The tight-binding (TB) Hamiltonian is parametrized for Ca nanoclusters by fitting to the energy surfaces of small clusters and to the total energy and band structure of bulk fcc and bcc calcium calculated within an all-electron density-functional formalism. Clusters of 32 to 84 atoms are optimized using the TB model and a combination of molecular dynamics–simulated annealing and genetic algorithms. At zero temperature, magic numbers are predicted for 34-, 37-, 39-, 45-, 53-, 57-61-, and 82-atoms clusters, which range from 1 to 2 nm in size. The nanoclusters’ positive ions keep the same geometrical structure as their neutral counterparts. Novel structures are obtained for 35-, 38-, 43-, 50-, 58-, 59-, 62-, 63-, and 76–84-atoms nanoclusters. There is an enhanced ratio of surface to bulk atoms in these nanoclusters that favors an expansion of the surface bond lengths. Furthermore, based on TB molecular-dynamics results of the mean-square displacement as a function of temperature, a premelting of the surface occurs around 600 K. The energy gap between occupied and empty states in the valence band is cluster-size-dependent. Large fluctuations of this energy gap indicate that nanoclusters with more than 50 atoms have metallic characteristics. A normal mode vibrational analysis predicts that the structure of the magic number clusters is maintained even at temperatures around 600 K.

I. INTRODUCTION

Calcium is one of the most abundant elements on earth and is widely used when combined with other elements. Calcium and strontium are soft alkaline-earth metals that display important structural changes under pressure which are not characteristic of other metals.1 For small calcium clusters of up to 13 atoms, the structure, energetics, and electronic structure were studied within the all-electron density-functional approach.2 A massive computational effort would be needed to investigate clusters of larger sizes at the same level of calculation. It is therefore important to develop a simplified quantum-mechanical model such as the tight-binding approach that would be well parametrized for clusters containing several tens to hundreds of atoms that reach the nanometer-size regime.

Classical studies to model calcium cluster structures in this size range were carried out based on a parametrization on bulk calcium properties3 of the Murrell-Mottram two- and three-body potential.4 For small clusters with fewer than 20 atoms, this potential overestimates the binding energies and does not predict the quantum mechanically optimized structures for several cluster sizes.5 For larger cluster sizes containing several hundreds of atoms, a growth following a pattern that fills atomic icosahedral shells was predicted based on the relative abundance observed in the mass spectrum of hot calcium clusters.5 However, the structural, electronic, and thermodynamic properties of calcium clusters containing tens of atoms are not well characterized. More specifically, it would be interesting if the structure of nanoclusters could be identified experimentally in this size range. Calcium is very reactive, and nanocluster surface characterization is important.

The mass spectra of calcium and strontium nanoclusters6–9 display similar but not identical features. In both spectra, clusters with 34 and 61 atoms are very abundant and can be identified as magic numbers. The strontium mass spectrum shows another magic number at Sr35 not observed in the calcium mass spectrum. Indeed, the calcium spectrum shows a not too strong abundance peak at Ca40–Ca81.7,8 Additionally, the calcium mass spectrum shows large abundance at Ca37. Other not so pronounced abundant clusters sizes are observed at Ca43 and Ca52.8 However, in contemporary experiments of the same group7 the latter were not clearly detected. The lack of more recent experimental data under better-controlled experimental conditions is unfortunate. Our recent studies of strontium clusters, based on the second-moment-approximation (SMA) many-body potential, have predicted that at low but finite temperatures, the symmetric structures Sr34 D5h and Sr61 Td are magic numbers.9 Predictions for calcium nanoclusters put forward in this study will be of interest to several experimental groups.

Contrary to our successful parametrization of the SMA many-body potential for strontium clusters,9 we were unable to effectively carry over an equivalent process in the case of calcium. The SMA many-body potential is a classical representation of the tight-binding approach, and recently we have also produced cluster-based parametrizations of SMA many-body potentials for sodium,10 potassium, cesium,11 and rubidium.12 Our SMA many-body potentials have further been used in a variety of studies. For example, Calvo and Spiegelmann13 used the sodium SMA many-body potential to study phase transitions in sodium clusters containing several tens of atoms.

