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J. Phys.: Condens. Matter 21 (2009) 144206 (12pp)

Comparison of embedded atom method potentials for small aluminium cluster simulations

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Received 4 September 2008, in final form 9 October 2008 Published 18 March 2009 Online at stacks.iop.org/JPhysCM/21/144206

Abstract

In this paper, we present a comparison of the performance of a series of embedded atom method potentials for the evaluation of bulk and small aluminium cluster geometries and relative energies, against benchmark density functional theory calculations. In general, the non-pairwise potential-B (NP-B), which was parametrized against Al cluster data, performs the best.

(Some figures in this article are in colour only in the electronic version)

1. Introduction

Light-metal hydrides have for some time been considered for hydrogen storage application due to their high hydrogen content [1, 2]. For example, aluminium-lithium-based metal hydrides can store up to 10.6 wt% hydrogenand magnesium-based metal hydrides can store up to 7.6 wt% hydrogen [3]. Despite this high storage capacity, none of the materials so far have exhibited fast enough kinetics for hydrogen adsorption/desorption, which is essential for practical applications. In addition, there remain uncertainties about the thermal behaviour of crystal structures, atomic configurations, and electronic structures for various intermediate phases [3]. Therefore, a significant amount of research is currently focused on temperature effects and enhancing the kinetics by developing catalysts that eliminate the need for the high temperature/pressure conditions currently required for the rehydriding/dehydriding cycle [3–5].

Clusters and other nanostructures are known to have different properties to bulk materials and may provide a good alternative as a novel medium with high hydrogen storage capacity and good kinetics. Aluminium clusters have recently attracted attention from both cluster and hydrogen storage research groups [6, 7]. We have previously used density functional theory (DFT) techniques implemented in DMol³ [8, 9] to study the interactions of bare and doped (Mg, Si) aluminium clusters with hydrogen [7, 10] and identified a cluster (Al₁₂H₂₀) with a high hydrogen storage capacity [11]. Furthermore, we recently discovered that while there is a modest barrier for chemisorption of H₂ on a single Al₁₂Mg, H₂ was found to spontaneously dissociate between two closely spaced Al₁₂Mg clusters [12], suggesting that doped Al clusters can be used as building blocks for a potential hydrogen storage material.

Aluminium clusters are also of interest to hydrogen storage research due to their potential to form alanes and alanates [13, 14]. Balde *et al* have recently demonstrated that large clusters of NaAlH₄ (with a diameters of 2–10 Å) have the potential for hydrogen storage of 2 wt% capacity with faster kinetics than the bulk material (desorption temperature lower than 343 K) [15]. Zidan *et al* have studied titanium/zirconium-doped NaAlH₄ compounds using thermal-programmed desorption. The study indicated that the NaAlH₄ compounds have a hydrogen storage capacity of 4.0 wt% with fast kinetics (dehydriding temperature of 398 K) [5]. While the hydrogen capacity is less than the current US department of energy (DOE) goal of 6.0 wt% by 2010 and 9.0 wt% by 2015 [16], it demonstrates the potential of alanates as candidate hydrogen storage materials.

Although the ideal approach to the study of metal clusters involves the use of quantum mechanically based

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methods, theoretical studies of clusters beyond ~ 100 atoms rapidly become computationally less tractable with DFT, especially when the structural complexity is taken into account. Therefore, less accurate but more practical methods must be used to overcome these limitations. In this paper, we test the embedded atom method (EAM) potentials for small aluminium clusters against existing experimental and theoretical data in order to explore the possibility of employing EAM potentials to model larger clusters, cluster assemblies, and nanocrystals, that are currently demanding for study by DFT. Furthermore, having established which potential(s) performs the best for bare aluminium clusters, we plan to extend the potential to include interaction parameters for other metals (e.g. Mg, Si, Li, Na) where necessary, as well as hydrogen, to enable hydrogen adsorption on cluster-assembled light-metal nanomaterials to be studied.

