Lecture 2

Atomic clusters (continuation) Carbon nanosystems

Temperature properties (1)

Atomic clusters can exist in:

- -- liquid state (phase) $t > t_m$ without ionic lattice -- solid state (phase) $t < t_m$ with ionic lattice

Not crucial for quantum shells but important in other aspects

Valence electrons are in a heat bath of ions.

Melting temperature t_m : Na: 371 K *t*° C=(t+273.15) °K Au: 1337 K

Lord Kelvin: Does the melting temperature depends on the system size?

Yes!

$$t_m^{cl}/t_m^{bulk} = 1 + \frac{c}{R}$$

c > 0 or < 0?

Temperature properties (2)

Exper. for Na clusters: T. Martin (1996)



Atoms on the cluster's surface are less constrained in their thermal movement thus leading to lowering t_m .

Melting temperature in clusters is lower than in the bulk:

$$t_m^{cl} / t_m^{bulk} \approx 0.8$$

Why?

Lindemann criterion: the matter will melt when the thermal fluctuations of the inter-nuclear distance become larger than 10-15%.

Phase transitions in clusters

- -The transition does not take place sharply at a definite temperature but smoothly over a wide temperature range.
- -Solid and liquid phases may coexist.
- Melting transition is preceded by premelting fenomena: isomerization in a limited part of configuration space



Dipole plasmon



Dipole plasmon:

- -- oscillations of valence electrons against ions,
- -- the only collective mode still observed in atomic clusters,
- -- one of the main sources of information about diverse cluster properties,
- -- counterpart of E1 giant resonance in nuclei





$$\omega_{E1} = \omega_{Mie} (1 - \frac{\delta N_e}{2N_e})$$

The only source of information on cluster deformation Numerous practical applications!

Dipole plasmon: experiment



Main steps:

- -- excitation of dipole plasmon by laser;
- -- transformation of the plasmon energy into heat,
- -- evaporation of atom(s) from cluster,
- -- change of direction of cluster flight due to the recoil.

M1 scissors mode



General feature of any finite deformed two-component Fermi and Bose systems [nuclei, clusters, Bose-Einstein condensate, ...]

V.O. Nesterenko, W. Kleinig, F.F. de Souza Cruz and N. Lo Iudice, "Orbital Magnetic Dipole Mode in Deformed Clusters: Fully Microscopic Analysis", Phys. Rev. Lett., <u>83</u>, 57 (1999)

M2 twist mode



Most strong magnetic orbital mode in spherical metal clusters

V.O. Nesterenko, J.R. Marinelli, F.F. de Souza Cruz, W. Kleinig and P.-G. Reinhard,

"Twist Mode in Spherical Alkali Metal Clusters", Phys. Rev. Lett., v.85, p.3141 (2000).

Predictions for metal clusters:

KS: Kohn-Hohenberg theorem

P. Hohenberg and W. Kohn, Phys. Rev., <u>136</u> (1964) B864

1) Inhomogeneous system of interacting electrons in external field $V_{ext}(\vec{r})$. 2) Theorem (a): the ground state energy has a form

$$E[\rho] = \int V_{ext}(\vec{r})\rho(\vec{r})d\vec{r} + F[\rho(\vec{r})]$$

where $F[
ho(ec{r})]$:

- is a functional of one density $\rho(\vec{r})$ only!

- is independent on $V_{ext}(\vec{r})$.

Theorem (b): minimum of $E[\rho]$ is exact ground state energy if $\rho(\vec{r})$ is exact ground state density.

Therefore, if we know $F[\rho(\vec{r})]$ then we can find exact $E[\rho]$ and $\rho(\vec{r})$!