The calcium cluster electronic structure is different from strontium retaining peculiar quantum characteristics at much larger sizes. Following a fitting strategy similar to Sr,9 and generalizing the tight-binding (TB) parametrization of bulk calcium,1 the objectives of this work are (i) to describe a parametrization strategy of the tight-binding model that contains information on the structure and energy of small clusters, as well as on the energy and band structure of fcc and bcc bulk calcium, and (ii) use the so-fitted TB model to
describe the structural and dynamical properties of calcium nanoclusters. This size regime has not been explored for calcium clusters with a simplified quantum-mechanical description. Indeed, considerable work has been done in the past ten years on the issue of the transferability of TB models. TB models constructed from bulk properties were used to study surfaces, or models from selected lattice symmetries were used to study lattices of different symmetries. The applicability of sets of TB bulk-determined parameters to the study of atomic clusters has also been explored. More recently, Xie and Blackman provided a TB model for rhodium within an orthogonal spd basis set, which is transferable from clusters to bulk solid. Calcium is very different from rhodium because of the relatively long-range interatomic forces in the alkaline earths and the extended character of the valence band when compared to transition metals. Our recent TB study of bulk calcium reproduced correctly the metal-nonmetal and fcc-bcc pressure-induced transitions, and thus the application of TB to Ca nanoclusters is promising. For sodium, there has been a simplified TB model with parameters fitted on Na2 and Na4 (Ref. 30) but not on bulk properties. This simplified TB model did not include d orbitals, and the authors find discrepancies between structures calculated with the SMA model and with their TB model for sizes containing more than 40 Na clusters.

In this paper, we generalize the strategy developed for the parametrization of the SMA many-body potential and apply it to the parametrization of the TB Hamiltonian. We adopt the Naval Research Laboratory (NRL)-TB model to describe the functional dependence of the on-site and hopping integrals with the local environment. This method is described in Sec. II. With the newly parametrized TB model, properties of Ca nanoclusters are explored such as the energetics, structure, stability, and several electronic and thermodynamic properties. Section III presents the calculation of structures of minimum energy for Ca32 through Ca65 and Ca66 through Ca44 obtained by simulated annealing carried out with TB molecular dynamics. Section IV describes the electronic and vibrational properties of these nanoclusters, and Sec. V gives a description of the clusters’ finite-temperature properties, including results on the cluster surface premelting. Section VI ends with a brief summary.

II. THE TIGHT-BINDING PARAMETRIZATION FOR CALCIUM NANOCLUSTERS

The adopted TB model is based on the Slater-Koster (SK) approach in which s, p, and d orbitals span a 9×9 matrix representation of the TB Hamiltonian. The k-independent parts of the SK Hamiltonian matrix elements are assumed to be parameters. We used a nonorthogonal basis set of atomic orbitals, therefore the number of SK parameters is 24. These matrix elements are the on-site and hopping integrals, which become environment-dependent. Calcium is an element where d orbitals should be included because the conduction band has 30% d character. In this work, we adopt the NRL-TB functions for the dependencies of the matrix elements on the local environment such that \( O_l(p) = a + b p^{2/3} + c p^{4/3} + \epsilon p^2 \),

\[
H_m(R) = (a_m + b_m R + c_m R^2) e^{-\delta_m R} F_m(R),
\]

where \( l \) and \( m \) are indices identifying the four on-site integrals and the 20 different hopping integrals and nondiagonal elements of the overlap matrix, respectively. The quantities \( \alpha_l, \beta_l, \gamma_l, \delta_l, a_m, b_m, c_m, \) and \( d_m \) are parameters to be fitted and \( \rho \) is the local atomic density around each atom \( i \) in the cluster,

\[
\rho_i = \sum_{j \neq i} e^{-k^2(l-j)} F_i(R_{ij}).
\]

Here \( \lambda \) is another parameter to be fitted, and \( R_{ij} \) is the interatomic distance between atoms \( i \) and \( j \). The cutoff function defining the spatial range of every integral is given by

\[
F_i(R) = [1 + e^{(R/R_0)^{\tau}}]^{-1},
\]

where \( \tau=91.71 \) and \( R_0=18.35 \) Å, such that 19 shells around every atom are included in bulk fcc calcium. In the case of clusters with about 100 atoms, this cutoff ensures that the range of interatomic forces extends outside the volume of the cluster.