The embedded atom method (EAM) was originally developed by Daw and Baskes in order to study hydrogen embrittlement in nickel [17] and has since been used extensively to study metallic systems [18]. An extension of this method is also available in the form of modified EAM (MEAM) [19-21]. The inclusion of angular dependent terms in MEAM allows it to describe the liquid structure, stacking faults, and surface energies quite accurately even when it is short-ranged [19, 20]. Baskes noted that while EAM is sufficient to describe FCC structures, MEAM affords better description of BCC structures and is a necessity to describe diamond cubic structures [19]. While there are currently many available EAM potentials for specific systems consisting of one or more elements, including aluminium, most of these potentials have been constructed by fitting to bulk structures [22–26]. It has been demonstrated that the Sutton-Chen, Cleri-Rosato, and Streitz-Mintmire potentials, all parametrized for aluminium, perform very well for structural features and thermodynamic behaviour of bulk materials and sufficiently large structures [23-25]. While Truhlar and co-workers have previously demonstrated the limitations of bulk-fitted EAM potentials for the accurate determination of cluster energies, no discussion was provided on the ability of these potentials for cluster structure prediction. Nevertheless, Truhlar and co-workers have parametrized the Mei-Davenport EAM potential [27] using accurately determined characteristics of a library of small aluminium clusters (Al₂-Al₁₇₇) and bulk aluminium obtained by first principles methods [28, 29]. In this work, we present a comparison of the structural and thermodynamical behaviour of a number of clusters of interest to our longer term research goals modelled using the Truhlar potential (NP-B) and three commonly used bulk-fitted EAM potentials [23-25]. We explore the ability of the potentials to accurately predict equilibrium cluster geometries, to identify local minima and relative energies of clusters against our previously tested benchmark PBE/DNP level. We also present preliminary results of cluster melting behaviour evaluated using each of the potentials.

2. Methods

2.1. EAM potentials

The EAM potentials chosen for this study were the Sutton– Chen [25], Cleri–Rosato. [23], Streitz–Mintmire [24], and NP-B [28]. The functional form and parameters of the EAM potentials used in this work are summarized in table 1.

The charge of each aluminium atom for all the above potentials is zero, including the Streitz–Mintmire potential, because we are interested in purely metallic systems. For each of the functional forms considered, the pair potential and many-body cut-off is 12.0 Å, except for Streitz–Mintmire where the latter is 8.0 Å.

The EAM functional of the NP-B potential is given in the following Mei–Davenport form [27, 30];

$$F_{i}\left(\overline{\rho}_{i}\right) = \sum_{i} -E_{c}\left[1 - \frac{\alpha}{\beta}\ln\left(\frac{\overline{\rho}_{i}}{\rho_{e}}\right)\right]\left(\frac{\overline{\rho}_{i}}{\rho_{e}}\right)^{\overline{\rho}} + \sum_{m=1}^{3}\frac{1}{2}\phi_{0}s_{m}\exp\left[-\left(\sqrt{m}-1\right)\gamma\right] \times \left[1 + \left(\sqrt{m}-1\right)\delta - \frac{\sqrt{m}\delta}{\beta}\ln\left(\frac{\overline{\rho}_{i}}{\rho_{e}}\right)\right]\left(\frac{\overline{\rho}_{i}}{\rho_{e}}\right)^{\frac{\sqrt{m}\gamma}{\beta}},$$

with the following parameters: $E_c = 2.834 \text{ eV}$; $\alpha = 4.954$; $\beta = 5.203$; $\gamma = 5.824$; $\delta = 8.969$; $\phi_0 = 0.2095 \text{ eV}$; $s_1 = 6.928$; $s_2 = 3.861$; and $s_3 = 15.50$. The parameter ρ_c is an adjustable parameter determined from fitting the calculated electron density [30]. The density term is given by the equation;

$$\overline{\rho}_i = \rho_{\rm e} \sum_i \sum_{l=0}^5 \frac{c_l}{12} \left(\frac{r_i}{r_0} \right)^l,$$

with the following parameters: $c_0 = 0.4333$; $c_1 = -7.305$; $c_2 = 29.812$; $c_3 = -54.44$; $c_4 = 48.41$; $c_5 = -15.50$; and $r_0 = 2.760$ Å. The parameter ρ_e in the density term cancels exactly in the EAM functional.

Finally, the pair potential is given in the following form;

$$\phi_{ij}(r_{ij}) = -\phi_0 \left[1 + \delta \left(\frac{r}{r_0} - 1 \right) \right] \exp \left[-\gamma \left(\frac{r}{r_0} - 1 \right) \right]$$

with the following parameters: $\phi_0 = 0.2095 \text{ eV}; \delta = 8.969;$ $\gamma = 5.824;$ and $r_0 = 2.760 \text{ Å}.$

The density and pair potential terms are multiplied by a taper function as follows;

$$\overline{\rho}_{i,\text{taper}}(r) = \overline{\rho}_i(r) f_{\text{taper}}(r)$$
$$\phi_{ij,\text{taper}}(r) = \phi_{ij}(r) f_{\text{taper}}(r),$$

where

$$f_{\text{taper}}(r) = \begin{cases} 0 & r \ge r_{\text{cut}} \\ (1-x)^3 (1+3x+6x^2) & r_m \le r < r_{\text{cut}} \\ 1 & r < r_m, \\ \text{and} & x = \frac{(r-r_m)}{r_{\text{cut}} - r_m}. \end{cases}$$

