5}=1.83$	$d_{3-6}=2.03$	
	Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup>	$d_{1-4}=1.75$	$d_{1-6}=1.77$	$d_{2-4}=1.78$	
		$d_{2-5}=2.13$	$d_{3-5}=2.12$	$d_{3-6}=1.79$	
	Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	$d_{1-4}=1.84$	$d_{1-6}=1.85$	$d_{2-4}=1.85$	
		$d_{2-5}=1.85$	$d_{3-5}=1.85$	$d_{3-6}=1.85$	
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	$d_{1-5}=1.96$	$d_{1-6}=1.97$	$d_{2-6}=1.88$	$d_{2-7}=1.93$
		$d_{3-5}=1.88$	$d_{3-8}=1.93$	$d_{4-5}=1.97$	$d_{4-6}=1.96$
	Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	$d_{1-5}=1.94$	$d_{1-6}=1.93$	$d_{2-6}=1.88$	$d_{2-7}=1.94$
		$d_{3-5}=1.87$	$d_{3-8}=1.93$	$d_{4-5}=1.92$	$d_{4-6}=1.95$
	Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup>	$d_{1-5}=1.81$	$d_{1-6}=1.81$	$d_{2-6}=1.80$	$d_{2-7}=1.79$
		$d_{3-5}=1.81$	$d_{3-8}=1.83$	$d_{4-5}=1.80$	$d_{4-6}=1.80$
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	$d_{1-6}=1.83$	$d_{1-10}=1.87$	$d_{2-6}=1.83$	$d_{2-7}=1.88$
		$d_{3-7}=1.88$	$d_{3-8}=1.92$	$d_{4-9}=1.92$	$d_{4-10}=1.87$
		$d_{5-7}=1.90$	$d_{5-10}=1.90$	$d_{8-9}=1.40$	
	Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> <sup>+</sup>	$d_{1-6}=1.87$	$d_{1-10}=1.87$	$d_{2-6}=1.80$	$d_{2-7}=1.88$
		$d_{3-7}=1.88$	$d_{3-8}=1.87$	$d_{4-9}=1.87$	$d_{4-10}=1.88$
		$d_{5-7}=1.96$	$d_{5-10}=1.96$	$d_{8-9}=1.37$	
	Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> <sup>-</sup>	$d_{1-6}=1.87$	$d_{1-10}=1.91$	$d_{2-6}=1.87$	$d_{2-7}=1.90$
		$d_{3-7}=1.87$	$d_{3-8}=1.92$	$d_{4-9}=1.92$	$d_{4-10}=1.87$
		$d_{5-7}=1.96$	$d_{5-10}=1.96$	$d_{8-9}=1.41$	
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	$d_{1-7}=1.94$	$d_{1-12}=1.90$	$d_{2-8}=1.94$	$d_{2-9}=1.90$
		$d_{3-9}=1.90$	$d_{3-10}=1.94$	$d_{4-11}=1.94$	$d_{4-12}=1.90$
		$d_{5-9}=1.88$	$d_{5-12}=1.89$	$d_{6-7}=2.02$	$d_{6-8}=2.10$
		$d_{6-10}=2.02$	$d_{6-11}=2.10$	$d_{7-8}=1.52$	$d_{10-11}=1.52$
	Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> <sup>+</sup>	$d_{1-7}=1.99$	$d_{1-12}=1.90$	$d_{2-8}=1.99$	$d_{2-9}=1.93$
		$d_{3-9}=1.93$	$d_{3-10}=1.99$	$d_{4-11}=1.99$	$d_{4-12}=1.90$
		$d_{5-9}=1.86$	$d_{5-12}=1.85$	$d_{6-7}=1.98$	$d_{6-8}=1.98$
		$d_{6-10}=1.98$	$d_{6-11}=1.98$	$d_{7-8}=1.49$	$d_{10-11}=1.49$
	Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> <sup>-</sup>	$d_{1-7}=1.96$	$d_{1-12}=1.92$	$d_{2-8}=1.96$	$d_{2-9}=1.94$
		$d_{3-9}=1.94$	$d_{3-10}=1.96$	$d_{4-11}=1.96$	$d_{4-12}=1.92$
		$d_{5-9}=1.91$	$d_{5-12}=1.92$	$d_{6-7}=2.01$	$d_{6-8}=2.05$
		$d_{6-10}=2.06$	$d_{6-11}=2.00$	$d_{7-8}=1.56$	$d_{10-11}=1.56$



Table 3.1: Bond lengths ( $\text{\AA}$ ) of Cu-O-Cu in  $(\text{CuO})_n$  ( $n=7-8$ ) clusters

Clusters		$d$				
$\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7$	$\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7$	$d_{1-8}=1.94$	$d_{1-14}=1.92$	$d_{2-9}=1.94$	$d_{2-10}=1.92$	
		$d_{3-10}=1.92$	$d_{3-12}=1.94$	$d_{4-13}=1.94$	$d_{4-14}=1.92$	
		$d_{5-10}=1.92$	$d_{5-14}=1.92$	$d_{6-10}=1.98$	$d_{6-11}=1.88$	
	$\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7^-$	$d_{7-11}=1.88$	$d_{7-14}=1.98$	$d_{8-9}=1.40$	$d_{12-13}=1.40$	
		$d_{1-8}=2.19$	$d_{1-14}=1.89$	$d_{2-9}=2.18$	$d_{2-10}=1.90$	
		$d_{3-10}=1.90$	$d_{3-12}=2.15$	$d_{4-13}=2.15$	$d_{4-14}=1.90$	
	$\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$	$\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$	$d_{5-10}=2.05$	$d_{5-14}=2.06$	$d_{6-10}=2.14$	$d_{6-11}=1.71$
			$d_{7-11}=1.73$	$d_{7-14}=2.07$	$d_{8-9}=1.39$	$d_{12-13}=1.40$
			$d_{1-9}=1.94$	$d_{1-14}=1.97$	$d_{2-10}=1.95$	$d_{2-11}=1.97$
			$d_{3-11}=1.98$	$d_{3-15}=1.93$	$d_{4-14}=1.96$	$d_{4-16}=1.93$
$d_{5-9}=1.99$			$d_{5-10}=2.06$	$d_{5-15}=2.06$	$d_{5-16}=2.02$	
$\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8^+$		$d_{6-11}=1.96$	$d_{6-14}=1.96$	$d_{7-11}=1.91$	$d_{7-12}=1.94$	
		$d_{8-13}=1.94$	$d_{8-14}=1.92$	$d_{9-10}=1.55$	$d_{12-13}=1.40$	
		$d_{15-16}=1.55$	$d_{1-9}=2.08$	$d_{1-14}=1.93$	$d_{2-10}=2.07$	
		$d_{3-11}=2.07$	$d_{3-15}=1.93$	$d_{4-14}=2.08$	$d_{4-16}=2.12$	
		$d_{5-10}=2.12$	$d_{5-15}=2.13$	$d_{6-11}=1.92$	$d_{6-14}=1.93$	
$\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8^-$	$d_{7-11}=1.95$	$d_{7-12}=1.82$	$d_{8-13}=1.83$	$d_{8-14}=1.95$		
	$d_{9-10}=1.42$	$d_{12-13}=1.38$	$d_{15-16}=1.42$			
	$d_{1-9}=1.92$	$d_{1-14}=1.95$	$d_{2-10}=1.84$	$d_{2-11}=1.97$		
	$d_{3-11}=1.95$	$d_{3-15}=1.92$	$d_{4-14}=1.98$	$d_{4-16}=1.84$		
	$d_{5-9}=1.90$	$d_{5-15}=1.92$	$d_{6-11}=1.98$	$d_{6-14}=1.95$		
	$d_{7-11}=1.91$	$d_{7-12}=2.13$	$d_{8-13}=2.15$	$d_{8-14}=1.93$		
	$d_{9-10}=1.58$	$d_{12-13}=1.39$	$d_{15-16}=1.58$			

The  $\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$  cluster is the first nonplanar structure found for  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  and consists of 2 copper atoms above and below the plane of a  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_4$  unit. A similar structure is found for the cation cluster, while the anion cluster is planar. The spin states of the optimized structures are triplet (neutral) and doublet (cation and anion). The Cu-O bond lengths are  $1.92\text{\AA}$  (cation),  $1.94\text{\AA}$  (neutral), and  $1.81\text{\AA}$  (anion).

The  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$  clusters consist of fused 6-membered ( $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$ ) and 7-membered ( $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_4$ ) rings sharing a O-Cu-O edge. The angle between the rings is  $131.5^\circ$ . In these clusters, there is one O-O bond. The spin states of optimized structures are quartet (neutral) and triplet (cation and anion).

$\text{Cu}_6\text{O}_6$  clusters have cage structures. The spin states of optimized structures are triplet (neutral) and doublet (cation and anion).  $\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7$  clusters exhibit another fused structure with three rings sharing a common edge. Similar to the  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$  clusters, the rings are 6- and 7-membered. There are two O-O bonds in these structures. We were unable to optimize the  $\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7$  due to severe spin-contamination issues. The spin states of optimized structures are quartet (neutral) and triplet (anion).  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$  can be constructed from  $\text{Cu}_6\text{O}_6$  by addition of a  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_2$  group to an edge of the  $\text{Cu}_6\text{O}_6$  cluster. The spin states of optimized structures are triplet (neutral), quartet (cation) and doublet (anion).

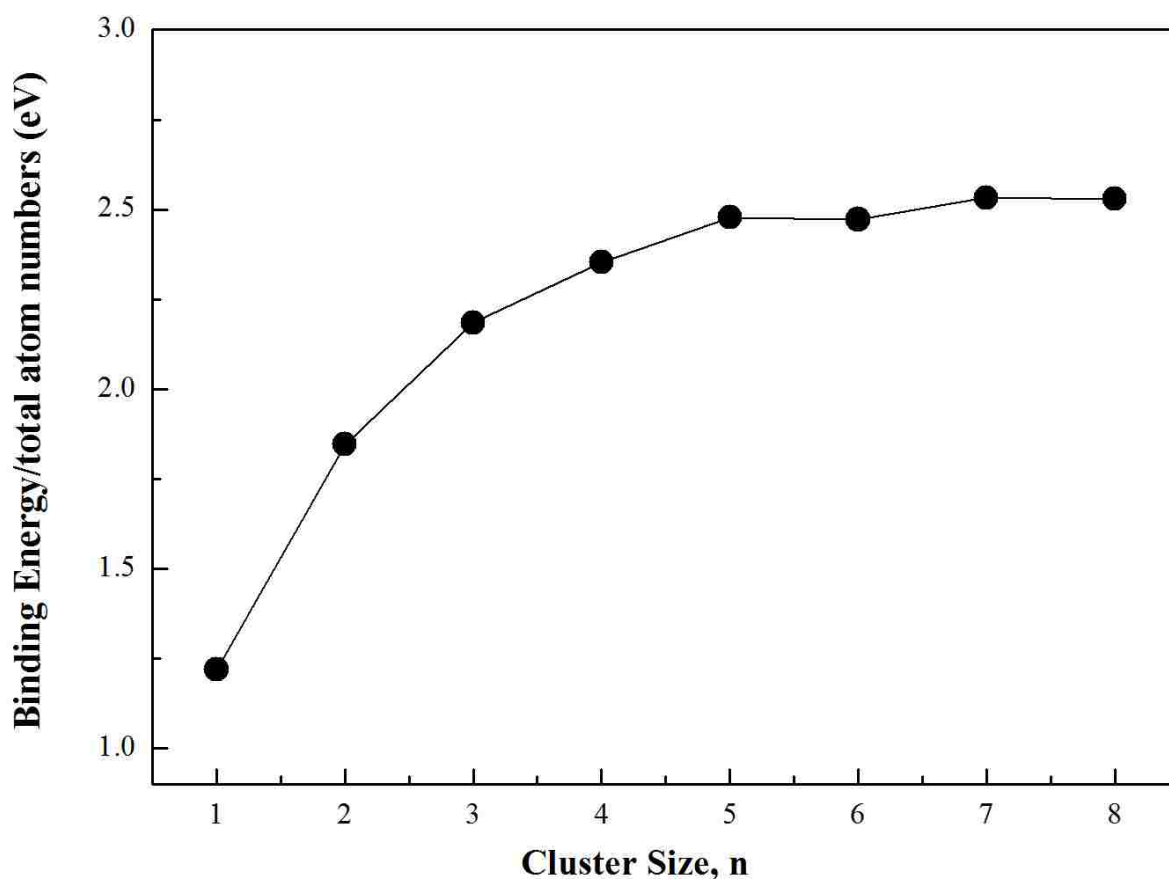


Figure 3.5: Atomization energies of neutral  $(\text{CuO})_n$  clusters with  $n=1-8$

### 3.2.2 Atomization Energies and Second Difference Energies

The atomization energies per atom have been calculated from

$$E_b = [n E(\text{Cu}) + n E(\text{O}) - E(\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n)]/2n \quad (1)$$

Table 3.2: Spin states, ionization energies (IE), electron affinities (EA), and binding energies (Eb) for  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$ ,  $n=1-8$ . Energies are in electron volts and are calculated using the B3LYP/LANL2DZ model chemistry.

Clusters	Spin State	IE	EA	E <sub>b</sub>
CuO	doublet			
CuO <sup>+</sup>	singlet	12.25	1.35	1.22
CuO <sup>-</sup>	singlet			
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	singlet			
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	doublet	8.24	2.35	1.85
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	doublet			
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	quartet			
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup>	triplet	9.36	3.65	2.19
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	triplet			
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	triplet			
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	doublet	8.37	3.40	2.35
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup>	doublet			
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	quartet			
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> <sup>+</sup>	triplet	8.78	3.64	2.48
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Triplet			
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	triplet			
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> <sup>+</sup>	doublet	8.46	3.61	2.47
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> <sup>-</sup>	doublet			
Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub>	quartet			
			2.00	2.53
Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub> <sup>-</sup>	triplet			
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	triplet			
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub> <sup>+</sup>	quartet	8.26	3.13	2.53
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub> <sup>-</sup>	doublet			

Figure 3.2 shows the atomization energy per atom,  $E_a$ , as a function of the number of copper atoms in the cluster. This energy rises rapidly from  $n=1$  to  $n=5$  and appears to be converging to about 2.5eV. The second difference in energies is defined by

$$\Delta^2 E(n) = [E(n + 1) - E(n)] - [E(n) - E(n - 1)] \quad (2)$$

and is often used to identify so-called “magic clusters,” which are clusters with particular stability. The second difference is plotted in Figure 3.4. There is an odd-even alteration in the values of  $\Delta^2 E(n)$  with  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$  (and possibly  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$ ) appearing to be particularly stable.

The geometric structures  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$  and  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$  are characterized by rings with at least 6 atoms. We have investigated whether ring strain plays an important role in the stability of these clusters by calculating the RMS deviations of Cu-O-Cu and O-Cu-O angles from “ideal” values. For a planar, completely symmetric ring, the angle would be  $120^\circ$ . The Cu-O-Cu angles in  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$  and  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$  are nearly tetrahedral ( $\approx 109.5^\circ$ ). We thus choose the tetrahedral angle as the “ideal” Cu-O-Cu bond angle and  $130.5^\circ$  as the “ideal” O-Cu-O bond angle. Table 3.3 shows these root-mean-square (rms) deviations. There is a slight correlation between the second energy difference and the Cu-O-Cu bond angles, so there is a possibility that ring strain due to Cu-O-Cu deviating from perfect tetrahedral angles plays a role in the stability of the clusters. We have investigated that the stability of copper oxide clusters is discussed in term of the ring size effect. The even numbered clusters have small rings (3- and 4-membered). These small rings lead to ring strain and a loss of stability. On the contrary, the odd numbered clusters have large rings (6- and 7-membered).