W. Kohn and L.J. Sham, Phys. Rev., 140 (1965) A1133 Kohn-Sham functional : explicit expression $e = m_{e} = \hbar = c = 1$ $E[\rho_{e}] = T_{kin}[\tau_{e}] + E_{Coull}[\rho_{e}] + E_{vc}[\rho_{e}]$ $T_{kin}[\tau_e] = -1/2 \int d\vec{r} \tau_e(\vec{r}, t)$ - kinetic energy $E_{Coul}[\rho_e] = 1/2 \iint d\vec{r} d\vec{r_1} \frac{(\rho_e(\vec{r},t) - \rho_i(\vec{r}))(\rho_e(\vec{r_1},t) - \rho_i(r_1))}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r_1}|}$ - Coulomb energy (e-i, i-i $\rightarrow V_{ext}$) $E_{xc}[\rho_e] = \int d\vec{r} \, \varepsilon_{xc}[\rho_e(\vec{r},t)] \rho_e(\vec{r},t)$ - exchange-correlation energy (use of KS theorem) $\rho_e(\vec{r},t) = \sum_{i}^{occ} |\varphi_j(\vec{r},t)|^2$ - density of valence electrons $\tau_e(\vec{r},t) = \sum_{i}^{occ} |\nabla \varphi_i(\vec{r},t)|^2 \quad \text{- kinetic energy density of valence electrons}$ $\rho_i(\vec{r})$ - density of ions

KS: equations for electronic mean field

W. Kohn and L.J. Sham, Phys. Rev., <u>140</u> (1965) A1133

$$\hat{h}_{0}(\vec{r})\varphi_{j}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\delta E[\rho_{e}]}{\delta \varphi_{j}^{*}} |_{\rho_{e} = \rho_{e}^{0}} = \frac{\delta E[\rho_{e}]}{\delta \rho_{e}} |_{\rho_{e} = \rho_{e}^{0}} \frac{\delta \rho_{e}}{\delta \varphi_{j}^{*}}$$

Kohn-Sham equations:

$$\hat{h}_{0}(\vec{r})\varphi_{i}(\vec{r}) = e_{i}\varphi_{i}(\vec{r})$$

$$\hat{h}_{0}(\vec{r}) = -\frac{\nabla^{2}}{2} + U_{Coul}(\vec{r}) + U_{xc}(\vec{r})$$

$$U_{Coul}(\vec{r}) = \int d\vec{r}_{1} \frac{\rho_{e}^{0}(\vec{r}) - \rho_{i}(\vec{r})}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}_{1}|}$$

$$U_{xc}(\vec{r}) = \varepsilon_{xc}[\rho_{e}^{0}(\vec{r})] + \rho_{e}^{0}(\vec{r}) \frac{\delta\varepsilon_{xc}[\rho_{e}^{0}(\vec{r})]}{\delta\rho_{e}^{0}}$$

$$\rho_{e}^{0}(\vec{r}) = \sum_{j}^{occ} (\varphi_{j}(\vec{r}))^{2}$$

- KSE reduce the correlated many-body problem to a self-consistent mean-field problem of Hartree type

- solutions by iterations

$$\varphi_i \rightarrow \rho_e^0 \rightarrow \hat{h}_0 \rightarrow KSE$$

•

- quasi-vanishing
$$U_{Coul}$$

domination of U_{xc}

- ionic density

$$\rho_i(\vec{r}) = \begin{cases} [\frac{4\pi}{3}r_s^3]^{-1}, & r \le R \\ 0, & r > R \end{cases}$$

KS: Thomas-Fermi approximation

How to treat large electronic systems (N > 1000) where KS calculations are too time consuming?

Is it possible to avoid calculation of $\varphi_i(\vec{r})$ and to deal directly with $\rho(\vec{r})$?