Table 1. 1 unclosed form and parameters for the burk-fitted LAW potentials.					
Potential	EAM functional	EAM density	Pair potential		
Sutton-Chen	$F_i(\overline{\rho}_i) = -\sum_i A_i \sqrt{\overline{\rho}_i}$ A = 1.000 eV	$\overline{\rho}_{i} = \sum_{i} C r_{ij}^{-6}$ C = 1303.927 1480 Å ⁶	$\phi_{ij}(r_{ij}) = \frac{A}{r^7}$ A = 592.4195621 eV Å ⁷		
Cleri–Rosato	$F_i(\overline{\rho}_i) = -\sum_i A_i \sqrt{\overline{\rho}_i}$ A = 1.000 eV	$\overline{\rho}_{i} = \sum_{i} A \exp[-B(r_{ij} - r_{0})]$ $A = 1.731856$ $B = 1.757117\text{\AA}^{-1}$ $r_{0} = 2.863782\text{\AA}$	$\phi_{ij}(r_{ij}) = A \exp(-\frac{r}{\rho})$ A = 1342.424092 eV $\rho = 0.332534 \text{ Å}$		
Streitz-Mintmire	$F_i(\overline{\rho}_i) = -\sum_i A_i \sqrt{\overline{\rho}_i}$	$\overline{\rho}_i = \sum_i A \exp[-B(r_{ij} - r_0)]$	$\phi_{ij}(r_{ij}) = A \exp(-\frac{r}{\rho}) -B[1 + C(\frac{r}{r_0} - 1)] \exp[-C(\frac{r}{r_0} - 1)]$		
	$A = 1.987699 \mathrm{eV}$	A = 0.147699 eV $B = 2.017519 \text{ Å}^{-1}$ $r_0 = 3.365875 \text{ Å}$	A = 4.474755 eV B = 0.159472 eV C = 5.949143672 $\rho = 0.991317 \text{ Å}$ $r_0 = 3.365875 \text{ Å}$		

Table 1. Functional form and parameters for the bulk-fitted EAM potentials

The r_m parameter is the distance for the start of the tapering function, which is set to 4.83 Å, and r_{cut} is the cut-off for both the many-body potential and the pair potential, which is set to 5.382 Å. Similarly to the other potentials studied here, the charge of each aluminium atom is zero. The graphical representation of each of the terms of the potentials is shown in table 2.

2.2. Computational procedure

In order to compare the EAM potentials, we have calculated the structural properties of Al₂, Al₃, Al₁₂, Al₁₃, and bulk aluminium using the GULP simulation package [31] where all the potentials described above have been implemented. In addition, we have also calculated the melting temperatures for the larger clusters of Al_{34} and Al_{55} . Bulk Al was constructed as a face-centred cubic lattice with lattice constant of 4.050 Å. Constant pressure geometry optimization was then performed for the bulk system. Geometry optimization was conducted for Al₂, Al₁₂, and Al₁₃ clusters using the EAM potentials and compared with the optimized structures obtained by DFT calculations, which provide a benchmark for this study. We calculated the binding energy curves for Al₂ to assess the accuracy of the potentials in predicting the equilibrium bond separation as well as to compare the overall shape of the curves. In order to assess the angular dependence of the potentials, we calculated the binding energy curves for different structural configurations of Al₃ with arbitrary Al–Al bond lengths (r_1 , $r_2 = 2$, 2.3, 2.506, 2.863, 3.5, and 5 Å). For the Al₁₂ and Al₁₃ clusters, we have also calculated the EAM single point energies for a range of DFT optimized structural isomers in order to assess the ability of each potential to predict the relative stability.

For the EAM-based methods, geometry optimization was performed using the Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) minimizer [32] until the forces fell below 0.1 eV Å⁻¹, after which the rational functional optimization (RFO) method [33] was used in order to ensure the positive definite nature of the Hessian matrix. The convergence criteria applied were 10^{-5} eV for energy, 10^{-3} eV Å⁻¹ for force (with

individual force components not exceeding 10^{-2} eV Å⁻¹), and displacements not exceeding 10^{-5} Å. For the evaluation of the melting temperature, molecular dynamics (MD) calculations were performed at temperatures between 150 and 800 K. For each temperature, the MD calculations were performed for 1 ns with a timestep of 0.5 fs. Each calculation starts with a temperature of 100 K and applying a temperature ramp of 0.2 K fs⁻¹.