Table 3.3: Root-mean-square deviations of Cu-O-Cu and O-Cu-O angles

$\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$ (n=2-8)	$\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_2$	$\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$	$\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$	$\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$	$\text{Cu}_6\text{O}_6$	$\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7$	$\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$
RMS deviations (Cu-O-Cu angles)	27.5	13.0	21.7	10.9	16.2	20.6	26.5
RMS deviations (O-Cu-O angles)	32.5	11.6	29.7	21.9	16.4	29.8	39.8

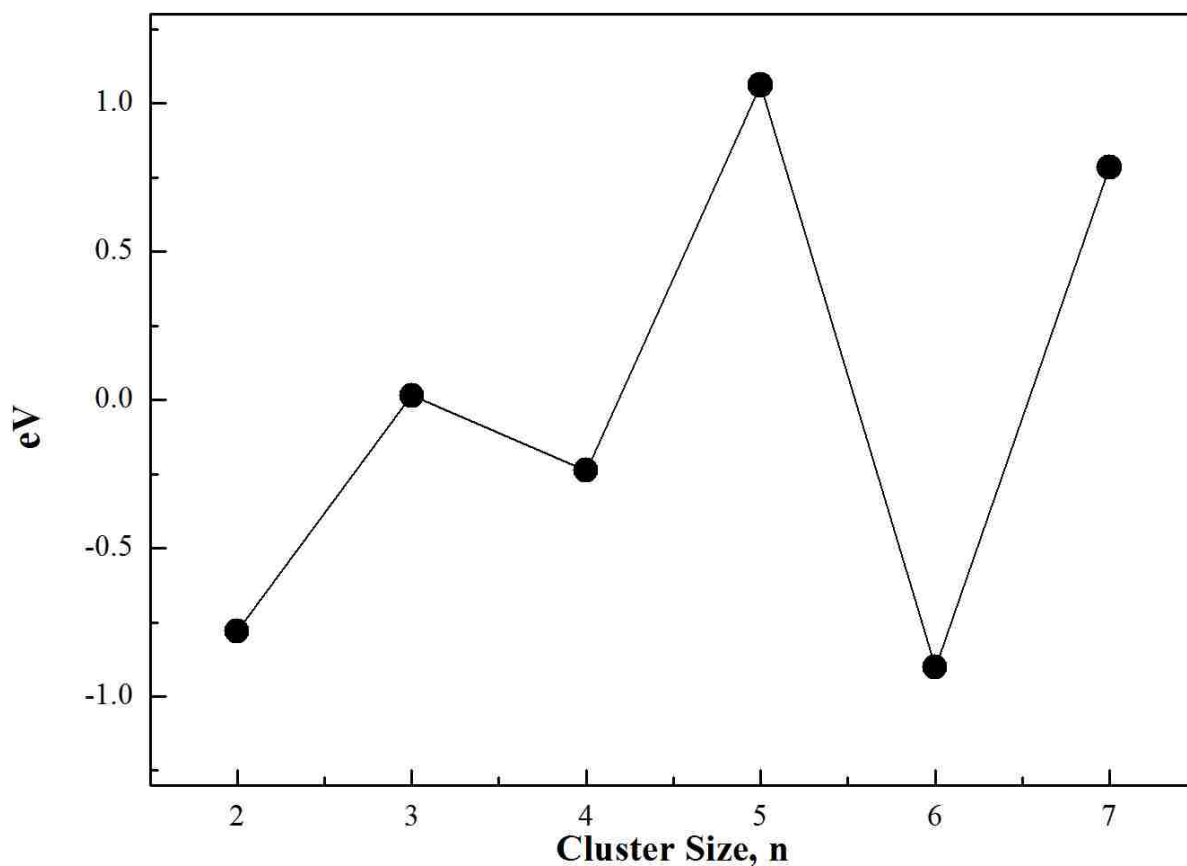


Figure 3.6: Second difference of the energy of  $(\text{CuO})_n$  clusters with  $n=1-7$

### 3.2.3 Ionization Potential, Electron Affinities and HOMO-LUMO Gaps

Figure 3.5 represents the ionization potentials ( $\text{IP}(X_n) = E(X_n^+) - E(X_n)$ ) and electron affinities ( $\text{EA}(X_n) = E(X_n) - E(X_n^-)$ ). Ionization potentials and electron affinities have been calculated taking the lowest structural energies, which are adiabatic energies. The even-odd oscillation in IP can be explained based on the electronic clusters

structures. In the case of clusters with an even number of copper atoms, all electrons are paired, giving a closed shell electronic structure and spin pairing. In contrast, all odd numbered clusters have a single unpaired electron. Therefore, it is much more difficult to ionize the even numbered clusters than odd ones. It is seen that the copper oxide clusters with  $n=1, 3,$  and  $5$  have higher IPs.

However, it should be much easier to attach an electron to copper oxide clusters with an odd number of copper atoms than the even ones. In figure 3.5, the electron affinities energies are increasing for  $n=1-3$  and showing a stabilization for  $n=3-6$ .

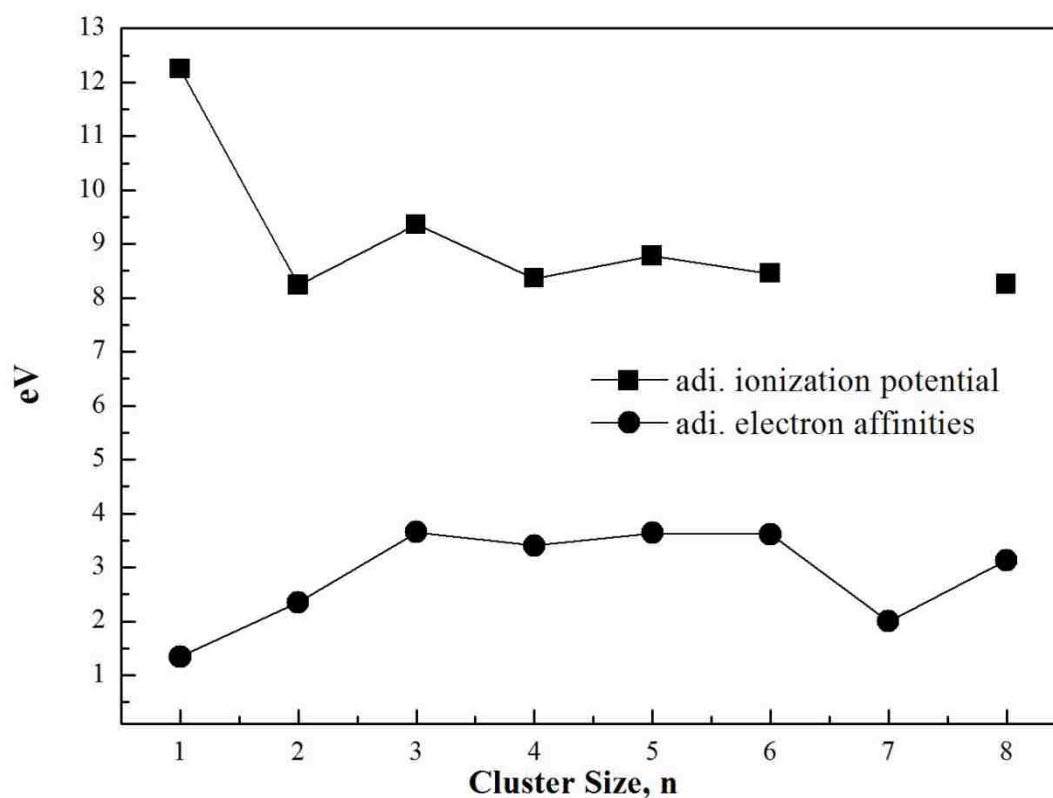


Figure 3.7: Calculated adiabatic ionization potential and electron affinities of  $(\text{CuO})_n$  clusters with  $n=1-8$

The calculated HOMO-LUMO gaps of the lowest-energy structures for neutral  $(\text{CuO})_n$  ( $n=1-8$ ) clusters are shown in Figure 3.6. The magnitude of the gaps varies from 2.24 eV to 3.67 eV. Usually the clusters with larger HOMO-LUMO gaps are more stable and chemically

inert. Interestingly, we note that the  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$  cluster has largest HOMO-LUMO gap among the clusters we studied.

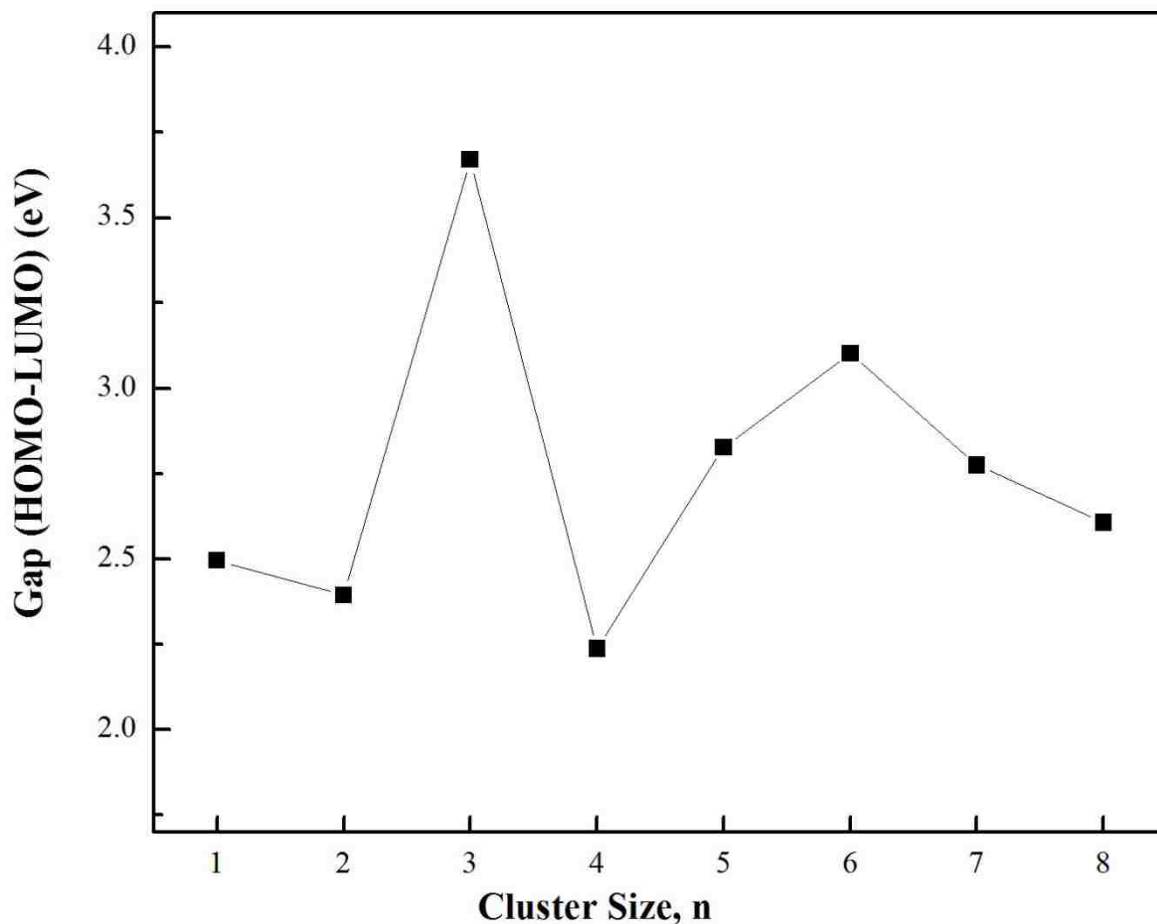


Figure 3.8: Calculated HOMO-LUMO gap of neutral  $(\text{CuO})_n$  clusters with  $n=1-8$

### 3.2.4 Fragmentation Channels

We have also calculated the fragmentation energies of  $(\text{CuO})_n$  ( $n=1-8$ ) clusters for various dissociation pathways. The fragmentation channels of  $(\text{CuO})_n$ ,  $n=1-8$  clusters are shown in Table 3.4. The fragmentation energy of  $\text{Cu}_6\text{O}_6$  cluster (dissociation to  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5 + \text{CuO}$ ) is the lowest value (56.59 kcal/mol), which we would like to emphasize as the most favorable pathway to break the cluster. The fragmentation products of all copper oxide

clusters contain a CuO cluster, except those of Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, which fragments into Cu<sub>5</sub>O<sub>5</sub>+Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

Table 3.4: Fragmentation channels of (CuO)<sub>n</sub> clusters with n=1-8

$E_{n+m} \rightarrow E_n + E_m$	kcal/mol
(CuO) <sub>2</sub> →CuO+CuO	57.91
(CuO) <sub>3</sub> →Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> +CuO	75.90
(CuO) <sub>4</sub> →Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> +CuO	75.56
→Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> +Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	93.55
(CuO) <sub>5</sub> →Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> +CuO	81.07
→Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> +Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	98.72
(CuO) <sub>6</sub> →Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> +CuO	56.59
→Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> +Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	79.74
→Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> +Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	79.41
(CuO) <sub>7</sub> →Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> +CuO	77.40
→Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> +Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	76.07
→Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> +Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	81.25
(CuO) <sub>8</sub> →Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub> +CuO	59.27
→Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> +Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	78.76
→Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> +Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	59.45
→Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> +Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	64.96

### 3.2.5 Löwdin Charge Distributions

The calculations of Löwdin charge distributions<sup>99</sup> of copper oxide clusters are shown in Table 3.5.

From Löwdin charges one gets useful information about the amount of charge transfer between Cu and O in an oxide. Average Löwdin charges of the Cu atoms are 0.24 |e| for CuO, 0.26 |e| for Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, 0.23 |e| for Cu<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, 0.17 |e| for Cu<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, 0.18 |e| for Cu<sub>5</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, 0.20 |e| for Cu<sub>6</sub>O<sub>6</sub>, 0.15 |e| for Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, and 0.15 |e| for Cu<sub>8</sub>O<sub>8</sub> in neutral clusters. Average Löwdin charges of the O atoms are -0.24 |e| for CuO, -0.26 |e| for Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, -0.23 |e| for Cu<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, -0.17 |e| for Cu<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, -0.19 |e| for Cu<sub>5</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, -0.17 |e| for Cu<sub>6</sub>O<sub>6</sub>, -0.14 |e| for Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, and -0.15 |e| for Cu<sub>8</sub>O<sub>8</sub> in neutral clusters.



Table 3.5: Löwdin charges of copper and oxygen atoms in  $(\text{CuO})_n$  ( $n=1-8$ )

Clusters		qCu (atom number)			qO (atom number)		
CuO	CuO	0.24(1)			-0.24(2)		
	CuO <sup>+</sup>	0.95(1)			0.05(2)		
	CuO <sup>-</sup>	-0.53(1)			-0.47(2)		
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	0.26(1)	0.25(2)		-0.26(3)	-0.26(4)	
	Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0.60(1)	0.60(2)		-0.10(3)	-0.10(4)	
	Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	-0.10(1)	-0.10(2)		-0.40(3)	-0.40(4)	
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.19(1)	0.30(2)	0.19(3)	-0.23(4)	-0.23(5)	-0.22(6)
	Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0.46(1)	0.46(2)	0.51(3)	-0.14(4)	-0.20(5)	-0.10(6)
	Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.04(1)	0.03(2)	-0.03(3)	-0.35(4)	-0.36(5)	-0.34(6)
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	0.23(1)	0.12(2)		-0.27(5)	-0.27(6)	
		0.08(3)	0.24(4)		-0.07(7)	-0.05(8)	
	Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0.42(1)	0.29(2)		-0.18(5)	-0.20(6)	
		0.25(3)	0.40(4)		0.01(7)	0.004(8)	
		0.06(1)	0.07(2)		-0.28(5)	-0.36(6)	
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.09(3)	0.10(4)		-0.32(7)	-0.36(8)		
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.24(1)	0.23(2)	0.12(3)	-0.28(6)	-0.26(7)	-0.07(8)
		0.12(4)	0.20(5)		-0.07(9)	-0.26(10)	
	Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0.39(1)	0.39(2)	0.25(3)	-0.16(6)	-0.25(7)	0.008(8)
		0.25(4)	0.37(5)		0.009(9)	-0.25(10)	
		0.05(1)	0.05(2)	0.02(3)	-0.27(6)	-0.34(7)	-0.10(8)
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.02(4)	0.02(5)		-0.10(9)	-0.34(10)		
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	0.14(1)	0.15(2)	0.15(3)	-0.12(7)	-0.13(8)	-0.25(9)
		0.14(4)	0.15(5)	0.27(6)	-0.13(10)	-0.12(11)	-0.25(12)
	Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0.25(1)	0.23(2)	0.23(3)	-0.05(7)	-0.04(8)	-0.24(9)
		0.25(4)	0.40(5)	0.32(6)	-0.05(10)	-0.05(11)	-0.24(12)
		0.03(1)	0.03(2)	0.03(3)	-0.17(7)	-0.17(8)	-0.33(9)
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.03(4)	0.007(5)	0.20(6)	-0.17(10)	-0.17(11)	-0.32(12)	
Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub>	Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub>	0.15(1)	0.15(2)	0.16(3)	-0.06(8)	-0.06(9)	-0.26(10)
		0.16(4)	-0.07(5)		-0.24(11)	-0.06(12)	
		0.24(6)	0.24(7)		-0.06(13)	-0.26(14)	
	Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.12(1)	0.12(2)	0.15(3)	-0.13(8)	-0.13(9)	-0.27(10)
		0.14(4)	-0.16(5)		-0.31(11)	-0.14(12)	
		0.006(6)	0.009(7)		-0.13(13)	-0.27(14)	
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	0.16(1)	0.16(2)	0.13(3)	-0.13(9)	-0.14(10)	-0.26(11)
		0.13(4)	0.27(5)	0.013(6)	-0.06(12)	-0.06(13)	-0.26(14)
		0.15(7)	0.15(8)		-0.13(15)	-0.13(16)	
	Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0.24(1)	0.24(2)	0.24(3)	-0.05(9)	-0.07(10)	-0.25(11)
		0.23(4)	0.44(5)	-0.04(6)	-0.03(12)	-0.03(13)	-0.25(14)
		0.22(7)	0.22(8)		-0.07(15)	-0.05(16)	
	Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.09(1)	0.04(2)	0.05(3)	-0.16(9)	-0.22(10)	-0.26(11)
		0.002(4)	0.06(5)	0.01(6)	-0.12(12)	-0.12(13)	-0.26(14)
		0.14(7)	0.13(8)		-0.16(15)	-0.16(16)	

### 3.3 Conclusions

The electronic and structural properties of small copper oxide clusters have been studied using density functional theory and several basis sets. Comparison with existing experimental work demonstrated that the LANL2DZ basis set is in best agreement and therefore was used to study  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  with  $n=1-8$  clusters. A transition from planar to nonplanar geometries occurs at  $n=4$ , though the negatively charged  $\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$  cluster is planar. Atomization energies and second difference energies demonstrate that  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$  cluster has the highest stability. We find that odd numbered copper oxide clusters have higher stabilities than even numbered copper oxide clusters, which can be explained in two ways. First, the Cu-O-Cu angles are relatively close to tetrahedral values and correlate reasonably well with second difference energy.

Second, we have investigated that the stability of copper oxide clusters is discussed in term of the ring size effect. The even numbered clusters have small rings (3- and 4-membered). These small rings lead to ring strain and a loss of stability. On the contrary, the odd numbered clusters have large rings (6- and 7-membered). Therefore, we expect that odd numbered copper oxide clusters ( $\text{Cu}_9\text{O}_9$ ,  $\text{Cu}_{11}\text{O}_{11}$ ...) will be most stable.