Following this scheme, we fitted the 97 parameters entering in Eqs. (1)–(3) to the energy bands and cohesive energy of bulk fcc and bcc calcium and to 30 points of the energy surfaces of Ca3 through Ca13. For the bulk energies, we considered seven fcc structures at lattice constants in the range 8.5–11 a.u. and five bcc structures with lattice constants between 7.2 and 8.4 a.u. For the energy bands of each fcc lattice, 85 k points of the irreducible Brillouin zone (IBZ) were used in the fit, whereas only 55 k points were used for each bcc structure. The bulk calculations were done in the augmented-plane-wave approximation as described in Ref. 1. For the fit to the energies of clusters, we used data calculated within the all-electron general gradient approximation of density functional as described in Ref. 2. Table I identifies the cluster structures used in the fit (column 2), the number of points of each energy surface used in the fit (column 3), and their ab initio binding energies \( E_N \) from Ref. 2 (column 4). In this fit, we enhanced the weights of the energies by a factor of 16 and decreased accordingly the weights given to the energy bands. The effect is an overall deterioration of the total energy that resulted in an error over the 12 solid structures of 2 mRy. Table II lists the resulting TB parameters for Ca clusters.

Column 5 in Table I lists the cluster binding energies from the TB model using the parameters of Table II. These energies are calculated at the exact geometry of the ab initio results (column 4). These geometries are stable under the TB model, however the TB tends to expand slightly all distances. By an isotropic scaling of the coordinates in each cluster, we determine the scaling factor that yields the minimum binding energy under the same structure. One condition imposed in the parametrization procedure was to accept TB parameters only if the scaling factor was smaller than 1.025 for all the structures used in the fit. This condition is satisfied for the TB parameters reported in Table II, as shown in column 6 of Table I. The TB energy at the minimum of the
scale geometries is given in column 7. As a comparison, in column 8 are listed the binding energies that would be obtained if the parameters for bulk calcium of Ref. 1 were to be used. It is clear that use of the bulk calcium parameters would underestimate the binding energy. Reciprocally, we also calculated the energy bands of bulk fcc and bcc calcium with this new set of TB parameters and obtained a reasonable agreement at the equilibrium lattice constant. To check the effectiveness of the fitting strategy, an alternative fit was sought in which the same bulk data were included but the energy points of only Ca$_6$ to Ca$_{10}$ were included in the fit. This “intermediate” parametrization predicted the binding energy of Ca$_{11}$, Ca$_{12}$, and Ca$_{13}$ within 2.2% of the ab initio results.

### III. STRUCTURE OF Ca NANOCLUSTERS

The structure of minimum-energy cluster isomers containing 32 to 84 atoms was searched using a combination of genetic algorithms (GA) and molecular dynamics simulated annealing. In both cases, the TB model was used to calculate the energies. The GA method was described elsewhere. The minimum-energy structures obtained with the GA were further relaxed with molecular dynamics simulated annealing. The tight-binding molecular dynamics (TBMD) implementation of Ref. 33 was used throughout with a time step of 1.5 fs. The annealing was done by heating the cluster structure to about 700 K and further cooling down in a steplike manner to 600 K, 400 K, 300 K, 200 K, 100 K, 50 K, and finally 0.001 K. This process was also performed with a set of other preconditioning structures from our database, as well as from known structures characteristic of several model potentials such as Lennard-Jones, Morse, Sutton-Chen, and SMA many-body.

The TBMD relaxation was carried out for every size between Ca$_{32-63}$ and between Ca$_{76-84}$. This range of sizes is of special interest because it encompasses 34, 61, and 81–82, which are the magic numbers revealed in the mass spectrum of both calcium and strontium.

Results of the binding energy $E_{\text{N}}$ of the most stable neutral clusters as a function of cluster size are reported in Table III along with the point-group symmetry identification of every structure. The binding energy is defined as the total TB energy of a neutral cluster with $N$ atoms referred to the TB energy of $N$ isolated atoms. Additionally, we calculated the binding energy $E_{\text{N}}$ of cluster cations as a function of size, and the results are shown in Table III. Figure 1 gives a comparison between the neutral and the ionic binding energies. As a test, for certain sizes, such as 34, 45, 61, and 82, the structure of the singly ionized clusters was relaxed in much the same way as for the neutral clusters. Results of this process gave identical lowest-energy structures to those of the neutral clusters, indicating that the structural distortion produced by the lack of one valence electron is negligible. This nanosize result contrasts with the dramatic change in structure that occurs for small clusters up to Ca$_5$. The binding energy decreases very slowly with cluster size such that for Ca$_{90}$ only 82% of the bulk binding energy of $E_{\text{N}}$ (Ref. 38) is attained. Results for the ionic clusters should be seen as estimates, because the TB parametrization was done on data of neutral clusters and neutral bulk.