DFT calculations were performed using DMol³ [8, 9] with the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) functional [34, 35] and a double numerical polarized (DNP) basis set, giving a proper description of Al atoms [36]. This method has been well validated in previous studies on Al clusters [7, 10, 11]. Thermal occupation with an energy of 0.136 eV was utilized to improve convergence. An orbital cut-off of 10.0 Å has been used throughout this study. The criteria of convergence used for the geometry optimization procedure were 2.721×10^{-4} eV for energy, 5.442×10^{-2} eV Å⁻¹ for force, and 0.005 Å for displacement.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Bulk properties

We begin our assessment with a review of the performance of each potential for the determination of bulk Al properties. Table 3 summarizes the bulk properties of aluminium predicted by the different potentials. Although most of the presented values are obtained from the literature, we have independently determined these properties using each of the potentials to ensure accurate implementation of the potentials in GULP. The values calculated in this work and not reported in the original studies are denoted by the hash (#) symbol. The bulk and shear moduli that were not given in the literature have been derived from the elastic constants and are denoted by the star (*) symbol. As can be seen from the table, all EAM potentials perform well for determining the structural parameters of bulk aluminium showing close agreement with experimental lattice constant and density. Furthermore, all potentials give a binding energy per atom to within 2% of the

Table 2. The graphical representation of each of the terms of the potentials used in the present work. Note that the EAM density of the NP-B potential is expressed in terms of the parameter ρ_e .



experimental value and density to within 1%. Interestingly, the NP-B potential performed equally well as compared to the bulk-fitted potentials for the structural and energetic properties, because the training set included a range of cluster sizes as well as the bulk with different weightings [28]. However, while the Cleri-Rosato and Streitz-Mintmire potentials showed good agreement with the experimental elastic constants, the Sutton-Chen and NP-B showed significantly larger variations. Not surprisingly, the better performance of Cleri-Rosato and Streitz-Mintmire potentials in this regard can be attributed to the fact that the elastic constants were included in the fitting procedure for these potentials, while this is not the case for Sutton-Chen and NP-B. Nevertheless, the Sutton-Chen potential provides a reasonable estimate of the bulk modulus, which can be attributed to the fact that the values for the exponents of density and pair potential were specifically chosen to provide the best approximation to the experimental value of this quantity [25]. The NP-B potential severely overestimates the stiffness of the material, which suggests its inadequacy in describing bulk materials and surfaces. However, it should be noted that the NP-B potential was developed specifically for clusters and not bulk materials and cannot therefore be expected to predict bulk properties with the same accuracy as the potentials that were developed specifically for this purpose.

3.2. Al₂ equilibrium separation

Next we focus our attention on the performance of the potentials for the description of the Al_2 dimer. The characterization of Al_2 dimer has provided a challenge for both theory and experiment due to the closeness in energy of the singlet and triplet states.

Although the EAM potential cannot distinguish between the singlet and triplet states, it is curious to see which of the potential energy surfaces associated with the two electronic states each parametrization will favour. Figure 1 shows the comparison of binding energy curves of Al₂ for the EAM

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	Sutton–Chen [25]	Cleri–Rosato [23]	Streitz–Mintmire [24]	NP-B [28]	Experiment
Binding energy per atom (eV)	-3.34	-3.339	-3.39	-3.43	-3.34 [37] -3.339 [38] -3.39 [39] -3.43 [40]
Lattice constant (Å)	4.05	4.05	4.05	4.03	4.05 [37, 38, 41] 4.034 [42]
Density $(g \text{ cm}^{-3})$	2.694#	2.702#	2.699#	2.727#	2.70 [43]
Bulk modulus (Voigt average) (GPa)	75.3	81	82.7*	169.0#	76.9 [44] 76 [45]
Shear modulus (Voigt average) (GPa)	11.5*	26.4*	23.8*	$78.8^{\#}$	26.1 [46]
Young's modulus (GPa)	14.1#	29.4#	19.1#	116.0#	70.3 [46]
Poisson's ratio	0.468#	0.440#	0.461#	0.386#	0.345 [46]
c_{11} (GPa)	82	95	94	225#	107.3 [44] 107 [45, 47]
c_{12} (GPa)	72	74	77	141#	60.9 [44] 61 [45, 47]
c44 (GPa)	16	37	34	103#	28.8 [44] 29 [45] 28 [47]

* Calculated from the elastic constants in the original reference.

[#] Calculated in this work.



Figure 1. Binding energy curve of Al₂ as a function of separation. For the DFT calculations the curve given is that of the lower energy triplet state.

potentials considered in this study, along with the PBE/DNP and PBE0/MG3 levels, the latter of which was used in fitting the NP-B potential [28]. The PBE/DNP binding energy curve compares favourably to the PBE0/MG3 results, with a slightly slower decay of the potential beyond the equilibrium value. The NP-B potential slightly overestimates the depth of the binding energy minimum by 0.412 eV, which is slightly more than the mean unsigned error (MUE) (0.185 eV) reported by Jasper *et al* [28] for the complete Al₂ data set, but agrees well with the long tail behaviour of the PBE0/MG3 results.