Ionization potentials have some oscillations with cluster size, as these are typical for clusters. The lowest fragmentation energy of  $\text{Cu}_6\text{O}_6$  cluster (dissociation to  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5 + \text{CuO}$ ) is, we would like to emphasize, the most favorable pathway to break the cluster. We also expect that bigger copper oxide clusters than  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$  cluster would dissociate to contain a CuO cluster as small copper oxide clusters. (From CuO to  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$  clusters)

# CHAPTER 4

## COMPUTATIONAL STUDIES OF REACTIONS OF PHENOL AND CHLORINATED PHENOLS WITH COPPER OXIDE CLUSTERS

We already performed *ab initio* Monte Carlo simulated annealing simulations and density functional theory calculations to study the structures and stabilities of copper oxide clusters,  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  ( $n=1-8$ ). We determined the lowest energy structures of neutral, positively and negatively charged copper oxide clusters using the GAMESS<sup>117</sup> quantum chemistry package. We used the B3LYP (Becke's 3-parameter exchange functional with Lee-Yang-Parr correlation energy functional)<sup>107,113,114</sup> version of DFT with LANL2DZ basis set. The geometries were found to undergo a structural change from two dimensional to three dimensional when  $n = 4$  in neutral copper oxide clusters. In this chapter, we have analyzed the interactions between neutral copper oxide clusters and organic compounds (phenol, *ortho*-chlorophenol and *para*-chlorophenol) for geometric parameters, thermodynamic properties, reaction pathway, adsorption energies and Löwdin charge distributions.

### 4.1 Method

#### 4.1.1 DFT Calculations

It is known that phenols adsorb on the copper oxide surfaces through  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  elimination at surface oxide and hydroxyl sites resulting in surface phenolate formation.<sup>135-139</sup>

Therefore, our calculations include two types of reactions. First, each copper oxide cluster is reacted with a water molecule. Second, the hydrogenated clusters are reacted with the organic compounds phenol, *ortho*-chlorophenol and *para*-chlorophenol.

The reaction enthalpies were calculated according to the following procedure: (1) the total electronic energies for the reactants and the products were calculated, (2) these were corrected for zero-point energies to obtain a theoretical enthalpy at 0K, and (3) thermal corrections were applied to get the reaction enthalpy at 298.15K. The enthalpies,  $H$ , is the calculated sum of  $H_{\text{elec}}$ ,  $H_{\text{trans}}$ ,  $H_{\text{rot}}$ , and  $H_{\text{vib}}$  and the Gibbs free energies are the calculated sum of  $G_{\text{elec}}$ ,  $G_{\text{trans}}$ ,  $G_{\text{rot}}$ , and  $G_{\text{vib}}$ . In water molecule reactions, we need to consider possible reaction sites to find the lowest energy structures. From CuO to Cu<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub> clusters, we have found just one possible reaction site. However, from Cu<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub> clusters, we need to consider three or four possible reaction sites. Actually, we have checked all energies and structures after reaction with water molecule following possible reaction sites. Fig 4.1-7 show the lowest structures [(2), (7), (12), (17), (22), (27), (32) clusters] of each cluster with water molecule reaction.

In phenol and *para*-chlorophenol reactions, we have started two possible initial geometries to change dihedral angle (Cu-O\*-C-C, the asterisk denotes the atom of the adsorption site on the copper oxide clusters) 0 and 90 degrees. In *ortho*-chlorophenol reaction, we have started four possible initial geometries to change dihedral angle (Cu-O\*-C-C) 0, 90, 180 and 270 degrees. Therefore we can find the global energy structure of each molecule with organic compound reactions. Then we confirm the lowest energy using PES with single point energy calculation. Figure 4.1 shows this PES calculation with Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub>-Phenol cluster reaction. Thus we confirm that the dihedral angle of the lowest energy structure of Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub>-phenol cluster is 0 degree or 180 degrees.

Figure 4.2-8 show the lowest structures [(3), (4), (5), (8), (9), (10), (13), (14), (15),

(18), (19), (20), (23), (24), (25), (28), (29), (30), (33), (34), (35) clusters] of each cluster with organic compound reactions.

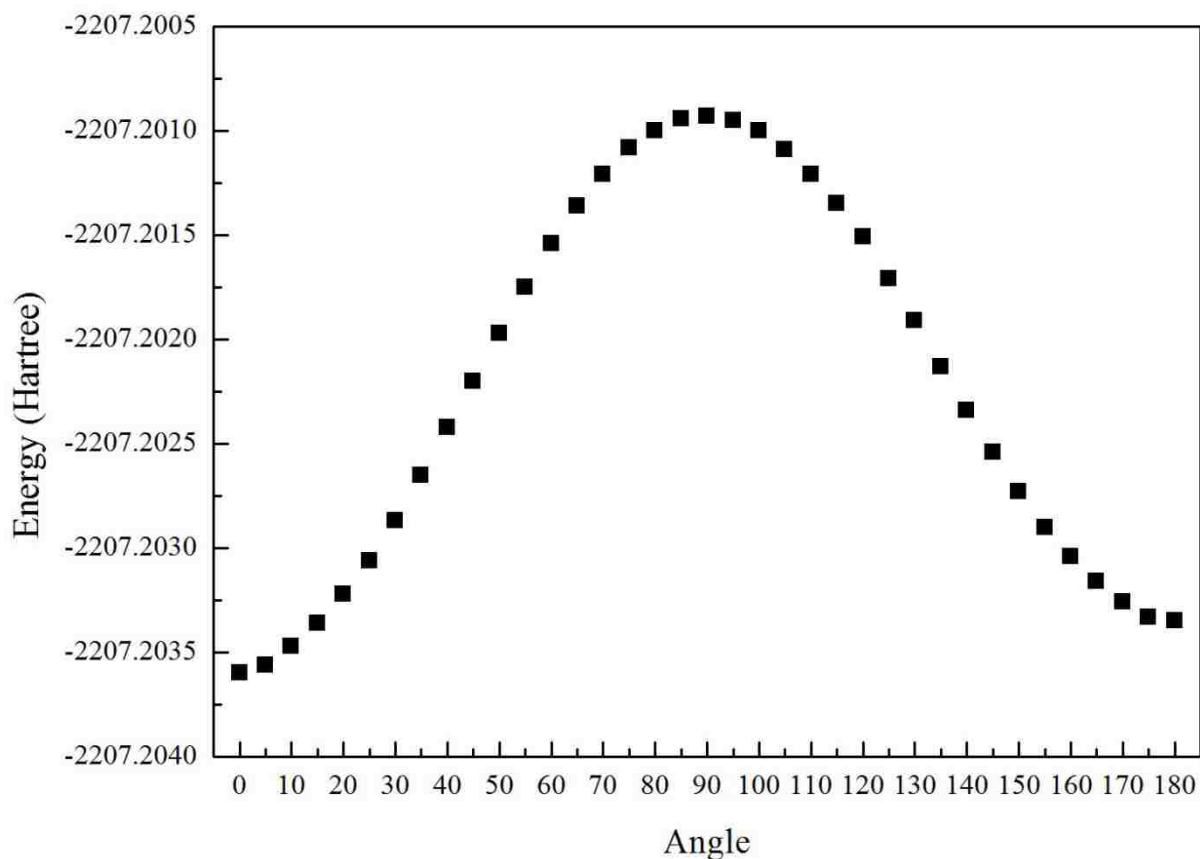


Figure 4.1: PES calculation with  $\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7$ -phenol reaction

## 4.2 Results

### 4.2.1 Geometric Structures

We already studied neutral, positively and negatively charged copper oxide clusters. Figure 3.2 shows the lowest energy structures of neutral copper oxide clusters from  $\text{CuO}$  to  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$ .

Table 4.1: Average bond lengths of water, organic compounds and copper oxide-organic compounds clusters

Clusters	Avg. Bond lengths						
	Cu-O	O-H	O-O	C-C	C-O	C-H	C-Cl
H <sub>2</sub> O		0.98					
Phenol		0.98		1.41	1.40	1.09	
<i>ortho</i> -chlorophenol		0.98		1.41	1.39	1.09	1.81
<i>para</i> -chlorophenol		0.98		1.41	1.40	1.09	1.82
CuO	(1)	1.81					
	(2)	1.77	0.98				
	(3)	1.79	0.98		1.41	1.35	1.09
	(4)	1.79	0.97		1.41	1.34	1.09
	(5)	1.79	0.97		1.41	1.35	1.09
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	(6)	1.86					
	(7)	1.77	0.98				
	(8)	1.78	0.99		1.41	1.35	1.09
	(9)	1.78	0.99		1.41	1.34	1.09
	(10)	1.79	0.97		1.41	1.34	1.08
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	(11)	1.90					
	(12)	1.75	0.98				
	(13)	1.77	0.98		1.42	1.34	1.09
	(14)	1.77	0.98		1.41	1.33	1.09
	(15)	1.77	0.98		1.41	1.34	1.08
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	(16)	1.94		1.40			
	(17)	1.86	0.98	1.40			
	(18)	1.86	0.97	1.40	1.41	1.35	1.09
	(19)	1.86	0.97	1.40	1.41	1.34	1.09
	(20)	1.86	0.97	1.40	1.41	1.35	1.09
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	(21)	1.88		1.40			
	(22)	1.89	0.98	1.40			
	(23)	1.93	0.97	1.40	1.41	1.35	1.09
	(24)	1.92	0.97	1.40	1.41	1.35	1.08
	(25)	1.92	0.97	1.40	1.41	1.35	1.08
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	(26)	1.96		1.52			
	(27)	1.94	0.98	1.56			
	(28)	1.95	0.98	1.57	1.41	1.39	1.09
	(29)	1.96	0.98	1.57	1.41	1.37	1.09
	(30)	1.95	0.98	1.57	1.41	1.39	1.09
Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub>	(31)	1.93		1.40			
	(32)	1.94	1.13	1.40			
	(33)	1.95	1.21	1.40	1.40	1.40	1.08
	(34)	1.95	1.07	1.40	1.40	1.38	1.08
	(35)	1.94	1.22	1.40	1.40	1.39	1.08
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	(36)	1.97		1.50			
	(37)	1.95	1.13	1.50			
	(38)	1.95	1.07	1.50	1.41	1.39	1.09
	(39)	1.95	1.05	1.50	1.41	1.37	1.09
	(40)	1.95	1.06	1.50	1.41	1.39	1.09

The geometries of copper oxide clusters are found to undergo a structure change from two dimensional to three dimensional when  $n=4$  in neutral copper oxide clusters. After the water reaction, the geometries of copper oxide clusters for CuO, Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and Cu<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub> clusters are changed to linear or near linear clusters and three dimensional structure Cu<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub> cluster is changed to near planar structure. From Cu<sub>5</sub>O<sub>5</sub> to Cu<sub>8</sub>O<sub>8</sub> clusters still have three dimensional structures after the water reaction.

The calculation results of average bond lengths (O-H, O-O, C-C, C-O, C-H and C-Cl) are for copper oxide clusters, copper oxide-water clusters and copper oxide-organic compounds clusters shown Table 4.1. Average Cu-O bond lengths of copper oxide clusters, CuO, Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, Cu<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, Cu<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Cu<sub>6</sub>O<sub>6</sub>, are decreased after the water reaction. Average Cu-O bond lengths of Cu<sub>5</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and Cu<sub>6</sub>O<sub>6</sub> clusters are slightly increased from 1.88 to 1.89 and 1.93 to 1.94, respectively. It is interesting that Cu<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub> cluster has the biggest gap of average Cu-O bond length, from 1.90 to 1.75 after the water reaction. After organic compounds reactions, average Cu-O bond lengths of all copper oxide cluster-organic compounds clusters are slightly longer than those of copper oxide-water clusters.

Table 4.2 shows the energy, H, and G. With careful analysis of the table, the obvious correlation of energy and the position of chlorine substitute in copper oxide cluster reveal that *para* position copper oxide chlorophenols are more stable from CuO to Cu<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub> clusters than *ortho* position copper oxide chlorophenols.

The correlation of  $H^0$  can be the same with energy. *Para* position copper oxide chlorophenol clusters have smaller values (from CuO to Cu<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub> clusters).

Gibbs energies are a little bit different than energies and enthalpies. The Gibbs energy value of *ortho* position Cu<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub> chlorophenol cluster is smaller than that of *para* position.

Table 4.2: The spin states, energies, enthalpies and Gibbs free energies of copper oxide-organic compounds complexes

Clusters	Spin State	Energy(eV)	$H^0$ (eV)	$G^0$ (eV)	
CuO	(1)	doublet	-7382.21	-7382.11	-7382.83
	(2)	doublet	-9463.41	-9463.25	-9464.16
	(3)	doublet	-15747.71	-15747.45	-15748.69
	(4)	doublet	-16138.01	-16137.72	-16139.01
	(5)	doublet	-16138.09	-16137.81	-16139.08
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	(6)	singlet	-14766.92	-14766.76	-14767.73
	(7)	triplet	-16848.28	-16848.04	-16849.20
	(8)	triplet	-23132.54	-23132.20	-23133.67
	(9)	triplet	-23522.84	-23522.45	-23524.02
	(10)	triplet	-23522.94	-23522.55	-23524.13
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	(11)	quartet	-22152.42	-22152.16	-22153.43
	(12)	quartet	-24233.03	-24232.71	-24234.15
	(13)	quartet	-30517.33	-30516.89	-30518.66
	(14)	quartet	-30907.63	-30907.15	-30909.08
	(15)	quartet	-30907.72	-30907.27	-30909.05
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	(16)	triplet	-29537.90	-29537.58	-29538.99
	(17)	triplet	-31618.96	-31618.57	-31620.14
	(18)	triplet	-37903.41	-37902.91	-37904.76
	(19)	triplet	-38293.70	-38293.17	-38295.12
	(20)	triplet	-38293.80	-38293.27	-38295.22
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	(21)	quartet	-36923.62	-36923.22	-36924.84
	(22)	quartet	-39003.95	-39003.49	-39005.21
	(23)	quartet	-45288.03	-45287.46	-45289.46
	(24)	quartet	-45678.52	-45677.90	-45680.00
	(25)	quartet	-45678.44	-45677.82	-45679.93
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	(26)	triplet	-44308.28	-44307.84	-44309.48
	(27)	triplet	-46388.64	-46388.14	-46389.90
	(28)	triplet	-52672.57	-52671.94	-52674.04
	(29)	triplet	-53063.14	-53062.48	-53064.60
	(30)	triplet	-53062.95	-53062.28	-53064.44
Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub>	(31)	quartet	-51693.84	-51693.29	-51695.22
	(32)	quartet	-53773.83	-53773.23	-53775.28
	(33)	quartet	-60057.68	-60056.95	-60059.33
	(34)	quartet	-60447.96	-60447.19	-60449.65
	(35)	quartet	-60448.09	-60447.32	-60449.7
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	(36)	triplet	-59078.62	-59078.02	-59079.99
	(37)	triplet	-61159.04	-61158.39	-61160.49
	(38)	triplet	-67442.83	-67442.05	-67444.48
	(39)	triplet	-67833.30	-67832.47	-67835.01
	(40)	triplet	-67833.22	-67832.39	-67834.93



## 4.2.2 Energetic Properties and Löwdin Charge Distributions

The changes of energies, enthalpies, and Gibbs energies of reactions between copper oxide clusters and water are shown in Figure 4.2-4.9. The changes of energies, enthalpies, and Gibbs energies of reactions between copper oxide-water clusters and phenol and chlorinated phenols are also shown in Figure 4.2-4.9. Copper oxide clusters ( $\text{CuO}$ ,  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$ , and  $\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7$ ) with *para*-chlorophenol are more stable than those with *ortho*-chlorophenol.

We have investigated the adsorption energies (AEs) to display the characteristics of the energetic interactions among copper oxide clusters and organic compounds (phenol, *ortho*-chlorophenol and *para*-chlorophenol). The calculation formula is as follows:

$$E_b = E(\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n - \text{Organic Compounds}) - (E(\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n) + E(\text{Organic Compounds})) \quad (1)$$

Table 4.3 shows that adsorption energies of copper oxide clusters (from  $\text{CuO}$  to  $\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7$ ) with *ortho*-chlorophenol are higher than phenol and *para*-chlorophenol. Adsorption energies of  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$  and  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$  clusters are almost same comparing phenol and chlorinated phenols.  $\text{Cu}_6\text{O}_6$  cluster with *para*-chlorophenol has higher adsorption energy than phenol and *ortho*-chlorophenol. It is well known *ortho*-chlorophenol is more stable than *para*-chlorophenol because hydrogen bonding stabilization plays an important role. As well as inductive, electrostatic repulsion, and steric effect can explain why *ortho*-chlorophenol is more stable.

Therefore, we can explain why adsorption energies of copper oxide clusters with *ortho*-chlorophenol are higher than phenol and *para*-chlorophenol because H atom of OH group of *ortho*-chlorophenol is displaced to copper oxide cluster.  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$  cluster can be explained that there is hydrogen bonding between Cl atom of *ortho*-chlorophenol and hydrogen. It is

interesting that Cu<sub>6</sub>O<sub>6</sub> and Cu<sub>8</sub>O<sub>8</sub> clusters have weak Cu-Cl bond (2.72Å and 2.93Å). These bonds can make stabilization of copper oxide clusters with *ortho*-chlorophenol.

From these results, we can conclude that the Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub> cluster has energetically preferred adsorption with *ortho*-chlorophenol. Cu<sub>7</sub>O<sub>7</sub> cluster-phenol has the highest adsorption energy (-23.06eV).

Table 4.3: Adsorption energies (kcal/mol) in copper oxide-organic compounds clusters

Clusters	Adsorption Energies(kcal/mol)
CuO – Phenol	-64.94
CuO - <i>ortho</i> -chlorophenol	-61.79
CuO - <i>para</i> -chlorophenol	-64.75
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> – Phenol	-67.54
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> - <i>ortho</i> -chlorophenol	-64.42
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> - <i>para</i> -chlorophenol	-67.72
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> – Phenol	-51.14
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> - <i>ortho</i> -chlorophenol	-48.26
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub> - <i>para</i> -chlorophenol	-51.37
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> – Phenol	-64.85
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> - <i>ortho</i> -chlorophenol	-61.81
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> - <i>para</i> -chlorophenol	-65.16
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> – Phenol	-39.58
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> - <i>ortho</i> -chlorophenol	-40.89
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub> - <i>para</i> -chlorophenol	-40.07
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> – Phenol	-36.93
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> - <i>ortho</i> -chlorophenol	-40.02
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub> - <i>para</i> -chlorophenol	-36.63
Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub> – Phenol	-26.52
Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub> - <i>ortho</i> -chlorophenol	-23.06
Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub> - <i>para</i> -chlorophenol	-27.03
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub> – Phenol	-35.17
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub> - <i>ortho</i> -chlorophenol	-35.92
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub> - <i>para</i> -chlorophenol	-35.10

The results of this study have some implications of formation of PCDD/Fs from chlorinated phenols. First, small copper oxide clusters (from CuO-Cu<sub>4</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) show clearly a significant role for an adsorption between *ortho*-chlorophenol and copper oxide clusters from adsorption energies. Second, big copper oxide clusters (from Cu<sub>5</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and Cu<sub>8</sub>O<sub>8</sub>) are more

complicate to explain the correlations between copper oxide clusters and chlorides. However, it is clearly found that phenol and chlorinated phenols can easily make adsorption as increasing clusters size.