Then (1) gives well-known Thomas-Fermi equations:

$$\frac{5}{3}\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}k\rho^{2/3}(\vec{r}) + \int d\vec{r} \cdot \frac{\rho_e(\vec{r}\,\cdot) - \rho_l(\vec{r}\,\cdot)}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}\,\cdot|} + XC = \lambda \quad \boxed{-\text{ no: quantum shells}} - \text{ yes: trends with N}$$

(total energy, density and its moments, ioniz. potential, polarizability, plasmon energy, ...)

$$T_{kin} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} k \int [\rho^{5/3}(\vec{r}) + \frac{1}{36} \frac{(\nabla \rho)^2}{\rho} + \dots] d\vec{r}$$

from expansion in powers of \hbar or in terms of $\nabla \rho$

KS: progress in density functional theory (DFT) for electronic systems

- Hohenberg, Kohn (1964): theorem for non-degenerate ground state
- Kohn, Sham (1965): mean field equations
- Mermin (1965) : theorem for temperature
- Gunnarsson, Lundqvist (1976) : xc for spin densities $\sigma \downarrow$ and $\sigma \uparrow$
- Levy (1979): general ground state
- Runge, Gross (1984): time-dependent DFT: TD-DFT
- Vignale, Kohn (1996): current TD-DFT

Outlook for fundamental physics

-Comparison of processes in clusters and bulk (photoionization, ...)

- Dynamics of clusters in intense femtosecond lasers fields
- Clusters at surface, embedded clusters
- Exotic clusters (C20), ...
- Thermodynamics, phase transitions in small systems

Applications



Applications of atomic clusters (1)

- Medicine:
 - -- cluster beams to treat caner,
 - -- cluster biosensors for diagnostics,
 - -- drug delivery
 - -- fototermolise of tumors
- Creation of new materials by cluster beams.
 Soft deposition.
 - Flattening hard surfaces by cluster beams.





- -- sodium clusters, large ratio surface/volume,
- -- strongly depends on the size and surface preparation of nanoparticles.



Nanostructures at the surface

Applications of atomic clusters (2)

Embedded clusters, magneic liquids

✓ New alloys: combination of materials not mixed in bulk.

✓ New magnetic materials:

- -- transformation of magnetic properties due to distorted ionic lattice.
- Molecular and cluster nanoelectronics and nanodevices:
 - -- circuits, switches, transistors, ...
 - -- ultrahigh density magnetic recording devises,
 - -- nanotermometers, microcoolers, ...
- ✓ Helium clusters as nanoscale cryostats:
 - -- t < 0.37 K,
 - -- creation of cold clusters inside He droplets.

Magnetic fluids



Mixture of magnetic nanoparticles (~ 10 nm) and liquid carrier with a sufractant. Usually (in volume units): 5% - nanoparticles (e.g. of magnetite, **atomic clusters**, ...) 10% - sufractant (e.g. oleic axid) 85% - liquid carrier (e.g. kerosene)

- ML is a usual liquid without magnetic field
- can accept fantastic shapes in external magnetic fields
- used since 1960 years in:
 - cosmonaut helmets, ...

and later in:

- laser heads in CD and DVD players,
- low-friction seals,

New perspectives with magnetic atomic clusters!

References: atomic clusters

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CARBON NANOSYSTEMS

macrosystems

- diamond

- graphite

- soot

nanosystems

- fullerenes

- graphene

- nanotubes

Fullerenes (1): <u>definitions</u>



Definition:

"Buckminster-Fulleren"



Fullerenes (Buckminster Fuller) are systems composed entirely of carbon atoms in the form of a hollow sphere (buckyball), ellipsoid or tube (buckytube).

4th carbon state in addition to graphite, diamond, soot.

Fullerenes are similar in structure to graphite (composed of a sheet of hexagonal rings) but contain also pentagonal rings that prevent them from being planar.



Fullerenes (2): <u>discovery</u>, name

Fullerenes (C_{60} ,...) were discovered in molecular beam experiments in 1985 (Rice University, US).

Later fullerenes were found in a candle soot.





H. Kroto, R. Curl, R. Smalley: Nobel price in chemistry, 1996 Buckminster Fuller's Dome Expo' 67, Montreal

Name from a US architect, writer and inventor Richard Buckminster Fuller (1885-1983) who propagated the geodesic dome.