The three bulk-fitted EAM potentials significantly overestimate the depth of the binding energy minimum and underestimate the equilibrium separation distance. Jasper *et al* report that the MUE for the Al_2 data set are 1.034, 1.130 eV and 0.776 eV for the Cleri–Rosato, Sutton–Chen and Streitz–Mintmire potentials, respectively [48]. The decay of the binding energy curve for these potentials is also slower

Table 4. Al₂ equilibrium separation values. The star (*) symbol denotes triplet state.

EAM potential	Al_2 equilibrium separation (Å)
Sutton-Chen	2.092
Cleri–Rosato	2.325
Streitz-Mintmire	2.207
NP-B	2.523
PBE/DNP	2.656*
PBE0/MG3	2.730* [49]
CCSD(T, full)/6-311 + G(2df)	2.7157*
Experiment [50]	2.835*

compared to the NP-B potential and indicates a longer range over which the potential acts. The Sutton–Chen potential is observed to have a harder short-range interaction compared to the other potentials and the DFT results. This may indicate its unsuitability for studying small aluminium clusters. The repulsive strength of the Streitz–Mintmire potential is also observed to diminish more rapidly as compared to the other potentials, thus increasing the likelihood of smaller Al–Al separations in a cluster relative to the other potentials.

Table 4 shows the equilibrium separation values for the EAM potentials considered in this study, along with the values obtained by several *ab initio* and DFT calculations, as well as experiment for comparison. The results from the quantum mechanical calculations agree well with the experimental value of 2.835 Å, which corresponds to the low energy X ${}^{3}\Pi_{u}$ state. The Al₂ equilibrium separation distance as calculated using the NP-B potential is 0.133 Å shorter than the value predicted using PBE/DNP, while the bulk-fitted potentials underestimate the equilibrium separation value by an average of 0.45 Å.

This implies that these potentials will result in clusters that are more compact in structure, due to the increased bonding interaction between any two aluminium atoms.



Figure 2. Schematic diagram of the Al₃ arrangement.

3.3. Al₃

The next stage of our study involved an investigation of the angular dependence of the binding energy for different structural configurations of Al₃. Figure 2 provides a schematic representation of the arrangement of Al₃ with definitions of the key variables. Following the methodology of Truhlar and coworkers [28], binding energy curves were obtained for angles ranging from 15° to 175° (in 15° increments) for Al₃ clusters with arbitrary Al–Al bond lengths (r_1 , $r_2 = 2$, 2.3, 2.506, 2.863, 3.5, and 5 Å). We have also included the PBE0/MG3 data that was used to train the NP-B potential [28].

Figure 3 shows the binding energy for the different Al₃ arrangements. All of the bulk-fitted potentials were observed to overestimate the binding energy of the Al₃ cluster. In general, NP-B predicts the binding energy for the selected configurations quite accurately relative to PBE/DNP and PBE0/MG3. For small values of r_1 and r_2 , the EAM potentials were found to be relatively insensitive to the variation in θ , for angles greater than equilibrium angular separation (where the binding energy is at its minimum). Except for r_1 , $r_2 = 2.0$ Å, the Cleri–Rosato and Streitz–Mintmire potentials give almost identical binding energy curves. As the values of r_1 and r_2 were increased, the binding energy minimum was found to occur at successively smaller angles. The electronic state of the trimer at the equilibrium angular separation is ²A₁'



Figure 3. Binding energy of Al₃ as a function of angle at different r_1 , r_2 separations: (a) r_1 , $r_2 = 2$ Å, (b) r_1 , $r_2 = 2.3$ Å, (c) r_1 , $r_2 = 2.506$ Å, (d) r_1 , $r_2 = 2.863$ Å, (e) r_1 , $r_2 = 3.5$ Å, and (f) r_1 , $r_2 = 5$ Å.



Figure 4. Structural isomers of Al₁₂, shown from the side (left) and top (right).

Table 5. Binding energies (the binding energy for the I_h symmetry is given as an absolute value, while the rest are given in terms of difference with respect to the I_h value) for different Al_{12} symmetries.

Symmetry	PBE/DNP (eV)	Sutton-Chen (eV)	Cleri–Rosato (eV)	Streitz-Mintmire (eV)	NP-B (eV)
I _h	-27.4576 [11]	-32.7915	-29.7736	-29.8411	-27.5103
D _{3d}	0.2765	0.0296	0.0579	0.2171	0.0620
D _{5h}	0.2781	0.0305	0.0583	0.2175	0.0621
O_h	1.1265	0.4680	0.9151	0.9920	1.1510
D _{6h}	2.0938	0.6140	1.1430	1.2251	1.4290