We have displayed the Löwdin charge,  $q$  (given in units of  $|e|$ ) distributions<sup>99</sup> of copper oxide clusters, copper oxide-water clusters and copper oxide-organic compound clusters. Table 4.4 shows the charges of average copper, oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, chlorine, adsorption site oxygen and carbon. We also calculated the charges of neutral copper oxide clusters. (Table 3.5).

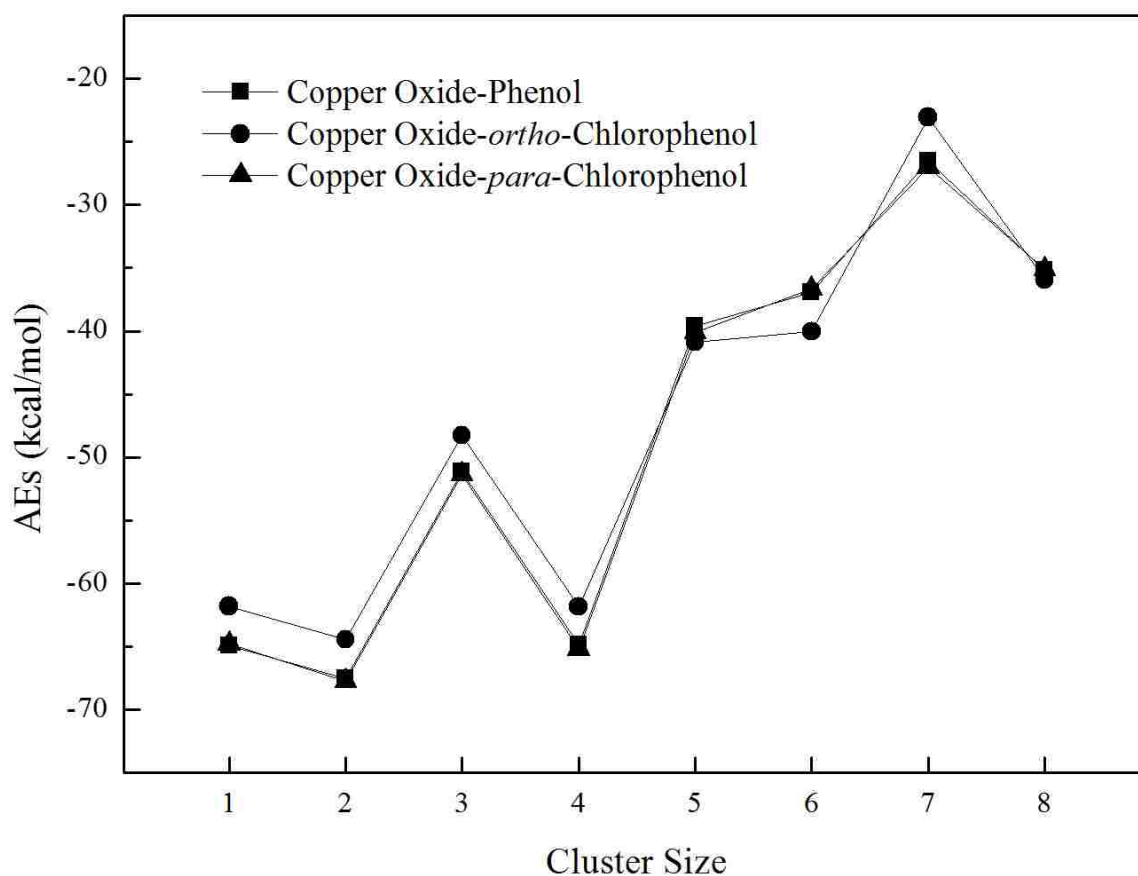


Figure 4.2: Adsorption energies (kcal/mol) in copper oxide-organic compounds clusters

Table 4.4: Average Lowdin charge distributions of copper oxide clusters, copper oxide-water clusters and copper oxide-organic compounds clusters

Clusters	Avg. Charge Distribution							
	qCu	qO	qH	qC	qCl	qO*	qC*	
H <sub>2</sub> O		-0.58	0.29					
Phenol		-0.36	0.17	-0.11				
ortho-Chlorophenol		-0.34	0.18	-0.12	0.12			
para-Chlorophenol		-0.35	0.19	-0.11	0.088			
CuO	(1)	0.24	-0.24					
	(2)	0.23	-0.43	0.31				
	(3)	0.13	-0.34	0.18	-0.086		-0.235	0.122
	(4)	0.16	-0.34	0.19	-0.093	0.16	-0.244	0.133
	(5)	0.16	-0.35	0.19	-0.090	0.12	-0.249	0.123
Cu <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	(6)	0.26	-0.26					
	(7)	0.25	-0.37	0.31				
	(8)	0.19	-0.32	0.18	-0.084		-0.231	0.125
	(9)	0.20	-0.31	0.19	-0.092	0.16	-0.232	0.113
	(10)	0.20	-0.32	0.19	-0.089	0.12	-0.237	0.125
Cu <sub>3</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	(11)	0.23	-0.23					
	(12)	0.25	-0.34	0.31				
	(13)	0.21	-0.31	0.18	-0.083		-0.241	0.129
	(14)	0.22	-0.30	0.19	-0.091	0.16	-0.243	0.118
	(15)	0.22	-0.30	0.19	-0.088	0.12	-0.247	0.129
Cu <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	(16)	0.17	-0.17					
	(17)	0.10	-0.25	0.32				
	(18)	0.12	-0.21	0.19	-0.085		-0.235	0.122
	(19)	0.13	-0.21	0.19	-0.093	0.15	-0.239	0.114
	(20)	0.12	-0.21	0.20	-0.090	0.12	-0.240	0.123
Cu <sub>5</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	(21)	0.18	-0.19					
	(22)	0.18	-0.26	0.32				
	(23)	0.16	-0.23	0.18	-0.091		-0.260	0.118
	(24)	0.17	-0.23	0.19	-0.099	0.22	-0.283	0.104
	(25)	0.18	-0.23	0.19	-0.096	0.10	-0.272	0.123
Cu <sub>6</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	(26)	0.17	-0.17					
	(27)	0.17	-0.24	0.32				
	(28)	0.16	-0.21	0.18	-0.089		-0.268	0.138
	(29)	0.14	-0.21	0.19	-0.090	0.26	-0.282	0.130
	(30)	0.16	-0.21	0.20	-0.092	0.10	-0.274	0.140
Cu <sub>7</sub> O <sub>7</sub>	(31)	0.15	-0.14					
	(32)	0.11	-0.19	0.37				
	(33)	0.12	-0.18	0.20	-0.095		-0.348	0.128
	(34)	0.12	-0.17	0.20	-0.10	0.15	-0.358	0.115
	(35)	0.12	-0.20	0.21	-0.099	0.097	-0.354	0.128
Cu <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	(36)	0.15	-0.15					
	(37)	0.13	-0.20	0.37				
	(38)	0.13	-0.18	0.19	-0.10		-0.366	0.094
	(39)	0.12	-0.18	0.20	-0.10	0.22	-0.369	0.114
	(40)	0.13	-0.18	0.21	-0.10	0.087	-0.367	0.099

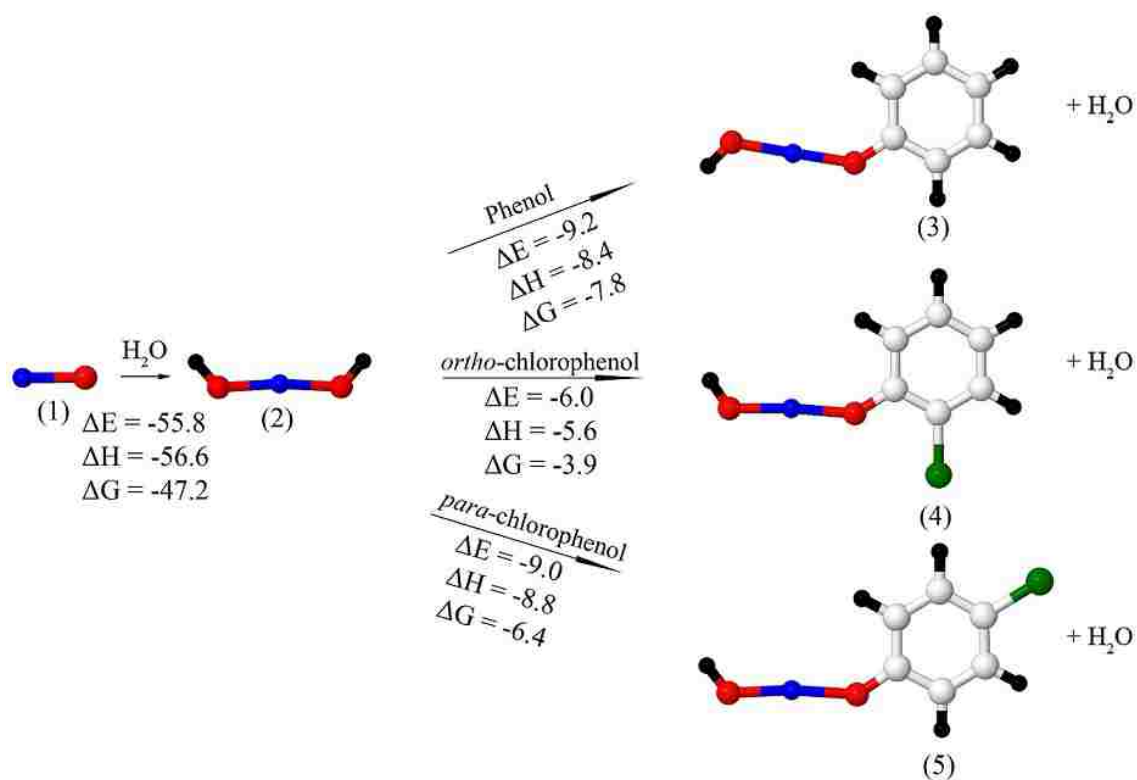


Figure 4.3: Reaction pathway of CuO cluster. Copper/oxygen/carbon/hydrogen/chlorine atoms are colored blue/red/white/black/green.

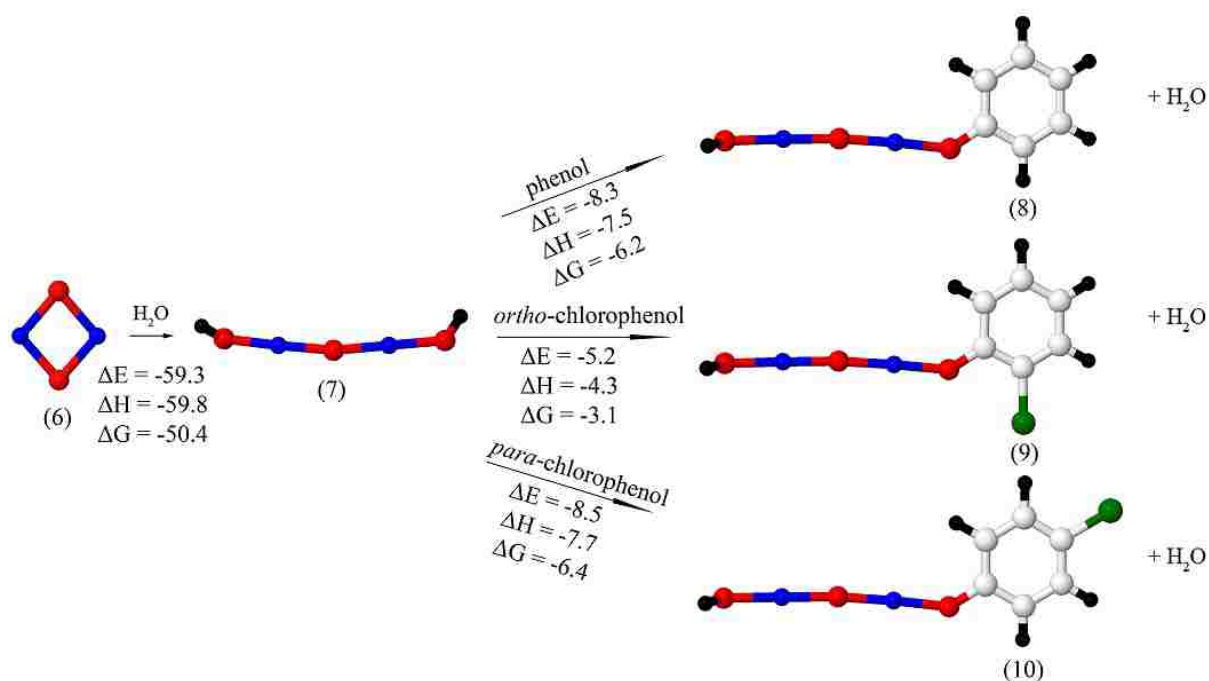


Figure 4.4: Reaction pathway of Cu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> cluster. Copper/oxygen/carbon/hydrogen/chlorine atoms are colored blue/red/white/black/green.

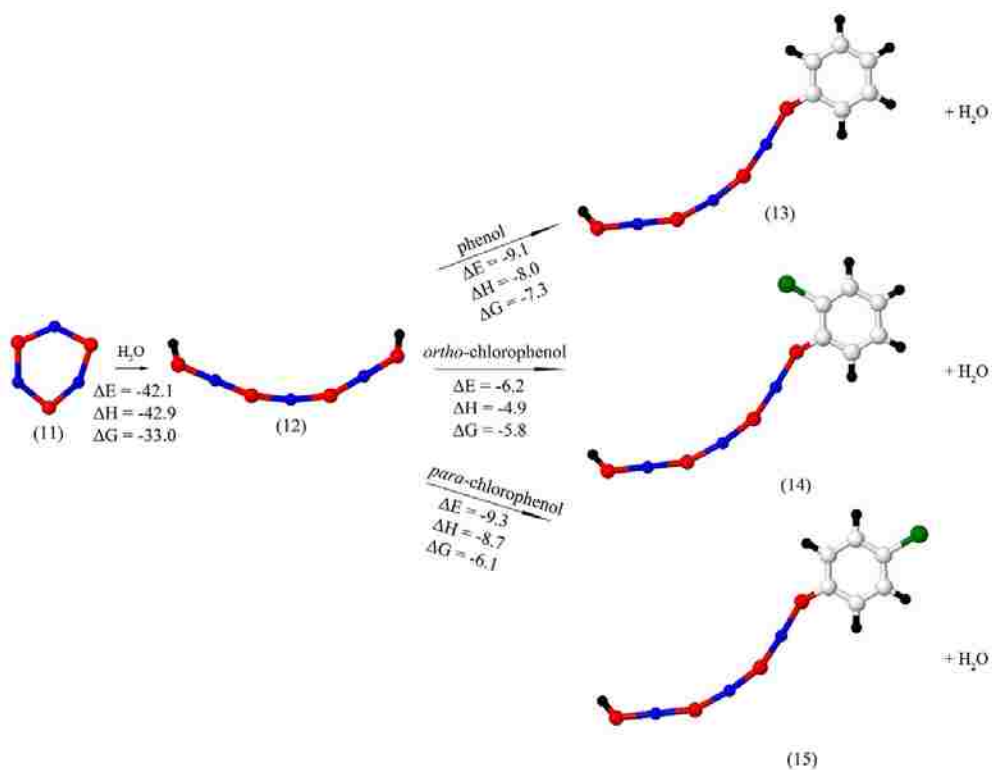


Figure 4.5 Reaction pathway of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$  cluster. Copper/oxygen/carbon/hydrogen/chlorine atoms are colored blue/red/white/black/green.

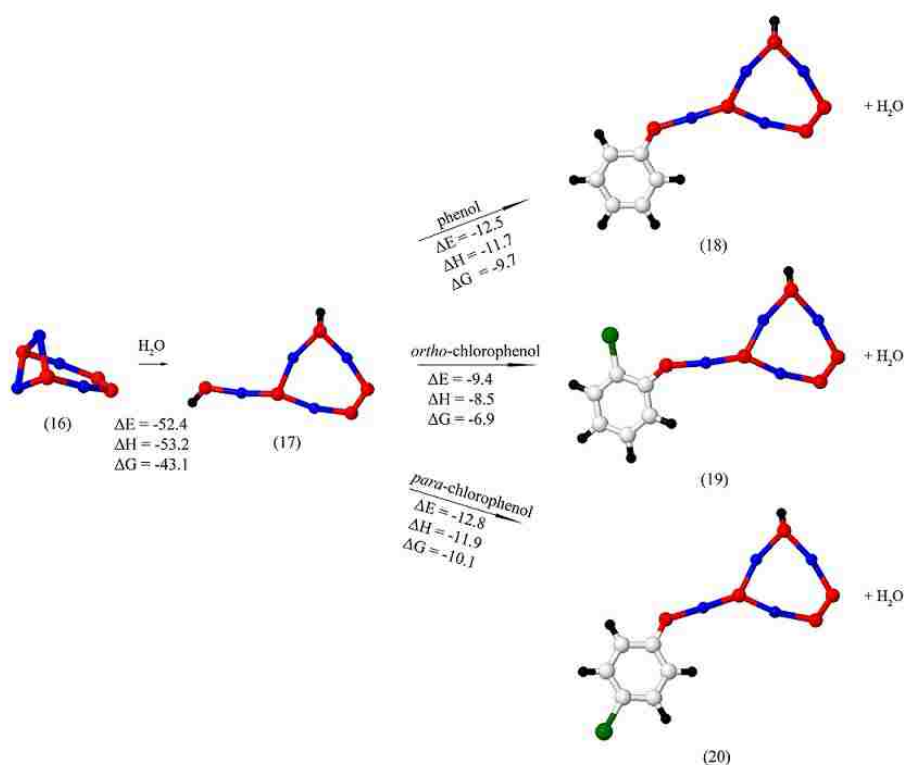


Figure 4.6: Reaction pathway of  $\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$  cluster. Copper/oxygen/carbon/hydrogen/chlorine atoms are colored blue/red/white/black/green.