The second difference of the cluster total energy is an accepted representation of the relative energetic stability correlated to the abundance in the mass spectrum. Figure 2 gives the stability pattern that illustrates how stable is a cluster with $N$ atoms when compared to clusters with neighboring sizes $N-1$ and $N+1$. The pattern reveals magic numbers at 34, 37, 39, 45, 53, 57, 61, and 82 at zero temperature. These nanoclusters are shown in Fig. 3. Except for Ca$_{37}$, all are highly symmetric structures. The experimental data display 34, 37, and 61 as clusters with high abundance, and 43, 52, and 81 with substantial abundance. These experiments were performed eight years ago, and the temperature was probably high to give rise to an evaporative ensemble. Except for the first three well defined sizes of 34, 37, and 61, this group contemporarily reported slightly different abundances for the other sizes. For example, Ref. 7 identifies fairly abundant 50-, 55-, and 80-atom clusters. We know now that the magic numbers are temperature-dependent and thus new experiments under controlled temperature conditions are highly desirable.

Several of the lowest-energy cluster geometries obtained from the TBMD relaxation process are known structures obtained with the Morse potential, although in the TB clusters the bond lengths are different and most bond angles present significant distortions. The Ca$_{34}$ $D_{5h}$, Ca$_{61}$ $T_d$, and Ca$_{82}$ $D_{3d}$

### Table I. Structure and binding energy per atom of Ca$_6$ to Ca$_{13}$ used in the fit of the TB parameters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Symmetry</th>
<th>No. points</th>
<th>$-E_N/N$ Ref. 2</th>
<th>$-E_{\text{TB}}/N$</th>
<th>factor</th>
<th>$-E_{\text{TB}}^{\text{scaled}}/N$</th>
<th>$-E_{\text{TB}}/N$ Ref. 1</th>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>$C_{2v}$</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.065</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>$D_{5h}$</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.623</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.325</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>$C_s$</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>0.346</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>$C_{2v}$</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.687</td>
<td>0.627</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.630</td>
<td>0.454</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>$C_{4v}$</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.752</td>
<td>0.7356</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.736</td>
<td>0.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>$D_{4d}$</td>
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<td>0.756</td>
<td>0.571</td>
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<td>$C_1$</td>
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<td>0.781</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td>0.632</td>
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Energies are in eV/at.
are close to be polytetrahedral constructions, whereas the icosahedral $\text{Ca}_{45}$ is built around the McKay 13-atom icosahedron by decorating its 20 faces with one atom each, and adding 12 atoms radially placed from its 12 vertices. $\text{Ca}_{46}$ through $\text{Ca}_{49}$ keep the McKay 13-atom icosahedron as their core. No other clusters present this icosahedral inner shell.

We found several new structures. Namely, the structures of $\text{Ca}_{35}$, $\text{Ca}_{38}$, $\text{Ca}_{43}$, $\text{Ca}_{50}$, $\text{Ca}_{58}$, $\text{Ca}_{59}$, $\text{Ca}_{62}$, $\text{Ca}_{63}$, and $\text{Ca}_{76}$–$\text{Ca}_{84}$ have not been reported for any model potential, nor were they in our database. The corresponding clusters are shown in Fig. 4. $\text{Ca}_{35}$ is the structure of $\text{Ca}_{34}$ ($D_{5h}$) in which one face is decorated with an extra atom. $\text{Ca}_{38}$ is not the usual structure cut from the fcc lattice characteristic of several model potentials such as the Lennard-Jones potential. Instead, the new structure of $\text{Ca}_{38}$ has a lower symmetry of $C_{2v}$. $\text{Ca}_{43}$ has a relaxed structure of the inner shell of $\text{Ca}_{61}$ with one missing atom. $\text{Ca}_{50}$ presents a combination of fivefold and sixfold motifs. The clusters $\text{Ca}_{58}$ and $\text{Ca}_{59}$ are incomplete $\text{Ca}_{61}$ ($T_d$) in which two and three of the most external atoms are missing and a local relaxation has occurred. $\text{Ca}_{62}$ and $\text{Ca}_{63}$ show the onset of an extra shell of atoms on $\text{Ca}_{61}$ ($T_d$). $\text{Ca}_{76}$ is still fairly spherical, starting to show an ellipsoidal elongation that improves with size to become very pronounced in $\text{Ca}_{82}$ ($D_{3d}$).