3.4. Al_{12} and Al_{13}

In this section, we investigate the performance of the potentials for the determination of the structures and relative energies of isomers of Al_{12} and Al_{13} . Table 5 presents the binding energies for a selection of structural isomers of Al₁₂ (figure 4). In all cases, the I_h symmetric isomer is found to be the lowest in energy. However, as can be seen in table 5, there is quite a range in the calculated binding energies relative to the benchmark PBE/DNP values. Not surprisingly, the NP-B value is in close agreement with the PBE/DNP value. For the bulk-fitted potentials, Cleri-Rosato gives the closest agreement with the PBE/DNP value, closely followed by Streitz-Mintmire, while Sutton-Chen gives the largest error. The binding energies for the remaining isomers are given relative to the values for the structure in I_h symmetry, which was found to be the lowest energy isomer given by PBE/DNP. It is noteworthy that all of the potentials studied in this work give the correct ordering of binding energies, including the ordering of the I_h and D_{3d} symmetries that are observed to differ by only 0.0015 eV using PBE/DNP. The NP-B potential also predicts that these two isomers are essentially degenerate, with only 10^{-4} eV separating the two isomers. However, the energy difference at all levels, including DFT, between these symmetries is small and substantially less than thermal energy at room temperature. In general, binding energies obtained with the NP-B potential are within 0.13 eV of the PBE/DNP values. In comparison, Cleri–Rosato and Streitz–Mintmire values differ from PBE/DNP on average by 2.7 and 2.8 eV, respectively, while the average error for the Sutton–Chen potential is 6.2 eV.

Table 6 shows the characteristic distances for the I_h isomer of Al_{12} (figure 5) determined using geometry optimization with each of the EAM potentials and compared with the PBE/DNP values [11]. The Sutton–Chen potential significantly underestimates all of the key distances, with an average

Table 6. Characteristic distances for the Al_{12} cluster with I_h symmetry.

Distance type	PBE/DNP (Å) [11]	Sutton–Chen (Å)	Cleri–Rosato (Å)	Streitz–Mintmire (Å)	NP-B (Å)
Al ₁ -Al ₂	2.724	2.562	2.679	2.665	2.720
Alt-CAl	1.432	1.347	1.409	1.401	1.430
CAl–CAl	2.317	2.180	2.279	2.267	2.314
COM-Als	2.591	2.437	2.548	2.535	2.587
Alt–Alt	5.181	4.874	5.096	5.070	5.174
Average deviation		-5.93%	-1.64%	-2.16%	-0.14%

Table 7. Binding energies (the binding energy for the D_{3d} symmetry is given as an absolute value, while the rest are given relative to the D_{3d} value) for different Al_{13} symmetries.

Symmetry	PBE/DNP (eV)	Sutton–Chen (eV)	Cleri–Rosato (eV)	Streitz–Mintmire (eV)	NP-B (eV)
D _{3d}	-31.7136	-36.3230	-33.8064	-34.1071	-31.8873
I _h	0.0027 [11]	0.0044	0.0004	0.0006	-0.0015
D _{5h}	0.2962	0.2848	0.6038	0.5836	0.8283
Cs	0.5649	0.3644	0.7085	0.6917	0.9287
O _h	1.0940	0.3226	0.7078	0.7035	0.9166
D _{6h}	2.7781	0.7995	2.3248	2.2131	3.2739

Table 8. Characteristic distances for the Al₁₃ cluster with I_h symmetry.

Distance type	PBE/DNP (Å) [11]	Sutton-Chen (Å)	Cleri–Rosato (Å)	Streitz-Mintmire (Å)	NP-B (Å)
Al ₁ –Al ₂	2.808	2.694	2.796	2.792	2.841
Alt–CAl	1.476	1.417	1.470	1.468	1.494
CAl–CAl	2.388	2.292	2.379	2.375	2.417
COM-Als	2.670	2.563	2.660	2.655	2.702
Alt–Alt	5.340	5.125	5.319	5.311	5.404
Average deviation		-4.02%	-0.40%	-0.55%	+1.20%

deviation of 5.93% compared to PBE/DNP. Cleri–Rosato and Streitz–Mintmire also tend to slightly underestimate the key distances, but to a lesser extent (1.64% and 2.16%, respectively). This may be due to the overestimation of the binding energy by these potentials, as evidenced from table 5. Again, the NP-B potential, which was fitted to small cluster data, performed extremely well with a deviation of only 0.14% relative to the PBE/DNP results.