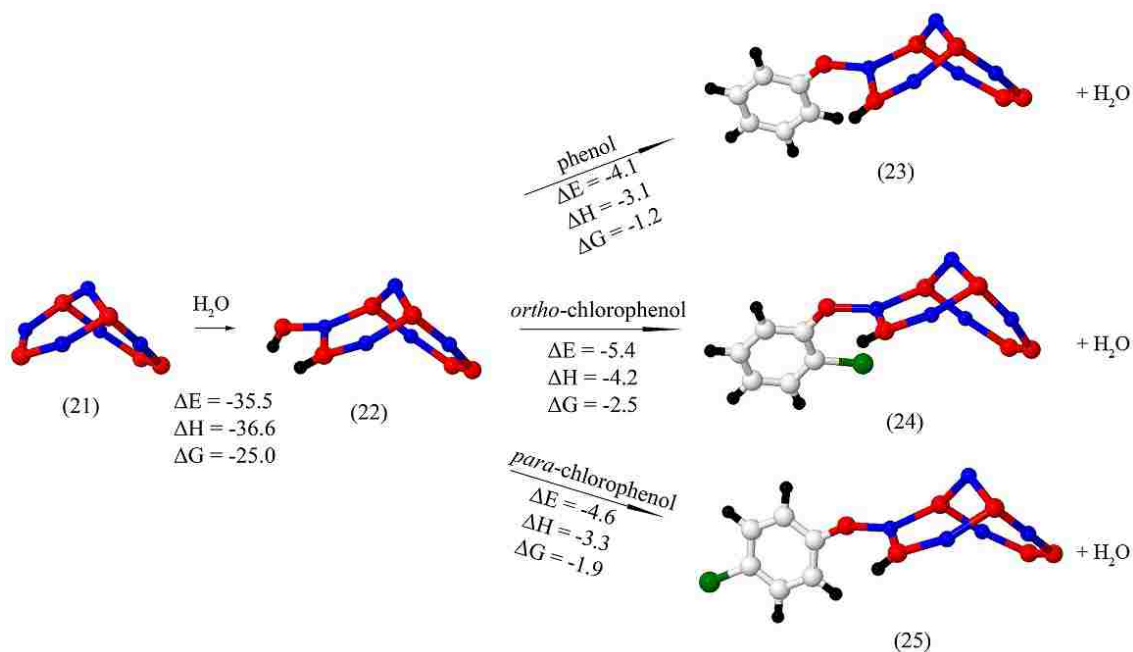


Figure 4.7: Reaction pathway of  $Cu_5O_5$  cluster. Copper/oxygen/carbon/hydrogen/chlorine atoms are colored blue/red/white/black/green.

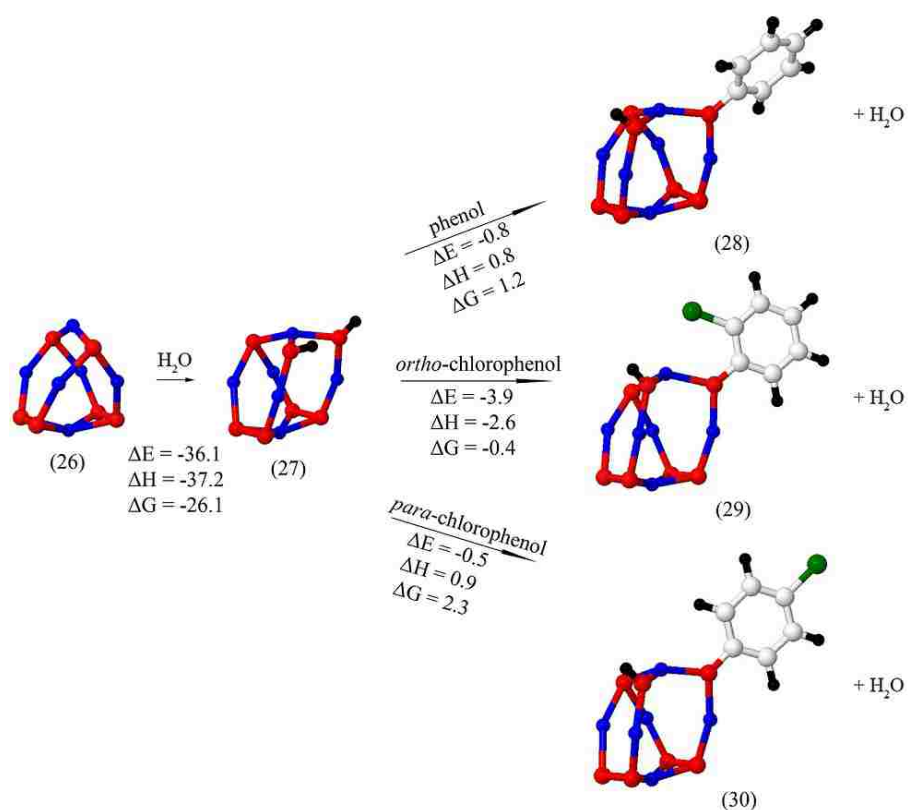


Figure 4.8: Reaction pathway of  $Cu_6O_6$  cluster. Copper/oxygen/carbon/hydrogen/chlorine atoms are colored blue/red/white/black/green.

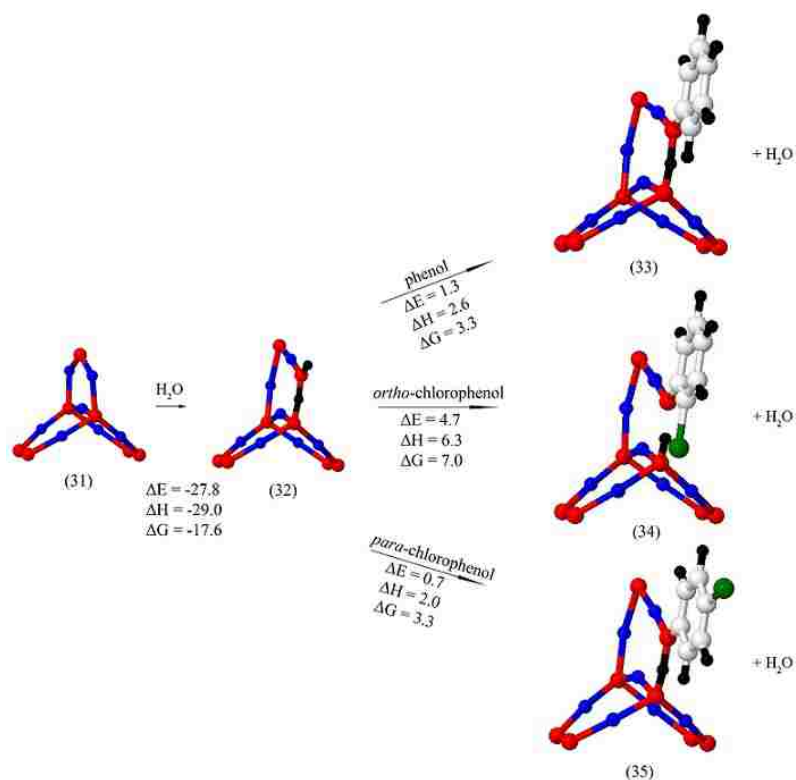


Figure 4.9: Reaction pathway of  $Cu_7O_7$  cluster. Copper/oxygen/carbon/hydrogen/chlorine atoms are colored blue/red/white/black/green.

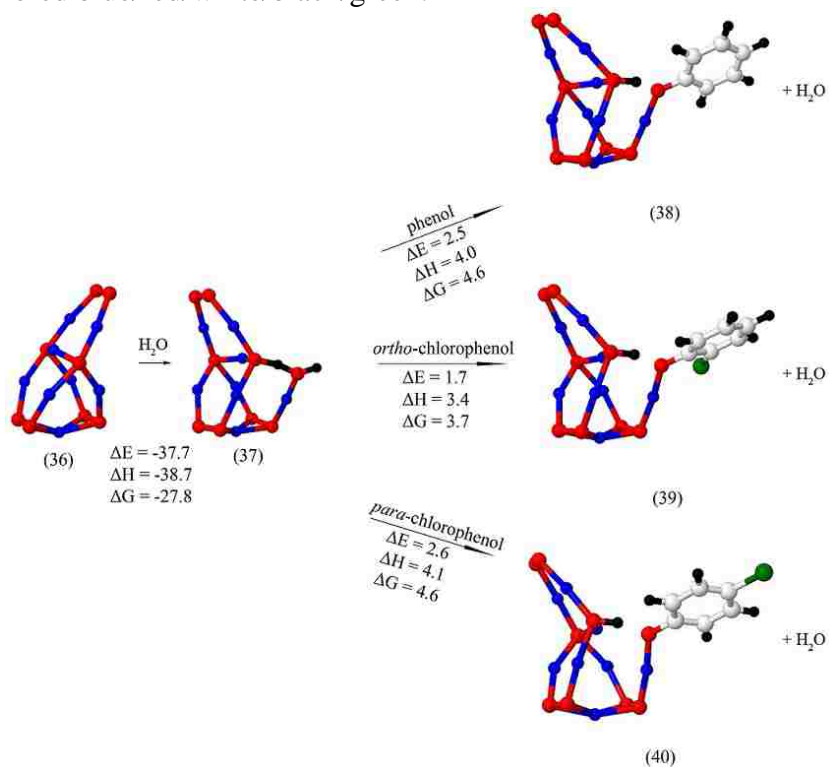


Figure 4.10: Reaction pathway of  $Cu_8O_8$  cluster. Copper/oxygen/carbon/hydrogen/chlorine atoms are colored blue/red/white/black/green.



From these charge transfers of adsorption site oxygen, we investigated the correlation between the reaction site and the charge distribution. We found that organic compounds are likely to bind to the copper atom with the largest charge. For example, largest positive charge copper atom (0.30) of three copper atoms in  $\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_3$  cluster was reacted the water molecule and would be structure (12).

Therefore, the charge transfer of the oxygen atom from the water molecule is explanation that the copper atoms ( $\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$ ,  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$ , and  $\text{Cu}_7\text{O}_7$  clusters) of reaction sites with the water molecule have large positive charges (0.24, 0.24, and 0.24 ).

The reaction sites of  $\text{Cu}_6\text{O}_6$  and  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$  clusters are not the copper atoms with the largest positive charge because they have a very stable square structure at the bottom of clusters. From these charge transfer of adsorption site oxygen, we investigated the correlation between the charge distribution and the adsorption energies. For instance, the Löwdin charge distributions of the adsorption site oxygens of copper oxide with phenol are -0.235, -0.231, -0.241, -0.235, -0.260, -0.268, -0.348 and -0.366 |e| and the adsorption energies of copper oxide with phenol are -64.94, -67.54, -51.14, -64.85, -39.58, -36.93, -26.52 and -35.17 kcal/mol that the charge distributions of adsorption site oxygen decrease which means there is negative charge transfer away from that site as adsorption energies decrease.

## 4.3 Conclusions

We have investigated the stabilities and reactivities of copper oxide clusters. Reactions of the previously optimized neutral  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  clusters with water and organic compounds (phenol, *ortho*-chlorophenol and *para*-chlorophenol) were studied using *ab initio* methods.

The energies, enthalpies, Gibbs free energies of copper oxide, copper oxide-water

and copper oxide-organic compounds clusters were calculated to investigate their reaction energetics. We also calculated bond lengths, adsorption energies and Löwdin charge distributions.

It is known that chlorinated phenols are structurally closely related to PCDD/Fs and thought as important for PCDD/Fs formation. We find that organic compounds (phenol and chlorinated phenols) are likely to bind to the copper atom with the largest charge. For  $\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$  to  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$  clusters, we can predict the reaction site from charge distributions of copper oxide clusters.

Our calculations of reaction energies indicate that generally *ortho*-chlorophenol binds less strongly to the surface of copper oxide clusters than phenol and *para*-chlorophenol, which can be explained in two ways. First, H atom of OH group of *ortho*-chlorophenol is displaced to copper oxide cluster. Second, weak Cu-Cl bonds can make stabilization of copper oxide clusters with *ortho*-chlorophenol. The results can help an understanding the mechanisms of the formation of PCDD/Fs from chlorinated phenols in the copper oxide clusters.

# CHAPTER 5

## CuO<sub>n</sub> (n=1-6) CLUSTERS

Chemical reactions and bonding of metal oxide clusters have been researched over the past thirty years due to their importance in the studies of combustion and health hazards. Especially, copper atoms and oxygen atoms are studied because of bioinorganic chemistry for dioxygen metabolism.<sup>140</sup>

Small clusters consisting of one copper atom and one oxygen atom atoms have been studied experimentally<sup>55-80</sup> and theoretically.<sup>68-75,79,86-94</sup> Recently, a theoretical study of CuO<sub>m</sub> (m=1-6) clusters was conducted using DFT calculation.<sup>94</sup> The purpose of our research is to understand the structural, energetic and electronic properties of neutral, positively and negatively charged copper oxide clusters. In neutral copper oxide clusters, we found similar geometries with Massobrio et al.<sup>94</sup> and the differences of total spin states of the most stable isomers. For instance, they concluded that the spin of the most stable isomers is quartet state when the number of oxygen atoms is odd, while it is doublet state when this number is even. They used DFT calculation with a plane-wave basis set and generalized gradient corrections. However, we found that CuO, CuO<sub>2</sub>, CuO<sub>4</sub> and CuO<sub>6</sub> clusters are most stable at doublet, quartet, quartet and quartet spin states, respectively.

In this chapter, we used *ab initio* simulations and calculations to study the structures and stabilities of copper oxide clusters, CuO<sub>n</sub> (n=1-6). The lowest energy structures of neutral and charged copper oxide clusters were determined using primarily the B3LYP/LANL2DZ model chemistry. All geometries of neutral, positively, and negatively charged CuO<sub>n</sub> clusters with n=1-6 are planar or near planar structures. Selected electronic

properties, including binding energies, ionization energies, and electron affinities, were calculated and examined as a function of  $n$ . Stabilities were examined by calculating fragmentation channels and Löwdin charge distributions.

## 5.1 Method

### 5.1.1 MC Simulation and DFT Calculation

We performed *ab initio* Monte Carlo simulation (using Gaussian 03<sup>112</sup> and homegrownscripts) to locate stable geometric structures for  $\text{CuO}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-6$ . The simulations used multiple starting geometries for each cluster size. The temperature was decreased from 2000K to 300K for up to 300MC steps.

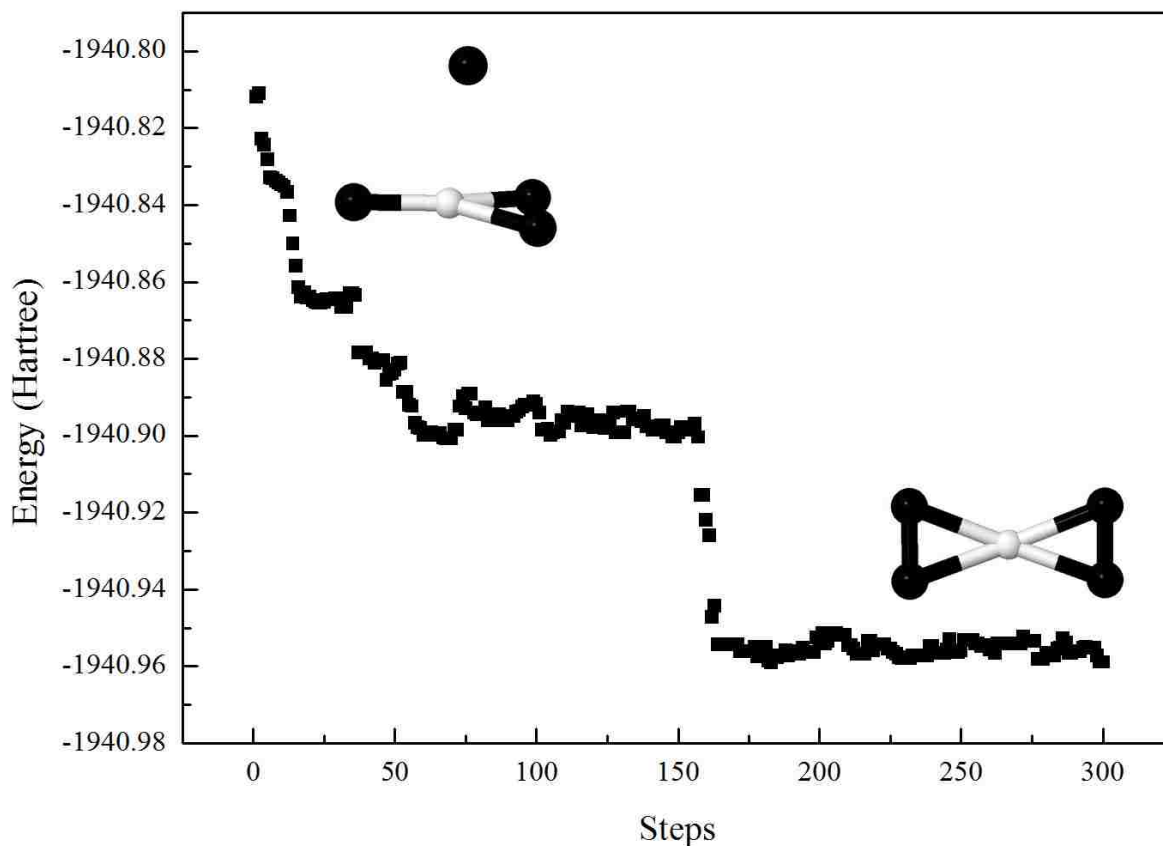


Figure 5.1: Monte Carlo simulation of  $\text{CuO}_4$  cluster. Copper/oxygen atoms are colored white/black.