In these nanoclusters, the nearest-neighbor distances (bond lengths) display a significant dispersion with a non-Gaussian distribution. The tendency is for the “core” atoms to be shorter than the bonds between the “surface” atoms. To show this bond expansion, we performed the following analysis. A coordination sphere of radius 4.6 Å centered on...

<table>
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<tr>
<th>$l$</th>
<th>$\alpha$ (Ry)</th>
<th>$\beta$ (Ry)</th>
<th>$\gamma$ (Ry)</th>
<th>$\delta$ (Ry)</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>5.1028</td>
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### Hopping parameters

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<th>$c$ (Ry/Bohr$^2$)</th>
<th>$d$ (Bohr$^{-1/2}$)</th>
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### Overlap integral parameters

<table>
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<th>$b$ (Bohr$^{-2}$)</th>
<th>$c$ (Bohr$^{-3}$)</th>
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<td>-2.092363 $\times$ 10$^5$</td>
<td>16132</td>
<td>1.4303</td>
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each atom is defined. Inside each sphere, one identifies the nearest neighbors to the atom located in its center. The center of mass (CM) of atoms inside each sphere is calculated and the distance $d_{CM}$ from this point to the central atom is stored. Atoms with $d_{CM} > 0.7$ Å are identified as surface atoms and all the rest as core atoms. This analysis distinguishes between core atoms having a complete 12-atom coordination shell from surface atoms characterized by coordination shells containing fewer than 12 atom. Following this accounting criterion, the number of surface atoms in the size range under study follows a power law $1.39^N - 0.84\pm 0.05$, with an exponent larger than the characteristic $2/3$ exponent of infinite surfaces. Therefore, the nanocluster surfaces are more populated than in extended materials, and the effect of the core atoms is not strong enough to achieve the bond length contraction expected in extended surfaces.

Figure 5 shows the results of bond lengths in both core and surface regions. The open circles in this plot are averages of nearest distances between pairs of core atoms and the black circles correspond to nearest distances between pairs of surface atoms. It is very clear that bonds associated to surface atoms are expanded by about 10% for sizes up to about $N=50$ and by about 4% for sizes around $N=80$. This expansion is larger than that obtained with classical model potentials, and it is not related to the spatial frustration that occurs in the McKay icosahedra. For example, the 55-atom McKay icosahedron is a stable isomer of Ca$_{55}$ with energy 1.70 eV above the $C_1$ structure reported in Table III. In this isomer, the core has 13 atoms and the expansion of the surface bonds...
with respect to the core bonds is 2%. This contrasts with the 15-atom core and surface bond length expansion of 6% obtained for the TB most stable Ca55. From our results, it is apparent that up to Ca49 there is a significant number of fivefold symmetry motifs. However, for larger nanoclusters the hexagonal motifs become more abundant favoring a larger core of atoms with 12-atom coordination shells. In turn, this effect entails rearrangements on the surface such that bonds lengthen in order to generate fairly spherical particles. A general observation is that in the smaller clusters, the surface expansion of amorphouslike higher-energy isomers tends to be smaller than for the ground state. For example, Ca34 $D_{5h}$, Ca45 $I_h$, Ca51 $T_d$, and Ca82 $D_{3d}$ present a surface expansion of 8%, 11%, 4%, and 5%, respectively. However, their higher-energy amorphouslike structures display surface expansions of only 3%, 7%, 2%, and 5%, respectively.