As a further test of the potentials, we investigate the structures and relative binding energies of isomers of Al₁₃ (figure 6). The binding energies of Al_{13} isomers are shown in table 7 relative to the values for the structure in D_{3d} symmetry; the lowest energy symmetry given by PBE/DNP. All levels considered predict that the D_{3d} and I_h isomers are very close in energy, with D_{3d} slightly favoured, except for NP-B, which favours the I_h isomer. However, despite the minor discrepancy, the NP-B potential gives the closest absolute binding energies for these isomers compared to PBE/DNP. All levels predict that the D_{5h} structure is next highest in energy. However, all of the potentials predict a much smaller separation in the binding energies of the C_s and O_h isomers compared to PBE/DNP and generally predict O_h to be slightly lower in energy than C_s. All levels predict D_{6h} to be of significantly higher energy than the other isomers. In terms of absolute binding energies, NP-B performs the best with an average deviation from PBE/DNP of 0.17 eV which is lower than the MUE reported by Jasper et al (0.67 eV) [28]. The difference is likely due to the



Figure 5. Schematic diagram of an Al_{12} cluster, showing the labelling and the centroids used for the structural analysis. For Al_{13} , an additional aluminium atom occupies the COM position.

large number of structures in the Al₁₃ group (consisting of Al₉ to Al₁₃) in Jasper *et al*'s data set [28]. Sutton–Chen differs by an average of 1.3 eV, while the Cleri–Rosato and Streitz–Mintmire potentials differ by an average of 0.41 and 0.49 eV, respectively. Jasper *et al* reported the MUEs from PBE0/MG3 to be 2.38, 3.26, and 1.27 eV, respectively for the Al₁₃ data set [48]. The deviations between the EAM methods and PBE/DNP for Al₁₃ cluster are generally lower than those for Al₁₂ cluster.

Table 8 shows the characteristic distances of the $I_{\rm h}$ isomer of ${\rm Al}_{13}$ obtained by geometry optimization with the



Figure 6. Structural isomers of Al₁₃, shown from the side (left) and top (right).

different potentials. Similar to the results for Al_{12} clusters, the Sutton–Chen potential underestimates the key distances, with an average deviation of 4.02% from PBE/DNP, which is also reflected in the overestimation of the binding energy as shown in table 5. The NP-B potential only slightly overestimates the distances, with an average deviation of 1.20%. Surprisingly, the Cleri–Rosato and Streitz–Mintmire potentials performed extremely well for the structure of Al_{13} , with average deviations of 0.40% and 0.55%, respectively.

3.5. Al₃₄ and Al₅₅

After evaluating the performance of the EAM potentials on small clusters, we provide a preliminary examination of the melting process for two larger clusters (Al_{34} and Al_{55}), determined using each of the potentials. The potentials are compared in terms of the characteristic nearest neighbour distances of the clusters, Lindemann index, which can be used to measure the melting process [51–53], and melting temperature. The Lindemann index is a measure of the relative root-mean-square bond-length fluctuation and is defined as

$$\delta = \frac{2}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i < j} \frac{\sqrt{\langle r_{ij}^2 \rangle_t - \langle r_{ij} \rangle_t^2}}{\langle r_{ij} \rangle_t}$$

where r_{ij} is the separation between atoms *i* and *j*, *N* is the number of atoms, and the $\langle \rangle_t$ symbols indicate time average.

At temperatures below the melting point, the individual atoms of the cluster vibrate around their equilibrium positions. However, the bond length between any two atoms will not change significantly from their equilibrium values. As the temperature is increased beyond the melting point, the atoms gain translational freedom and deviate from their equilibrium positions, thus increasing the Lindemann index significantly.

Figure 7 presents the Lindemann index as a function of temperature for Al₃₄. All the potentials exhibit a straightforward, one-stage melting process. However, the Al₃₄ cluster modelled with the Sutton–Chen potential is predicted to melt at a temperature below 200 K, which is outside the range of temperatures considered in this study. Puri and Yang also confirmed the Sutton–Chen potential to severely underestimate the melting temperature of bulk and large aluminium clusters (up to 9 nm in diameter) [54]. However, the Cleri–Rosato, Streitz–Mintmire, and NP-B potentials all give similar performance, with the Lindemann indices that start at ~0.02 at 150 K and increase to ~0.16 at 800 K after melting.

Table 9 presents the melting temperatures of the cluster determined from the Lindemann index as predicted by the potentials. In this work, we have defined the melting temperature as the point where the Lindemann index is halfway between the two boundary values. The melting temperature of the Sutton–Chen potential cannot be calculated from the data that we obtained for this study. All the other potentials predict melting temperatures that are relatively consistent (with



Figure 7. Lindemann index of the Al_{34} cluster as a function of temperature for the EAM potentials.



Figure 8. Lindemann index of the Al₅₅ cluster as a function of temperature for the EAM potentials.

Table 9. Melting temperatures of Al₃₄ cluster.

EAM potential	$T_{\rm m}$ (K)
Sutton–Chen Cleri–Rosato Streitz–Mintmire NP-B	<200 280 305 350

an average value of 312 K), with \sim 70 K separating the three values. The Cleri–Rosato value is at the lower end of the range (280 K), while NP-B predicts a higher temperature of 350 K.