To calculate the total energy at each MC step, we used Gaussian 03 program<sup>112</sup> with B3LYP (Becke's 3-parameter exchange functional with Lee-Yang-Parr correlation energy functional)<sup>107,113,114</sup> and 6-31G\*\* basis set<sup>115,116</sup> but all configurations of each MC step were not optimized. About 300 MC steps were needed to reach the equilibrium state. The Monte Carlo simulations of CuO<sub>4</sub> cluster are shown in Figure 5.1. We generate initial structure: O atom is attached optimized CuO<sub>3</sub> cluster. We performed 300 MC steps to find the local energy of CuO<sub>4</sub> cluster.

These geometries were optimized using standard *ab initio* methods using the GAMESS<sup>117</sup> quantum chemistry package. The smaller clusters were then used as starting points to look for the global minimum geometries for larger clusters where the Monte Carlo procedure was not practical. We used the B3LYP (Becke's 3-parameter exchange functional with Lee-Yang-Parr correlation energy functional)<sup>107,113,114</sup> version of DFT with LANL2DZ basis set.

## 5.2 Results

### 5.2.1 Geometric Structures

The optimized structures, bond lengths, angles and Löwdin charge distributions of neutral, positively and negatively charged CuO<sub>n</sub> clusters with n=1-6 are shown in Figure 5.1-3. The low-lying spin states (i.e., singlet, doublet, triplet, and quartet) of a given cluster were considered in the calculations.

In single copper oxides clusters, all neutral, positively and negatively charged optimized structures are planar or near planar. Theoretical values of Cu-O calculated with different methods, along with the experimental values, are also included for comparison in Table 5.2. Our calculated values of bond length (1.81Å), dissociation energy (2.44eV)

and electron affinity (1.35 eV) are in agreement with experimental data (1.72 Å, 2.79 eV and 1.78eV).<sup>80</sup> Massobrio et al.<sup>94</sup> found the most stable CuO cluster at quartet spin state; however, our result is that the doublet spin state CuO cluster is more stable than the quartet spin state CuO cluster.

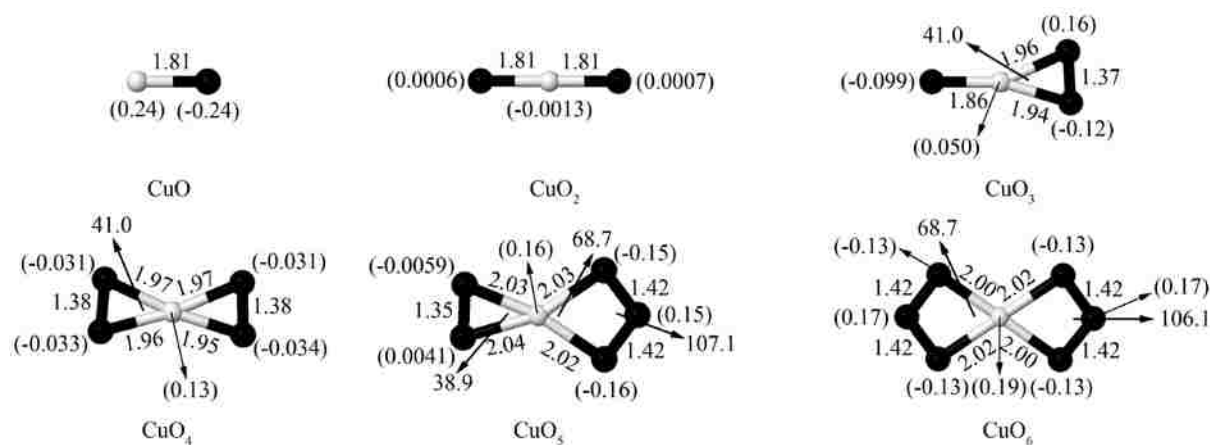


Figure 5.1: Optimized structures, bond lengths, angles and Löwdin charge distributions (parenthesis) of neutral CuO<sub>n</sub> clusters with n=1-6. Copper/oxygen atoms are colored white/black.

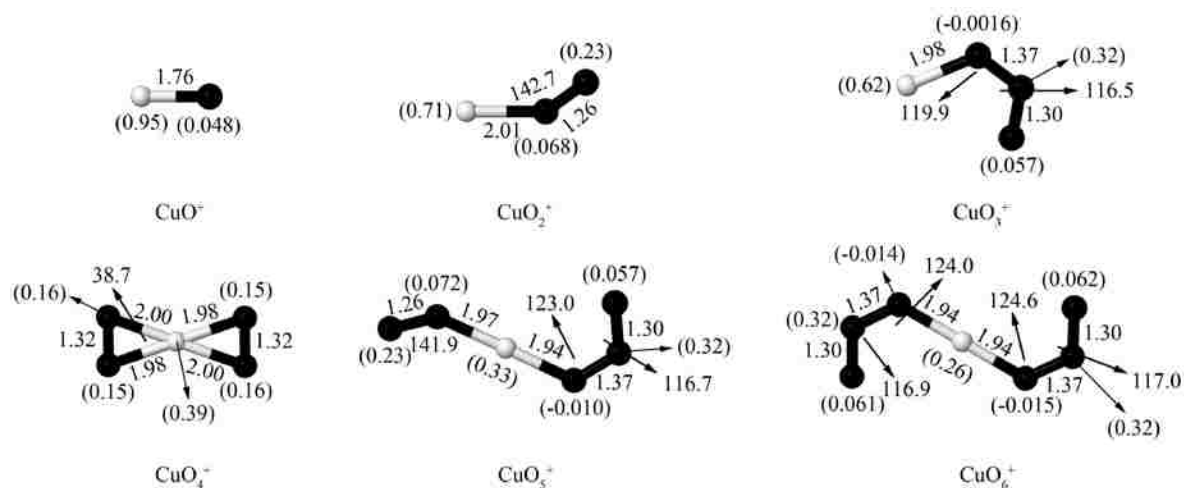


Figure 5.2: Optimized structures, bond lengths, angles and Löwdin charge distributions (parenthesis) of positive charged CuO<sub>n</sub> clusters with n=1-6. Copper/oxygen atoms are colored white/black.

The bond length (1.81Å) of neutral Cu-O in CuO cluster is longer than that of charged clusters (1.76Å and 1.74Å). Charged CuO cluster is formed by removing or entering an electron from an oxygen 2p $\pi$  orbital which is weakly antibonding. The spin

states of optimized structures are doublet, singlet and singlet at neutral, positively and negatively charged clusters, respectively. The experimental bond length of  $\text{CuO}^-$  (singlet state)<sup>80</sup> is 1.67 Å, which is shorter than ours (1.74 Å).

Three isomers of  $\text{CuO}_2$  clusters have been proposed<sup>94</sup>:  $\text{OCuO}$ ,  $\text{CuOO}$  bent, and  $\text{CuO}_2$  side-on in doublet and quartet spin states. They found  $\text{OCuO}$  linear cluster is most stable at doublet spin state. According to our results, the lowest structure of  $\text{CuO}_2$  is similar to the Massobrio et al. calculation, but quartet spin state neutral  $\text{CuO}_2$  cluster is more stable than doublet spin state cluster. Bond lengths are also different: our calculation is 1.81 Å and that of Massobrio et al.<sup>94</sup> is 1.73 Å. The lowest structure of positive charge  $\text{CuO}_2$  cluster is  $\text{CuO}_2$  side-on at triplet spin state. The lowest structure of negatively charged  $\text{CuO}_2$  cluster is  $\text{OCuO}$  linear cluster at triplet state. The bond length of positively charged  $\text{CuO}_2$  cluster (2.01 Å) is longer than neutral (1.81 Å) and negatively charged clusters (1.79 Å).

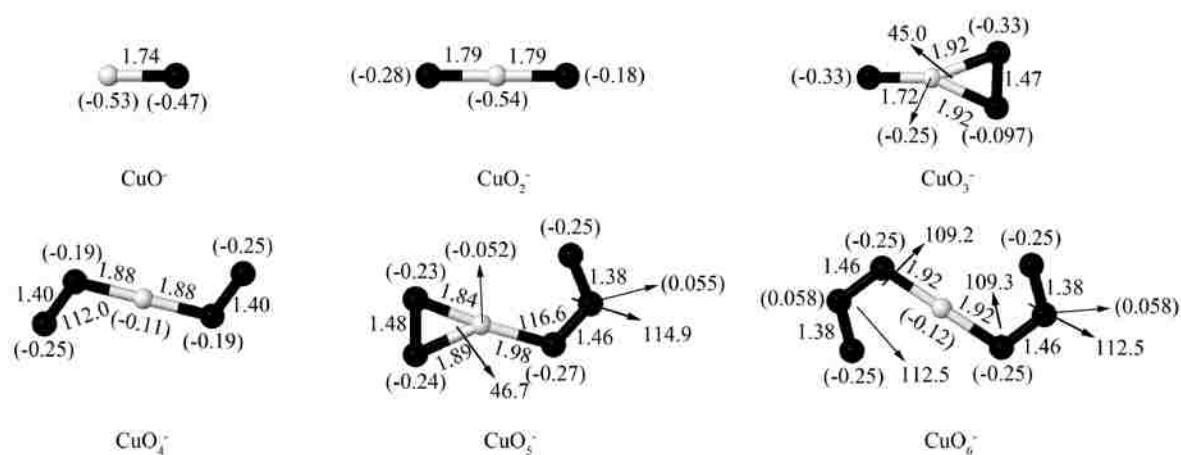


Figure 5.3 Optimized structures, bond lengths, angles and Löwdin charge distributions (parenthesis) of negative charged  $\text{CuO}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-6$ . Copper/oxygen atoms are colored white/black.

Two isomers of  $\text{CuO}_3$  clusters have been proposed<sup>94</sup>:  $\text{CuO}_3$ , ozonide and  $\text{OCuO}_2$  in their quartet and doublet spin states.  $\text{OCuO}_2$  cluster is found to be most stable at quartet spin state, which is in good agreement with our results. Our calculated bond lengths

(average 1.92Å) of Cu-O of neutral CuO<sub>3</sub> clusters are longer than those of our negatively charged cluster (average 1.82Å) and the Massobrio et al. neutral result (average 1.83Å). The lowest structure of positively charged CuO<sub>3</sub> clusters is not OCuO<sub>2</sub> but CuO<sub>3</sub> ozonide at singlet spin state. The lowest structure of negatively charged CuO<sub>3</sub> cluster is OCuO<sub>2</sub> at single spin state. The angle of O-Cu-O of negatively charged CuO<sub>3</sub> cluster (45°) is larger than our neutral CuO<sub>3</sub> cluster (41°) and that of Massobrio et al. (42°).

Table 5.1: Spin states, ionization potential (eV), electron affinities (eV) and binding energy of CuO<sub>n</sub> (n=1-6) clusters.

		Spin state	IP	EA	E <sub>b</sub>
CuO	CuO	doublet	12.25	1.35	1.22
	CuO <sup>+</sup>	singlet			
	CuO <sup>-</sup>	singlet			
CuO <sub>2</sub>	CuO <sub>2</sub>	quartet	7.56	3.38	1.45
	CuO <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	triplet			
	CuO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	triplet			
CuO <sub>3</sub>	CuO <sub>3</sub>	quartet	9.85	2.47	1.78
	CuO <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup>	singlet			
	CuO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	singlet			
CuO <sub>4</sub>	CuO <sub>4</sub>	quartet	10.32	3.07	2.00
	CuO <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	triplet			
	CuO <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup>	triplet			
CuO <sub>5</sub>	CuO <sub>5</sub>	quartet	9.89	2.60	1.98
	CuO <sub>5</sub> <sup>+</sup>	triplet			
	CuO <sub>5</sub> <sup>-</sup>	triplet			
CuO <sub>6</sub>	CuO <sub>6</sub>	quartet	10.89	3.70	1.91
	CuO <sub>6</sub> <sup>+</sup>	singlet			
	CuO <sub>6</sub> <sup>-</sup>	triplet			

We have proposed optimized neutral, positively and negatively charged CuO<sub>4</sub> clusters; the geometry corresponds to two CuO<sub>2</sub> side-on units sharing a common Cu atom. Massobrio et al. have proposed five CuO<sub>4</sub> clusters (doublet and quartet spin states), of which the most stable CuO<sub>4</sub> cluster has the same geometry as ours. However, spin state is different from ours. Our calculation is quartet spin state of lowest CuO<sub>4</sub> cluster and the



Massobrio et al. calculation is doublet state of lowest  $\text{CuO}_4$  cluster. The lowest structure of positively charged  $\text{CuO}_4$  cluster is similar to neutral  $\text{CuO}_4$  cluster. Two Cu-O bonds of four Cu-O bonds in negatively charged  $\text{CuO}_4$  cluster are broken. The Cu-O bond length of positively charged  $\text{CuO}_4$  cluster (average  $1.99\text{\AA}$ ) is longer than the bond lengths of our neutral (average  $1.96\text{\AA}$ ) and negatively charged (average  $1.88\text{\AA}$ ) clusters and Massobrio *et al.*  $\text{CuO}_4$  calculations (average  $1.87\text{\AA}$ ).

Table 5.2: The calculated values of bond length ( $Re$  in angstrom), dissociation energy ( $De$  in eV), the frequency ( $\omega$  in  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and electron affinity (EA in eV) of  $\text{CuO}$  are compared with experimental values.

$Re(\text{\AA})$	$De(\text{eV})$	$\omega(\text{cm}^{-1})$	EA(eV)	Method
1.72	2.79	640	1.78	Exp <sup>80</sup>
1.76		587		DFT <sup>79</sup>
1.74				DFT <sup>94</sup>
1.81	2.44	571	1.35	Ours

Neutral  $\text{CuO}_5$  cluster is highly symmetrical and yields similar compact planar arrangements for quartet spin state. This structure consists of one ozonide  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_3)$  and one  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_2)$  side-on unit. Bond Cu-O bond lengths of our neutral  $\text{CuO}_5$  calculation are  $2.03\text{\AA}$  and  $2.04\text{\AA}$  at  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_3)$  and  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_2)$  side-on unit, respectively. Massobrio et al. suggested the same geometry: bond lengths of Cu-O are  $1.97\text{\AA}$  and  $1.98\text{\AA}$  at  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_3)$  and  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_2)$  side-on units.<sup>94</sup> We found that the Cu-O bond lengths of the neutral  $\text{CuO}_5$  cluster (average  $2.03\text{\AA}$ ) are longer than those of our charged clusters ( $\text{CuO}_5^+$ : average  $1.96\text{\AA}$ ,  $\text{CuO}_5^-$ : average  $1.90$ ) and of the Massobrio et al.  $\text{CuO}_5$  clusters calculations (average  $1.98\text{\AA}$ ). At the lowest structures of positively charged  $\text{CuO}_5$  cluster, one of the Cu-O bonds at  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_3)$  side-on unit is broken. At the lowest structures of negatively charged  $\text{CuO}_5$  cluster, one of the Cu-O bonds at  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_3)$  and  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_2)$  side-on unit is broken.

Neutral  $\text{CuO}_6$  cluster is planar and consists of two  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_3)$  units. We have suggested that the lowest energy of neutral, positively and negatively charged  $\text{CuO}_6$  clusters at

quartet, singlet and triplet spin states are more stable. However, Massobrio et al. suggested that the doublet spin state of neutral  $\text{CuO}_6$  cluster is more stable. In the lowest structures of charged  $\text{CuO}_6$  clusters, two  $\text{CuO}$  bonds are broken, each in a  $\text{Cu}(\text{O}_3)$  unit. The positively and negatively charged  $\text{CuO}_6$  clusters have lowest energy at singlet and triplet spin states. The Cu-O bond lengths of our neutral  $\text{CuO}_6$  cluster (average  $2.01\text{\AA}$ ) are longer than those of our charged clusters ( $\text{CuO}_6^+$ : average  $1.94\text{\AA}$ ,  $\text{CuO}_6^-$ : average  $1.92\text{\AA}$ ) and the Massobrio et al. calculations (average  $1.97\text{\AA}$ ).

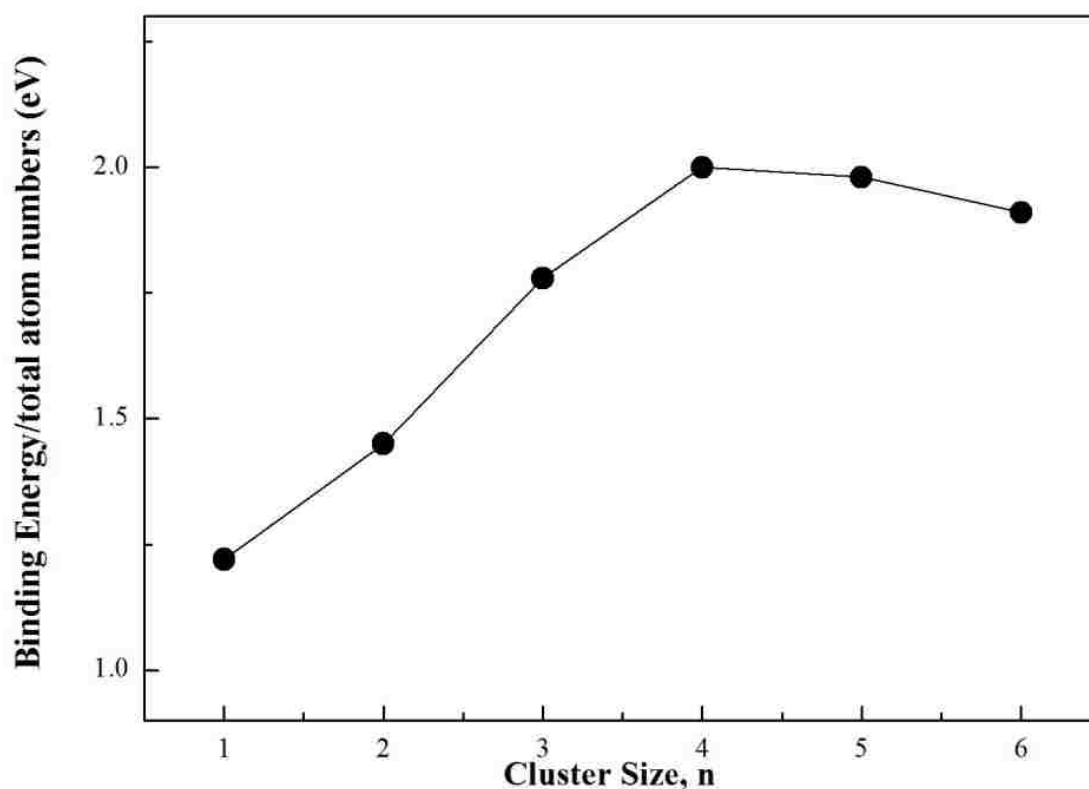


Figure 5.4: Binding energies of neutral  $\text{CuO}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-6$ .