IV. ELECTRONIC AND VIBRATIONAL PROPERTIES OF THE GROUND STATE

At very low temperature, the Fermi energy is basically constant as a function of the cluster size. The energy gap between the highest occupied valence electron level and the first virtual level is calculated at the equivalent of the IBZ-G point for the bulk calcium and displays a size dependence. Figure 6 illustrates the energy gap at zero temperature as a function of cluster size. Values reported in this figure are molecular dynamics time averages at 0.001 K. The general trend is a decrease in the average energy gap as the size of the cluster increases. This trend was expected, showing that the metallic character of the nanoclusters is more definite when their size exceeds 49 atoms. Sizes below Ca50 tend to have a substantial energy gap, and larger clusters have an incipient metallic character with a low density of states (DOS) at the Fermi energy $E_F$, as shown in Figs. 7(a) for Ca45 and Ca125 and in Fig. 7(b) for Ca82 and Ca182. In this

FIG. 3. Structures corresponding to magic numbers of calcium nanoclusters.

FIG. 4. New calcium nanocluster structures found in this study.

FIG. 5. Bond lengths in the cluster surface (empty circles) and in the cluster inner core (black circles) as a function of size.
The DOS($E_F$) in Ca$_{45}$ is clearly zero and in Ca$_{82}$ is still low, approximately 20 times lower than the bulk values.$^1$ Similar findings were obtained for the cluster ions, as shown in Figs. 7. The peculiar electronic behavior (large energy gaps) for sizes smaller that Ca$_{30}$ might be associated to the large number of fivefold symmetry motifs. This effect was investigated extensively by analyzing the energy gap of 20 higher-energy stable isomers of Ca$_{45}$ available in our database. The large energy gap is observed only in Ca$_{45}$ $I_h$. In fact, the isomer closest in energy to the icosahedral Ca$_{45}$ is a structure obtained from seeding Ca$_{44}$ with one extra atom. This amorphouslike isomer is 1.4 eV less stable and its energy gap of 0.09 eV is only a third of the icosahedral energy gap. The energy gap of the other 19 isomers of Ca$_{45}$ ranges between 0.02 and 0.06 eV.

Further study of the ground state was achieved through the spectra of normal modes of vibration calculated for selected cluster sizes. Figure 8 shows these spectra and the corresponding density of vibrational states. All clusters, including the magic numbers Ca$_{34}$, Ca$_{45}$, Ca$_{61}$, and Ca$_{82}$, present a noticeable lack of vibrational modes with low frequencies. This gap becomes narrower as size increases. For Ca$_{82}$, the density of vibrational states at low frequencies is high enough to attempt a fit to a quadratic function of $\nu$ and extract an estimate of the Debye temperature. The result is $\Theta_D$=160 K, which is 30% smaller than the bulk value of 230 K.

Once the vibrational frequencies are known, the standard harmonic quantum analysis of solids can be carried out to determine the Helmholtz free energy $F$. This vibrational-based thermodynamics is done in the canonical ensemble and addresses excitations of the quantum oscillators. Therefore, the “temperature” is that of a thermostat on an infinite number of identical systems, and not a result of time averaging the kinetic energy of the atoms in one isolated cluster. This quantum analysis was performed on the ground state of several structures, on both the magic number structures Ca$_{34}$ $D_{5h}$, Ca$_{45}$ $I_h$, Ca$_{61}$ $T_d$, and Ca$_{82}$ $D_{3d}$, and on several other low-energy amorphouslike structures of these cluster sizes. The ground states of the amorphouslike isomers considered are 2.93, 1.37, 3.26, and 1.02 eV less stable than the ground state of the magic number structures. By analyzing the free-energy behavior as a function of temperature, we found that the amorphous isomers of these cluster sizes continue to be less stable than the very symmetric magic number structures up to temperatures of around 1200 K. We also investigated the relative stability of clusters around $N$=82 with respect to their neighbors by calculating the temperature dependence of the second difference of the free energy, $F(N+1)+F(N−1)$ − 2$F(N)$. The magic number $N$=82 in the $D_{3d}$ symmetry persists even at temperatures of about 600 K. The zero point energy of the magic number structures 34, 45, 61, and 82 is 1.465, 2.060, 2.839, and 3.885 eV, respectively. The zero point energy of the amorphouslike structures is basically
identical to that of the symmetrical structures. For example, for Ca$_{82}$ the lowest-energy amorphouslike structure has a binding energy of $-1.523$ eV/atom and a zero point energy of 3.86 eV.