D. Huffman and W. Kratschermer (1991): invention of easy production of fullerene powder.



Fullerenes (2): Buckminsterfulleren C_{60}

- -- constructed from 60 carbon atoms,
- -- truncated icosahedron,
- -- resembles a soccer ball,
- -- 12 pentagons, each completely surrounded by a ring of hexagons



"Buckminster-Fulleren"

- -- 60*4=240valence electrons,
- -- σ and π electrons,
- -- mean field,
- -- quadrupole deformation: C_{70}
- -- two dipole plasmons, for σ and π electrons

Lightest fullerene C_{20}



- -produced in 2000 (cage and bowl),
- cage: 12 pentagons only,
- bowl: 1 pentagon surrounded by 5 hexagons,
- few forms,
- perspectives for creation of fullerite with high-T superconductivity



C₂₀

- -prefers less compact ring and chains geometries (first observed),
- -formation through the precursor: carbon skeleton of the fullerene cage capped with hydrogen and bromine atoms
- -identification of the form: by photo-electron spectra

Two conflicting explanations how fullerenes are made from small carbon fragments: "fullerene" and "pentagon" roads.



Fullerenes (5): endohedral fullerenes

Endohedral fullerenes incorporate in their inner sphere intruder atoms, ions or clusters.

The first complex La@Ca60 was synthesed in 1985.



"Buckminster-Fulleren"

Two types:

- -- endohedral metallofullerenes: La@Ca60, ...
- -- non-metal doped fullerenes: He@C60, Ne@C60,

New kind of atomic trap:

- -- room temperature,
- -- arbitrary long trapping,
- -- no any reciprocal effect from the environment,
- -- investigations: compression of atomic wave function, ...

Graphene



- theoretical studies at least since 1947
- first obtained in 2004 Novoselov K.S. +
- -exclusively hexagonal cells
 single planar sheet of carbon atoms
- (one graphite layer with the thickness of one atom)
- semimetal, zero forbidden zone, linear spectrum
- can be used for:
 - planar field-effect transistors,
 - quantum interference devises
 - ...

- high mechanical rigidity and heat conductance

- Electrons obey a massless relativistic Dirac equation

E=
$$\hbar v_F k$$

Charged massless fermions! No analogs?

like photons with $v_F \sim 10^6 m s^{-1}$ instead of speed of light.

- Mobility μ up to 104 cm²V⁻¹s⁻¹ is reported:
 - almost independent of temperature,
 - electrons in graphene can move easier than in any other known material at room temp.
- test for relativistic theory
- new (relativistic) version
 of quantum Hall effect

 $v = \mu E$

Fullerenes (4): carbon tubes

- -- observed accidentally in 1991,
- -- cylindrical fullerenes,
- -- few nm wide but μ m mm in length,
- -- can be single- and multi-walled,
- -- quantum physics of one-dimensional systems,
- -- unique macroscopic properties:
 - high tensile strength
 - (63 GPa ↔ high-carbon steel: 1.2 GPa)
 - multi-walled NT: striking telescopic property,
 - high plastic deformation,
 - high electrical conductivity:
 - can be metallic or semiconductor,

(in metallic CT electrical current density 1000 times lager than in Cu or Ag!)

- high heat conductance along the tube,
- high lateral heat resistance,
- chemical inactivity,
- can merge at a high pressure thus forming unlimited length wires,
- easily soluble in most solvents.



Applications of nanotubes:

Structural:

- waterproof tear-resistant clothes,
- combat jackets,
- sports equipment,
- ultra-high speed flywheels.

Electromagnetic:

- artificial muscles,
- bucky-paper (250 times stronger, 100 times lighter),
- computer circuits (two joined CT of a different diameter act as diode)
- conductive films for liquid screens, photovoltaic devices, etc,
- brushes for commercial electric motors,
- light filaments,
- optical ignition for explosives,
- solar cells,
- superconductor at low temperature,
- ultracapacitors,
- displays,
- transistors.

Chemical:

- water filter,
- air-pollution filter

References: carbon nanosystems

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