### 5.2.2 Binding Energies and Second Difference Energies

The binding energies of  $\text{CuO}_n$  ( $n=1-6$ ) clusters are shown in Figure 5.4. The definitions of binding energies of single copper oxide clusters are expressed as

$$E_b = \frac{[E(\text{Cu}) + n E(\text{O}) - E(\text{CuO}_n)]}{(\text{total atom number})} \quad (1)$$

with the triplet state of an oxygen atom.

The  $\text{CuO}_4$  cluster has exhibited local maxima (2.00eV) of binding energies; it has the highest stability and is often used to identify so-called “magic clusters.” We define the energy variation in the formula as  $\Delta^2 E(n) = [E(n+1) - E(n)] - [E(n) - E(n-1)]$ , which is the second difference of total energies for  $\text{CuO}_n$  ( $n=1-6$ ) clusters. The special stability of  $\text{CuO}_4$  cluster can be seen from the second difference energies of Figure 5.5, which also shows a peak  $\text{CuO}_4$  cluster.  $\text{CuO}_5$  and  $\text{CuO}_6$  clusters in single copper oxide clusters are  $\text{CuO}_4$  clusters solvated by O and  $\text{O}_2$  molecules.

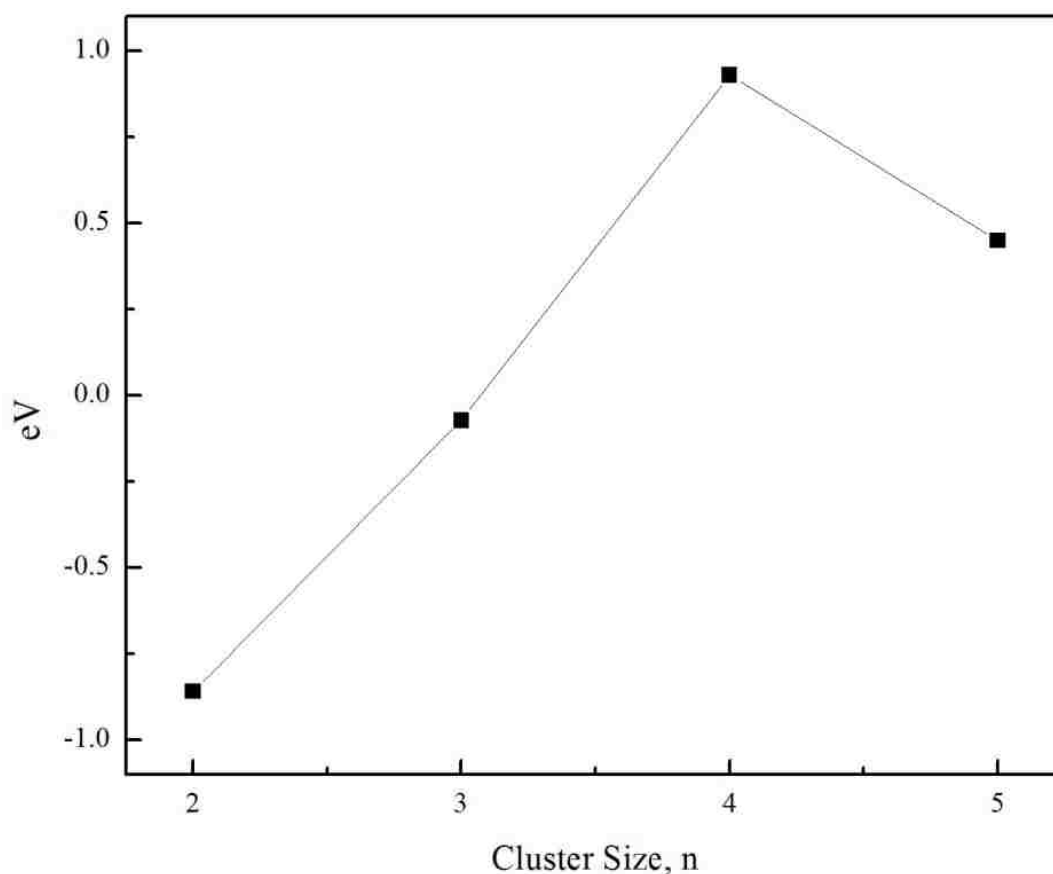


Figure 5.5: Second difference of the energy of  $\text{CuO}_n$ , clusters with  $n=1-6$

### 5.2.3 Ionization Potential and Electron Affinities

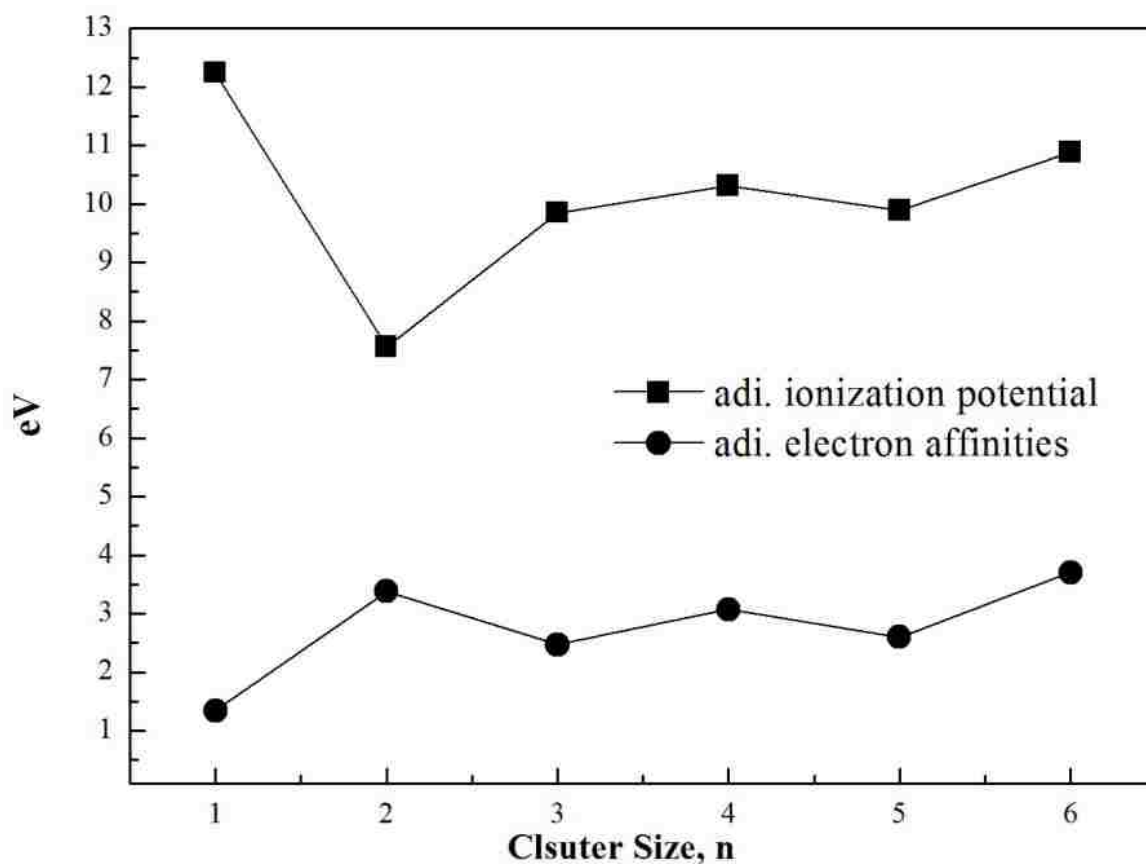


Figure 5.6 Calculated adiabatic ionization potential (IP) and electron affinities (EA) of  $\text{CuO}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-6$

Figure 5.6 represents adiabatic ionization potential ( $\text{IP}(\text{X}_n)=\text{E}(\text{X}_n^+)-\text{E}(\text{X}_n)$ ) and electron affinities ( $\text{EA}(\text{X}_n)=\text{E}(\text{X}_n)-\text{E}(\text{X}_n^-)$ ). IPs and EAs have been calculated taking the lowest structural energies, which are adiabatic energies. Generally, the IPs and EAs are oscillating for  $n$  odd (even); we obtain that IP increases (decreases). In this case, IPs are showing a stabilization for  $n=3-5$  while EAs are oscillating. They had experimented with the magnetic-bottle time-of-flight (MTOF) photoelectron spectrometer for  $\text{CuO}_x$  ( $x=0-6$ ).<sup>78</sup> They had investigated the electron affinities, and we can compare their results with ours. It is interesting that the geometries are different for  $\text{CuO}_5$  and  $\text{CuO}_6$  clusters. They

suggested  $(\text{O-Cu})(\text{O}_2)_2$  for  $\text{CuO}_5$  cluster and  $\text{CuO}_2(\text{O}_2)_2$  for  $\text{CuO}_6$  cluster. Our calculated EAs, are 1.35eV (1.78eV), 3.38eV (3.47eV), 2.47eV (3.53eV), and 3.07eV (3.09eV) for  $\text{CuO}$ ,  $\text{CuO}_2$ ,  $\text{CuO}_3$  and  $\text{CuO}_4$ , respectively. The parentheses show experimental data. The calculated EAs of  $\text{CuO}_2$  and  $\text{CuO}_4$  clusters are in good agreement with experimental data.

### 5.2.4 HOMO-LUMO Gaps and Fragmentation Channels

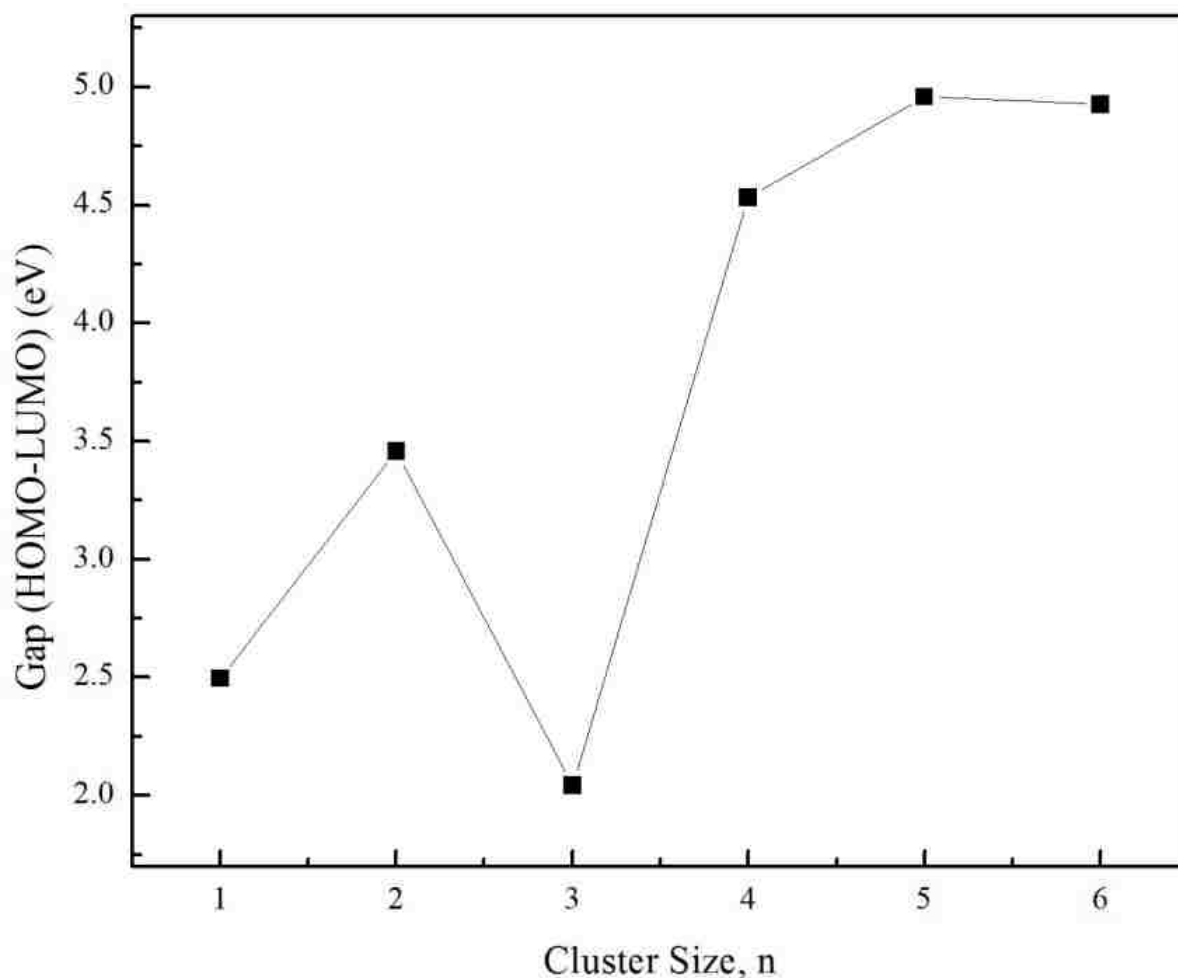


Figure 5.7 Calculated HOMO-LUMO gap of neutral  $\text{CuO}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-6$

The calculated HOMO-LUMO gaps of neutral  $\text{CuO}_n$  ( $n=1-6$ ) clusters are shown in Figure 5.7. The gaps are very sensitive to correlated effects due to the cluster geometry. Among neutral clusters,  $\text{CuO}_3$  cluster has the smallest HOMO-LUMO gap of 2.04eV and

CuO<sub>5</sub> cluster has the largest HOMO-LUMO gap, 3.46eV. It is interesting that HOMO-LUMO gaps are increased from CuO<sub>3</sub> to CuO<sub>4</sub> rapidly.

The HOMO-LUMO gap is considered to be an important parameter in terms of the chemical stability of clusters: a large energy gap corresponds to larger reactivity stability. The large HOMO-LUMO gaps are found at n=4, 5, and 6. Therefore, we know CuO<sub>4</sub> cluster has particularly stability from second difference energies and HOMO-LUMO gaps. In fact, the second different energies reflect thermodynamic stability and the HOMO-LUMO gaps show potential chemical reactivity; they have no direct relationship. For example, CuO<sub>4</sub> has large second difference energy; however, it has a relatively small HOMO-LUMO gap. The calculated HOMO-LUMO gaps for neutral CuO<sub>n</sub> (n=1-6) clusters are shown in figure 5.7.

Table 5.3: Fragmentation channels of CuO<sub>n</sub> clusters with n=1-6

CuO <sub>n</sub> (n=1-6)	
$E_{n+m} \rightarrow E_n + E_m$	$\Delta E$ (kcal/mol)
CuO $\rightarrow$ Cu + O	56.18
CuO <sub>2</sub> $\rightarrow$ Cu + O <sub>2</sub>	9.80
$\rightarrow$ CuO + O	44.25
CuO <sub>3</sub> $\rightarrow$ Cu + O <sub>2</sub> + O	73.82
$\rightarrow$ CuO + O <sub>2</sub>	17.64
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>2</sub> + O	64.03
CuO <sub>4</sub> $\rightarrow$ Cu + O <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub>	48.89
$\rightarrow$ CuO + O <sub>2</sub> + O	83.34
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub>	39.09
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>3</sub> + O	65.70
CuO <sub>5</sub> $\rightarrow$ Cu + O <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub> + O	93.13
$\rightarrow$ CuO + O <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub>	36.96
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub> + O	83.34
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>3</sub> + O <sub>2</sub>	19.31
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>4</sub> + O	44.24
CuO <sub>6</sub> $\rightarrow$ Cu + O <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub>	36.38
$\rightarrow$ CuO + O <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub> + O	70.83
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub> + O <sub>2</sub>	26.58
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>3</sub> + O <sub>2</sub> + O	53.19
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>4</sub> + O <sub>2</sub>	-12.51
$\rightarrow$ CuO <sub>5</sub> + O	33.87

The fragmentation energy of  $\text{CuO}_6$  in becoming  $\text{CuO}_4 + \text{O}_2$  is the lowest value (-12.51 kcal/mol), which we would like to emphasize as the most favorable pathway to break the clusters.  $\text{CuO}_2$ ,  $\text{CuO}_3$ ,  $\text{CuO}_4$ ,  $\text{CuO}_5$  and  $\text{CuO}_6$  can dissociate into  $\text{Cu} + \text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{CuO} + \text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{CuO}_2 + \text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{CuO}_3 + \text{O}_2$  and  $\text{CuO}_4 + \text{O}_2$ , respectively. From  $\text{CuO}_2$  to  $\text{CuO}_6$  clusters, their fragmentation products contain an  $\text{O}_2$  molecule.