The harmonic analysis was also done to address the thermal stability of the calcium positive ions. For that, we performed the harmonic analysis on the ionized clusters around Ca$_{82}$ and calculated the second difference of the free energy as a function of temperature. At least within this TB approach, our results indicate insignificant changes due to the lack of one electron. At finite temperatures of about 600 K, both Ca$_{45}$ and Ca$_{61}$ are relatively more stable than their size neighbors. This reconfirms that Ca$_{82}$ $D_{4d}$ is a predicted magic number from our calculation.

V. FINITE TEMPERATURE PROPERTIES OF Ca NANOCLUSTERS

Extensive TBMD at constant energy calculations were performed for selected cluster sizes. For every structure considered, the TBMD was run for 2000 time steps (of 1.5 x $10^{-15}$ sec each) to equilibrate, and averages reported in Figs. 9 and 10 were calculated over subsequent runs of 10 000 steps. These calculations are extremely cpu-intensive. For example, in the case of Ca$_{45}$, the cpu usage of a dedicated dual processor (Intel Xeon 3.08 GHz with hyper threading) is 11 s per MD step.

The cluster internal energy, $E(T)$, as a function of temperature increases linearly as shown in Fig. 9(a) for Ca$_{34}$ $D_{5h}$, Ca$_{45}$ $I_h$, Ca$_{61}$ $T_d$, and Ca$_{82}$ $D_{4d}$ (empty symbols). Also shown in Fig. 9(a) are the averages of the potential energy $U(T)$ (black symbols). The continuous lines in this figure correspond to the internal energy calculated in the quantum harmonic approximation as described in the previous section. The agreement between the TBMD results and the harmonic results indicates that the harmonic approximation is indeed reliable up to temperatures of about 600 K. At very low temperatures, the zero point energy has a non-negligible contribution showing the quantum behavior of the material. Of course this effect is not captured by TBMD that only shows the classical contribution of atomic vibrations. The isometric specific heat can be easily calculated from $C_V = [dE(T)/dT]_{NV}$ giving the classical value of 3 per atom in units of $k_B$ (Boltzmann’s constant), for the four cluster sizes shown in Fig. 9(a). This is the expected result for solidlike clusters where the motion of the atoms is treated classically, as it is done by TBMD.

The electronic contribution to the specific heat is very small when compared to the dominant vibrational contribution. In fact, the Fermi temperature of Ca is $4.9 \times 10^4$ K. Therefore, the electronic contribution to $C_V/N/k_B$ at 600 K is only 0.05.

The fluctuations (standard deviation $\sigma_{E}$) of the potential energy $U(T)$ are illustrated in Fig. 9(b), showing that the magnitude of the potential-energy spread increases linearly with temperature and the expected decrease with system size $O(N^{-1/2})$ is visible. Furthermore, since all the TBMD calculations were done at constant energy, the fluctuations of the kinetic energy (or temperature) are equal to those of the potential energy.

There are no significant changes of the Fermi energy when temperature increases. On the other hand, for Ca$_{61}$ and Ca$_{82}$ the gap energies show a noticeable decrease with increasing temperature and display large fluctuations, as shown...
in Figs. 10(a) and 10(b). However, $Ca_{34}$ and $Ca_{45}$ display a finite energy gap at all temperatures, with very large fluctuations. These fluctuations increase with temperature quite dramatically, pointing to the possibility of nanoclusters larger than $N=49$ transitioning to a metallic state at temperatures around 500 K. For example, at around 500 K, $Ca_{82}$ displays a fluctuating energy gap of $0.04 \pm 0.03$ eV and a fluctuating DOS($E_F$) of $0.11 \pm 0.08$ states/eV/at (about two electrons are promoted to virtual states). This is in contrast to the behavior of $Ca_{45}$ at that temperature, where the energy gap is $0.16 \pm 0.06$ eV but the DOS($E_F$) is zero. In the above values, the reported deviations pertain to twice the standard deviation.

In our TB calculations, as in other TB models, one is limited to searches of configuration space that exclude very short distances between any two atoms. This is related to the fitting strategy adopted. The purpose of including lattices at high densities in the TB fit was to allow for the possibility of atoms to approach up to a minimum distance of 2.9 Å. Therefore, bond lengths can squeeze to about 30%, at most. For this reason, we were unable to heat the larger clusters above temperatures of about 600 K (highest temperature in Fig. 9). It is apparent that when the cluster is metallic, the amplitudes of bond oscillations are large. In the case of $Ca_{82}$, the $D_{2d}$ structure is still preserved around 550 K, but amplitudes of vibration of several surface atoms are as large as 1.25 Å. If the system would be subject to higher temperatures (or pressures), this TB model would fail since it was not parametrized to study such conditions.