Figure 8 shows the Lindemann index as a function of temperature for the Al₅₅ cluster. We have not included the Sutton–Chen results due to the underestimation of the melting temperature observed in Al₃₄. As for the Al₃₄ cluster, the Lindemann indices for the other potentials show a one-stage melting process, with values again starting at ~0.02 and increasing to ~0.16 after melting.

Table 10 shows the melting temperatures of the Al₅₅ cluster as predicted by the potentials. The spread of the melting temperatures is larger (\sim 100 K) compared to the Al₃₄ cluster. The lowest melting temperature was predicted by the Streitz–Mintmire potential at 485 K, which compares favourably with the value found by Alavi and Thompson using the same potential (450±90 K) [51]. The melting temperature predicted



Figure 9. The core (blue, or black in the print version) and shell (pink, or grey in the print version) regions of the (a) Al_{34} and (b) Al_{55} clusters.

Table 10. Melting temperatures of Al₅₅ cluster.

EAM potential	$T_{\rm m}$ (K)
Cleri-Rosato	515
Streitz-Mintmire	485
	450 ± 90 [51]
NP-B	585

by the Cleri–Rosato potential is 30 K higher than the Streitz– Mintmire value, while NP-B again predicts a higher melting temperature of 585 K.

In order to evaluate the structural properties of the clusters after melting, two regions have been defined and shown in figure 9 that we will subsequently refer to as the core and shell. Radial distribution functions of the clusters at 800 K (i.e. above the melting temperature) were then obtained on these two regions and the characteristic nearest neighbour distances compared.

Table 11 shows the nearest neighbour distances for the structures obtained with the different potentials. In general, the shell region has a longer nearest neighbour distance compared to the core region. For the Al₃₄ cluster, Sutton-Chen gives a very short shell nearest neighbour distance, which is related to the underestimation of bond lengths, discussed earlier for smaller clusters that have higher surface atom-to-bulk ratios. Cleri-Rosato and Streitz-Mintmire give no appreciable difference between the core and shell nearest neighbour distances, while NP-B shows a longer shell than core nearest neighbour distance. For the Al₅₅ cluster, all the potentials give slight variations in the distances, with Cleri-Rosato predicting slightly shorter shell nearest neighbour distances, but well within the margin of uncertainty in the calculation. Overall, the distances are consistent with the analysis on the Al₁₂ and Al₁₃ surface atoms discussed in section 3.4, with the NP-B giving the longest nearest neighbour distance between the surface atoms, compared to the other potentials.

4. Conclusions

In this paper, we have compared the performance of three bulkfitted and a cluster-fitted EAM potential for the determination of the structural and energetic properties of a range of Al clusters, compared to PBE/DNP calculations as a benchmark.

All of the bulk-fitted potentials were observed to overestimate the binding energies for small clusters, with

Table 11. Nearest neighbour distances (Å) of the core and shell regions of the Al₃₄ and Al₅₅ clusters at 800 K.

	А	l ₃₄	Al	55
Potential	Core	Shell	Core	Shell
Sutton–Chen Cleri–Rosato Streitz–Mintmire NP-B	$\begin{array}{c} 2.74 \pm 0.02 \\ 2.75 \pm 0.02 \\ 2.72 \pm 0.02 \\ 2.74 \pm 0.02 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.59 \pm 0.02 \\ 2.75 \pm 0.02 \\ 2.75 \pm 0.02 \\ 2.81 \pm 0.02 \end{array}$		

largest variations for Al₂ and Al₃. The Sutton-Chen potential is found unsuitable in predicting the structural properties of these clusters, overestimating the strength of the interactions between aluminium atoms, which results in a 4% underestimation of bond lengths. This may be due to the Sutton-Chen being fitted to just structural data, which does not take into account the energetics data such as the vacancy formation energy and surface energies. The Cleri-Rosato and Streitz-Mintmire potentials were shown to perform rather well for predicting Al₁₂ and Al₁₃ structures, although with higher absolute binding energy value differences compared to PBE/DNP results. For the Al₃₄ and Al₅₅ clusters, these potentials predict nearest neighbour distances that are slightly shorter compared to the values obtained using the NP-B potential. The melting temperatures predicted by these potentials are also lower compared to the value predicted by the NP-B potential. While this suggests that they can be used to predict the structures of relatively large aluminium clusters reasonably well, the potentials may not be appropriate to predict their energetics.

As expected, the NP-B potential is well suited to studying small aluminium clusters due to its ability to predict both structures and energetics accurately, with results that are very close to those obtained using DFT calculations. However, this potential may not be suitable for use in certain bulk and surface systems due to its inability to predict the elastic properties accurately.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to acknowledge the CSIRO Flagship for Hydrogen Materials Alliance for providing funding for this project. JDG would also like to thank the Government of Western Australia for support. We also acknowledge APAC for the grant of computer simulation time.

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