### 5.2.5 Löwdin Charge Distributions

The calculations of Löwdin charge distributions<sup>99</sup> of Cu and O are shown Figure 5.1-5.3

Löwdin charges of the Cu atoms are 0.24 |e| for  $\text{CuO}$ , -0.0013 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_2$ , 0.050 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_3$ , 0.13 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_4$ , 0.16 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_5$ , and 0.19 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_6$  in neutral clusters. Average Löwdin charges of the O atoms are -0.24 |e| for  $\text{CuO}$ , 0.0007 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_2$ , -0.020 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_3$ , -0.032 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_4$ , -0.054 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_5$ , and -0.030 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_6$  in neutral clusters.

Löwdin charges of the Cu atoms are 0.95 |e| for  $\text{CuO}$ , 0.71 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_2$ , 0.62 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_3$ , 0.39 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_4$ , 0.33 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_5$ , and 0.26 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_6$  in positive charged clusters. Average Löwdin charges of the O atoms are 0.048 |e| for  $\text{CuO}$ , 0.15 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_2$ , 0.16 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_3$ , 0.16 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_4$ , 0.20 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_5$ , and 0.12 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_6$  in positive charged clusters.

Löwdin charges of the Cu atoms are -0.53 |e| for  $\text{CuO}$ , -0.54 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_2$ , -0.25 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_3$ , -0.11 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_4$ , -0.052 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_5$ , and -0.12 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_6$  in positive charged clusters. Average Löwdin charges of the O atoms are -0.47 |e| for  $\text{CuO}$ , -0.23 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_2$ , -0.25 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_3$ , -0.22 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_4$ , -0.19 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_5$ , and -0.15 |e| for  $\text{CuO}_6$  in positive charged clusters.

## 5.2.6 Calculated Single Copper Oxide Reactions

Calculated energies for reactions of single copper with oxygens are shown in Table 5.4. The energy of the  $\text{Cu} + 2\text{O}_2$  reaction to form  $\text{CuO}_4$  is the lowest value (-48.89 kcal/mol). We have also calculated the fragmentation energies of  $(\text{CuO})_n$   $n=1-6$  clusters for various dissociation pathways in Table 5.3. In single copper oxide clusters, the most favorable pathways of  $\text{CuO}_n$ , ( $n=1, 3$ , and  $5$ ) and ( $n=2, 4$ , and  $6$ ), usually contain pure copper and  $\text{CuO}$  cluster, respectively.

Table 5.4: Calculated energies (in kcal/mol) for reactions between single copper and oxygen

Reaction	Energy (kcal/mol)
$\text{Cu} + 1/2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CuO}$	-10.86
$\text{Cu} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CuO}_2$	-9.80
$\text{Cu} + 3/2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CuO}_3$	-28.51
$\text{Cu} + 2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CuO}_4$	-48.89
$\text{Cu} + 5/2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CuO}_5$	-47.82
$\text{Cu} + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CuO}_6$	-36.38

## 5.3 Conclusions

We have investigated the structural and electronic properties of single copper oxide clusters using density functional calculation. We found the lowest energy structures are plane or near plane for all neutral, positive and negative single copper oxide clusters.

We have compared our results with those of Massobrio et al. and concluded that we have similar geometries in neutral single copper oxide clusters, but the spin states of the lowest energy structures are different (neutral  $\text{CuO}$ ,  $\text{CuO}_2$ ,  $\text{CuO}_4$  and  $\text{CuO}_6$  clusters). The



spin states of our simulations are all quartet spin states except CuO cluster (doublet spin state). The spin states found in the Massobrio et al. results are doublet spin states of even number oxygen clusters and quartet spin states of odd number oxygen clusters.

From binding energies and second difference energies, we confirmed that CuO<sub>4</sub> cluster has the highest stability and is often used to identify so-called “magic clusters.”

The fragmentation energy of CuO<sub>6</sub> in becoming CuO<sub>4</sub> + O<sub>2</sub> is the lowest value (-12.51 kcal/mol), which we would like to emphasize as the most favorable pathway to break the clusters.

# CHAPTER 6

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

Nanoparticles are formed largely by combustion sources as primary PM emissions. Nanoparticles are not efficiently captured by air control devices, are transported long distance and penetrate deep into the respiratory system. In combustion systems, nanoparticles are mixtures of organic and inorganic compounds and include a number of transition metals (iron or copper). The production of these transition metal-organic complexes results in lung injury, inflammation, alterations in pulmonary host defense and DNA damage.

Polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins and polychlorinated furans (PCDD/F or dioxin) are the most toxic known environmental pollutants. PCDD/Fs formations can be explained that transition metal oxides and chlorides play a significant role. Therefore, we have performed a detailed study of copper oxide clusters and their reactions with phenol and chlorinated phenols.

We have studied small copper oxide clusters using *ab initio* Monte Carlo simulations. These copper oxide clusters were then optimized using standard *ab initio* methods using GAMESS quantum chemistry package. We used the B3LYP version of DFT in combination with the LANL2DZ basis set. Comparison with existing experimental work demonstrated that the LANL2DZ basis set is in best agreement.

In our studies of copper oxide clusters, we have particularly emphasized several aspects: 1) geometric structures, 2) binding energies and second order energies, 3) ionization potential and electron affinities, 4) HOMO-LUMO gaps, and 5) Löwdin charge distributions.

In  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  clusters with  $n=1-8$ , a transition from planar to nonplanar geometries occurs at  $n=4$ . The negatively charged  $\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$  cluster is a planar structure. Atomization energies and second difference energies show that  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5$  cluster has highest stability. We find that odd numbered copper oxide clusters have higher stabilities than even numbered copper oxide clusters, which can be explained in two ways. First, the Cu-O-Cu angles are relatively close to tetrahedral values and correlate reasonably well with second difference energy. Second, small rings lead to ring strain and a loss of stability. The even numbered clusters have small rings (3- and 4-membered) and the odd numbered clusters have large rings (6- and 7 membered). Therefore, we expect that odd numbered copper oxide clusters ( $\text{Cu}_9\text{O}_9$ ,  $\text{Cu}_{11}\text{O}_{11}\dots$ ) will be most stable.

Ionization potentials have some oscillations with cluster size, as these are typical for clusters. The lowest fragmentation energy of  $\text{Cu}_6\text{O}_6$  cluster (dissociation to  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_5 + \text{CuO}$ ) is, we would like to emphasize, the most favorable pathway to break the cluster. We also expect that bigger copper oxide clusters than  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$  cluster would dissociate to contain a  $\text{CuO}$  cluster as small copper oxide clusters. (From  $\text{CuO}$  to  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$  clusters)

We have investigated the stabilities and reactivities of copper oxide clusters. Reactions of the previously optimized neutral  $\text{Cu}_n\text{O}_n$  clusters with water and organic compounds (phenol, *ortho*-chlorophenol and *para*-chlorophenol) were studied using *ab initio* methods.

The energies, enthalpies, Gibbs free energies of copper oxide, copper oxide-water and copper oxide-organic compounds clusters were calculated to investigate their reaction energetics. We also calculated bond lengths, adsorption energies and Löwdin charge distributions.

We find that organic compounds (phenol and chlorinated phenols) are likely to bind to the copper atom with the largest charge. For  $\text{Cu}_4\text{O}_4$  to  $\text{Cu}_8\text{O}_8$  clusters, we can predict

the reaction site from charge distributions of copper oxide clusters.

Our calculations of reaction energies indicate that generally *ortho*-chlorophenol binds less strongly to the surface of copper oxide clusters than phenol and *para*-chlorophenol, which can be explained in two ways. First, H atom of OH group of *ortho*-chlorophenol is displaced to copper oxide cluster. Second, weak Cu-Cl bonds can make stabilization of copper oxide clusters with *ortho*-chlorophenol.

The results can help an understanding the mechanisms of the formation of PCDD/Fs from chlorinated phenols in the copper oxide clusters.

We have also investigated the structural and electronic properties of single copper oxide clusters ( $\text{CuO}_n$   $n=1-6$ ) using density functional calculation. We found the lowest energy structures are plane or near plane for all neutral, positively and negatively single copper oxide clusters.

The spin states of our simulations are all quartet spin states except CuO cluster (doublet spin state). We have compared our results with those of Massobrio et al. and concluded that we have similar geometrics in neutral single copper oxide clusters, but the spin states of the lowest energy structures are different (neutral CuO, CuO<sub>2</sub>, CuO<sub>4</sub> and CuO<sub>6</sub> clusters). The spin states of our simulations are all quartet spin states except CuO cluster (doublet spin state). The spin states found by Massobrio et al. are doublet spin states of even number oxygen clusters and quartet spin states of odd number oxygen clusters.

From binding energies and second difference energies, we confirmed that CuO<sub>4</sub> cluster has the highest stability and is often used to identify so-called “magic clusters.”

The fragmentation energy of CuO<sub>6</sub> in becoming CuO<sub>4</sub> + O<sub>2</sub> is the lowest value (-12.51 kcal/mol), which we would like to emphasize as the most favorable pathway to break the clusters.

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# APPENDIX B

## MONTE CARLO SIMULATION CODE

#Gaussian Script

```
#!/bin/tcsh
#PBS -A cct_cuo_01
#PBS -q workq
# the queue to be used. "small" is the only queue available at present.
#PBS -l nodes=4:ppn=2
#PBS -l cput=120:00:00
# requested CPU time.
#PBS -l walltime=120:00:00
# requested Wall-clock time.
#PBS -o output-file
# name of the standard out file to be "output-file".
#PBS -j oe
# standard error output merge to the standard output file.
#PBS -N cu6o6_17
# name of the job (that will appear on executing the qstat command) to be "syschk".
#
set NPROCS=`wc -l $PBS_NODEFILE |gawk '{print $1}'`
setenv g03root /usr/local/packages
setenv GAUSS_SCRDIR /var/scratch/
source $g03root/g03/bsd/g03.login
set NODELIST = ( -vv -nodelist "" `cat $PBS_NODEFILE` "" -mp 2)
setenv GAUSS_LFLAGS " $NODELIST "
#move to directory with input file
cd ~gbae/mc/
# Change this line to reflect your input file and output file
set NATOMS = 12      #atom number
set NPASSES = 300
set PASS = 0
mc_gaussian_setup_initial
g03l < g03mc.inp > g03mc.out
grep "SCF Done:" g03mc.out>en_initial.out
mc_recover_energy_initial
mv mc_recover_energy.out initial_energy.out
while ($PASS < $NPASSES)
  echo $PASS > npasses
  set ATOM = 0
  while ($ATOM < $NATOMS)
    echo $ATOM > current_atom.pos
    mc_propose_move
    mc_gaussian_setup
    g03l < g03mc.inp > g03mc.out
    grep "SCF Done:" g03mc.out>en.out
    mc_recover_energy
```

```
mc_decide
@ ATOM ++
end
cat current_coordinates.pos >> trajectory
cat initial_energy.out >> potential
cat en.out >> newenergy
cat tstar >> alltstar
@ PASS ++
end
# executes the executable.
rm $GAUSS_SCRDIR/*
#Removes the scratch files
```



c mc\_decide

```
dimension r(3,1000)
character*2 atom_name(1000)
character*8 com
real*8 newenergy, inienergy, tstar, t1star, t2star
open(unit=1, file='random', status='old')
read(1, *) ix
read(1, *) iy
read(1, *) iz
read(1, *) ia
read(1, *) itrial
read(1, *) iaccep
read(1, *) t1star
read(1, *) t2star
read(1, *) nmc
close(1)
open(unit=1, file='npasses', status='old')
read(1, *) npasses
close(1)
npasses=npasses+1
tstar=t1star+((npasses-1.d0)/(nmc-1.d0))*(t2star-t1star)
open(unit=3, file='tstar', status='unknown')
write(3, *) tstar
itrial=itrial+1
open(unit=1, file='mc_recover_energy.out', status='old')
read(1,22) newenergy
22 format(e20.10)
close(1)
open(unit=2, file='initial_energy.out', status='old')
read(2,23) inienergy
pot=inienergy
23 format(e20.10)
close(2)
trans=-(newenergy-inienergy)/tstar
if(trans .ge. log(unirand(ia))) then
iaccep=iaccep+1
open(unit=3, file='new_coordinates.pos', status='old')
open(unit=4, file='current_coordinates.pos', status='old')
read(3, *) natoms
write(4, *) natoms
read(3, *) com
write(4, *) com
do k1=1, natoms
read(3, *) atom_name(k1), r(1,k1), r(2,k1), r(3,k1)
write(4, *) atom_name(k1), r(1,k1), r(2,k1), r(3,k1)
enddo
close(3)
close(4)
pot=newenergy
```

```

endif
open(unit=2,file='initial_energy.out',status='unknown')
write(2,*) pot
open(unit=1,file='random',status='unknown')
write(1,*) ix
write(1,*) iy
write(1,*) iz
write(1,*) ia
write(1,*) itrial
write(1,*) iaccep
write(1,*) t1star
write(1,*) t2star
write(1,*) nmc
stop
end

      real*4 function unrand(ix)
      if(ix .le. 0) ix=1333
      iy=ix*54891
      if(iy) 5,6,6
5 iy=iy+2147483647+1
6 y=iy
      ix=iy
      unrand=y*.4656613e-9
      return
      end

```

```

c mc_gaussian_setup

dimension r(3,1000)
character*2 atom_name(1000)
character*8 com
open(unit=1,file='new_coordinates.pos',status='old')
read(1,*) natoms
read(1,*) com
do k1=1,natoms
read(1,*) atom_name(k1),r(1,k1),r(2,k1),r(3,k1)
enddo
close(1)
open(unit=2,file='g03mc.inp',status='unknown')
write(2,*) '%chk=/panasas/scratch/gbae/cu6o6_17.chk'
write(2,*) '%NProcLinda=4'
write(2,*) '%NProcShared=2'
write(2,*) "
write(2,*) '#b3lyp/6-31g** geom=coord guess=read'
write(2,*) "
write(2,*) 'title'
write(2,*) "
write(2,*) '0 1'
do k2=1,natoms
  write(2,*) atom_name(k2),r(1,k2),r(2,k2),r(3,k2)
enddo
write(2,*) "
stop
end

```

```
c mc_gaussian_setup_initial
```

```
dimension r(3,1000)
character*2 atom_name(1000)
character*8 com
open(unit=1,file='current_coordinates.pos',status='old')
read(1,*) natoms
read(1,*) com
do k1=1,natoms
read(1,*) atom_name(k1),r(1,k1),r(2,k1),r(3,k1)
enddo
close(1)
open(unit=2,file='g03mc.inp',status='unknown')
write(2,*) '%chk=/panasas/scratch/gbae/cu6o6_17.chk'
write(2,*) '%NProcLinda=4'
write(2,*) '%NProcShared=2'
write(2,*) "
write(2,*) '#b3lyp/6-31g** geom=coord'
write(2,*) "
write(2,*) 'title'
write(2,*) "
write(2,*) '0 1'
do k2=1,natoms
write(2,*) atom_name(k2),r(1,k2),r(2,k2),r(3,k2)
enddo
write(2,*) "
stop
end
```

```

c  mc_propose_move
    dimension r(3,1000)
    character*2 atom_name(1000)
    character*8 com
    open(unit=1,file='random',status='old')
    read(1,*) ix
    read(1,*) iy
    read(1,*) iz
    read(1,*) ia
    read(1,*) itrial
    read(1,*) iaccep
    read(1,*) t1star
    read(1,*) t2star
    read(1,*) nmc
    close(1)
    open(unit=1,file='current_coordinates.pos',status='old')
    read(1,*) natoms
    read(1,*) com
    do k1=1,natoms
    read(1,*) atom_name(k1),r(1,k1),r(2,k1),r(3,k1)
    enddo
    close(1)
    open(unit=2,file='current_atom.pos',status='old')
    read(2,*) k1
    k1=k1+1
    delr=0.2d0
    dx=2.d0*delr*(unirand(ix)-0.5d0)
    dy=2.d0*delr*(unirand(iy)-0.5d0)
    dz=2.d0*delr*(unirand(iz)-0.5d0)
    r(1,k1)=r(1,k1)+dx
    r(2,k1)=r(2,k1)+dy
    r(3,k1)=r(3,k1)+dz
    open(unit=1,file='random',status='unknown')
    write(1,*) ix
    write(1,*) iy
    write(1,*) iz
    write(1,*) ia
    write(1,*) itrial
    write(1,*) iaccep
    write(1,*) t1star
    write(1,*) t2star
    write(1,*) nmc
    open(unit=3,file='new_coordinates.pos',status='unknown')
    write(3,*) natoms
    write(3,*) com
    do k2=1,natoms
    write(3,*) atom_name(k2),r(1,k2),r(2,k2),r(3,k2)
    enddo
    stop
    end

```

```
      real*4 function unrand(ix)
      if(ix .le. 0) ix=1333
      iy=ix*54891
      if(iy) 5,6,6
5     iy=iy+2147483647+1
6     y=iy
      ix=iy
      unrand=y*.4656613e-9
      return
      end
```

c mc\_recover\_energy

```
    real*8 b
    character*28 a
    open(unit=1,file='en.out',status='old')
    read (1,22) a,b
22  format(a27,e20.10)
    close(1)
    open(unit=2,file='mc_recover_energy.out',status='unknown')
    write(2,*) b
    close(2)
    stop
    end
```

c mc\_recover\_energy\_initial

```
    real*8 b
    character*28 a
    open(unit=1,file='en_initial.out',status='old')
    read (1,22) a,b
22  format(a27,e20.20)
    close(1)
    open(unit=2,file='mc_recover_energy.out',status='unknown')
    write(2,*) b
    close(2)
    stop
    end
```

# VITA

Gyun-Tack Bae was born in Seoul, South Korea, in January, 1975. Between 1993 and 1997 he studied chemistry at SoongSil University in Seoul. He received a master of science in chemistry from SoongSil University in June 1997, and a doctorate in chemistry from Louisiana State University in December 2009. His research interests include electronic and structural properties of metal oxide clusters, their reactions and simulations using *ab initio* Monte Carlo.