To study the thermal stability of the various structures, the atomic mean-squared displacement (MSD) was calculated with TBMD. For a cluster with $N$ atoms, the averaged atomic MSD is defined by

$$\langle R^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{M} \frac{1}{n_{\text{atoms}}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\text{atoms}}} \sum_{t} \left[ \langle \mathbf{R}_i(t) - \mathbf{R}_i(t_0) \rangle^2 \right],$$

where $M=15$ is the number of initial time points $t_0$, $n_{\text{atoms}}$ is either the number of core or surface atoms in a cluster with $N$ atoms, $\mathbf{R}_i(t)$ is the position of the $i$th atom at time $t$, and the brackets refer to short time averages over 150 time steps. These short time averages were taken after the cluster was equilibrated at the desired temperature.

The averaged MSD behavior as a function of temperature is shown in Fig. 11 for cluster sizes 34, 45, 61, and 82. The error bars for each point correspond to twice the standard deviation. The clusters were in the energy basin of the zero-temperature structure at all temperatures within the range studied, and the structure was only deformed by the atomic vibrations. Open circles in this figure correspond to surface atoms MSDs, whereas the black circles illustrate the MSD of the inner core atoms. It is clearly seen that surface atoms have significantly larger displacements. An estimate of the melting temperature based on the Lindemann criterion may be obtained when $MSD^{1/2}$ equals 15% of the average bond length. The horizontal lines in Fig. 11 correspond to average bond lengths (short-dashed line is for inner core, long-dashed line for surface). Combining the information in Figs. 5 and 11, it is apparent that the onset of surface premelting starts at around 700 K. However, by extrapolating results of the cluster core MSD, it is apparent that the cluster core melts at temperatures comparable to that of bulk calcium, which occurs at 1120 K. The premelting process should be understood as the amplitude of vibration of the surface atoms being significantly larger than those of the inner atoms, both types of atoms vibrating in the lowest-energy basin of the nanocluster. The TB model of bulk calcium reproduced well the melting temperature of fcc calcium. The coefficient of thermal expansion was also obtained correctly. Therefore, calcium nanoclusters seem to begin the melting process by premelting of the surface at temperatures about 40% lower than the bulk. Based on the free-energy harmonic analysis described in the previous section, there is no structural transition up to 1200 K in either of these very symmetric clusters. Important to note is that Eq. (5) identifies the averaged mobility of the individual atoms with respect to a given configuration, as originally stated in Lindemann’s criterion. Other authors have extended Lindemann’s concept to changes in the averaged bond length and have described premelting based on a classical analysis of the potential-energy landscape and on the thermal dependencies of the averaged bond length of structures associated to several minima in that landscape. In a TB calculation, that would be equivalent to accounting for several chemical isomerization reactions involving several electronic states. Depending upon the symmetry of such electronic states, some geometries can never be reached. This quantum signature seems to be absent in the Monte Carlo study of Ref. 13.
VI. SUMMARY

For Ca nanoclusters with decades of atoms, a tight-binding model is constructed by incorporating the \textit{ab initio} information of small Ca clusters and bulk calcium. Massive TBMD relaxations are carried out for nanoclusters measuring between 1 and 2 nm and containing 32 to 84 atoms to find the lowest-energy structure for each nanocluster. Magic numbers are found for clusters with 34, 37, 39, 45, 53, 57, 61, and 82 atoms. Three peculiar magic numbers, Ca34, Ca37, and Ca61, were observed experimentally by Martin’s group. The experimental magic number at Ca60–Ca81 was not found by this study. Instead we predict a strong magic number at 82. Several novel structures are predicted for clusters with the following sizes: 35, 38, 43, 50, 58, 59, 62, 63, and 76–84. Calcium clusters in this size range present incipient metallic behavior when they contain more than 49 atoms. Despite their metallic character, the structure of the magic numbers Ca61 and Ca82 is strikingly symmetric. These symmetric structures are very stable, and are not melted at temperatures of about 600 K. We predict that all clusters in the size range studied undergo a surface premelting that starts at about 700 K, but the inner-volumetric core of the cluster melts at temperatures comparable to the bulk material.

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