Oxygen adsorption and stability of surface oxides on Cu(111): A first-principles investigation

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As a first step towards gaining microscopic understanding of copper-based catalysts, e.g., for the low-temperature water-gas shift reaction and methanol oxidation reactions, we present density-functional theory calculations investigating the chemisorption of oxygen, and the stability of surface oxides on Cu(111). We report atomic geometries, binding energies, and electronic properties for a wide range of oxygen coverages, in addition to the properties of bulk copper oxide. Through calculation of the Gibbs free energy, taking into account the temperature and pressure via the oxygen chemical potential, we obtain the (p,T) phase diagram of O/Cu(111). Our results show that for the conditions typical of technical catalysis the bulk oxide is thermodynamically most stable. If, however, formation of this fully oxidized surface is prevented due to a kinetic hindering, a thin surface-oxide structure is found to be energetically preferred compared to chemisorbed oxygen on the surface, even at very low coverage. Similarly to the late 4d transition metals (Ru, Rh, Pd, Ag), sub-surface oxygen is found to be energetically unfavorable.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Acquiring a fundamental understanding of the nature of the interaction between oxygen and metal surfaces is crucial to explain the role of oxygen in a number of important technological processes such as oxidation, corrosion, and heterogeneous catalysis.1,2 This knowledge will assist in enhancing the performance of existing catalysts as well as developing new ones. Many current industrial processes are centered on catalytic oxidation reactions. Upon exposure to an oxygen atmosphere, the surfaces formed on transition metal (TM) surfaces vary from simple adlayers of chemisorbed oxygen to oxygen diffusion into the sub-surface region and the formation of oxides, depending on the partial pressure, temperature, and orientation of the metal surface. Oxidation catalysts can be rather complex, often involving multiple phases and various active sites to fulfill multiple catalytic functions. Hence a careful study of the role of each phase and its specific interaction under working conditions is required to fine-tune the productivity of these catalysts.

In recent years, there has been a great focus on clean energy technology, bringing a renewed interest in the water-gas shift (WGS) reaction in relation to fuel-cell powered vehicles, where hydrogen is obtained via partial oxidation and steam reforming of hydrocarbons and methanol.3 Copper-based catalysts are well known to be active for methanol synthesis, partial oxidation of methanol and the WGS reaction. The active site, the role of support oxides, and each detailed reaction mechanism are still the focus of considerable controversy, even though a great deal of effort has gone into seeking consensus by conducting in situ experiments, in the hope of bridging the “pressure” and “materials” gap.

The O/Cu(111) system has been investigated both theoretically4 and experimentally.5–15 From these studies, there seems to be a consensus on some aspects of the adsorption behavior of oxygen on Cu(111) under ultra high vacuum (UHV) conditions. For exposures of less than 10^4 L, a disordered chemisorbed layer is observed, while at higher exposures (>10^4 L), the formation of a Cu2O film sets in. It is generally accepted that within the disordered chemisorbed layer, the positions of the copper atoms are significantly different from those on the clean surface. Although all studies agree on this particular aspect, there is still no clear agreement on the exact structure of the disordered chemisorbed phase.

The earliest structural study by Niehus9 was conducted using the low energy ion scattering technique. He discovered a lateral displacement of surface copper atoms and the formation of a “rough” oxygen overlayer with a corrugation of ~0.3 Å. Two later studies, using surface-extended x-ray absorption fine structure spectroscopy10 and surface extended-energy-loss fine-structure spectroscopy,11 attempted to determine the local registry of the chemisorbed species and found the chemisorbed oxygen to occupy a threefold hollow site. This oxygen species was postulated to have partially penetrated the surface layer, causing “rumpling” that results in a lateral expansion of the copper atoms at the hollow site and hence the observation of a roughened surface structure.

Another model based on the mismatch-overlayer structure of the (111) face of Cu2O and the metal surface was proposed by Jensen et al.13 This model is rather complex and shares some basic characteristics of the Cu2O structure. A similar pseudo-Cu2O overlayer structure was also suggested in Refs. 14 and 15.

In this paper, we present results on the oxidation of Cu(111) and compare them to some published work on 4d transition metals (TM) (Ru, Rh, Pd, Ag).

II. METHODOLOGY AND DEFINITIONS

All calculations are performed using density-functional theory (DFT) and the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) of Perdew, Burke and Ernzerhof16 for the exchange-correlation functional as implemented in the all-electron

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DMol³ code. The DMol³ method employs fast converging three-dimensional numerical integrations to calculate the matrix elements occurring in the Ritz variational method. The wave functions are expanded in terms of a double-numerical quality localized basis set with a real-space cutoff of 9 Bohr. Polarization functions and scalar-relativistic corrections are incorporated explicitly. More details of the DMol³ code can be found elsewhere.\textsuperscript{17,18}

The Cu(111) surface is modeled using a supercell approach, where we use a seven-layered Cu(111) slab with a vacuum region of 25 Å. Oxygen atoms are adsorbed on both sides of the slab, preserving inversion symmetry. We allow full relaxation of the oxygen atoms and all atoms in the outer two Cu substrate layers, while the central three layers of the slab are fixed in their calculated bulk positions. In order to study the effect of oxygen adsorption on the electronic structure and properties of the substrate as a function of coverage $\Theta$, we have considered $\Theta =0.06$ to 1.00 ML. These O adlayer structures are calculated using $(4 \times 4), (3 \times 3), (2 \times 2), (1 \times 1)$ surface unit cells. We consider adsorption in various on-surface and sub-surface sites. The total energy, force on the atoms, and displacement are converged to within $1 \times 10^{-3}$ Ha Å$^{-1}$ and $1 \times 10^{-3}$ Å, respectively. The Brillouin-zone integrations are performed using a $(12 \times 12 \times 1)$ Monkhorst-Pack (MP) grid for the $(1 \times 1)$ surface unit cell, yielding 19 special $k$ points in the irreducible surface Brillouin-zone. For the larger surface unit cells, the grids have been folded to obtain the same sampling of reciprocal space. A thermal atmosphere can then act as a reservoir of oxygen potential in the middle of the vacuum and the Fermi energy of the slab.

To analyze the nature of bonding, it is meaningful to consider the difference electron density $n^\Delta(r)$

$$n^\Delta(r) = n^{O/Cu}(r) - n^{Cu}(r) - n^O(r).$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

Here $n^{O/Cu}(r)$ is the total electron density of the substrate-adsorbate system, from which the electron density of both the clean surface $n^{Cu}(r)$ and that of the isolated oxygen adlayer $n^O(r)$ are subtracted. The atomic positions of the clean Cu surface and O layers are taken to be the ones of the relaxed adsorbate system.

The surface dipole moment (in Debye) is evaluated by the Helmholtz equation

$$\mu = \frac{A \Delta \Phi}{12 \pi \Theta},$$ \hspace{1cm} (4)

where $A$ is the area in Å$^2$ per $(1 \times 1)$ surface unit cell, and $\Delta \Phi$ is the work-function change in eV. The work function is defined as being the difference between the electrostatic potential in the middle of the vacuum and the Fermi energy of the slab.

To take into consideration realistic experimental conditions, the effect of temperature ($T$) and pressure ($p$) is included by explicitly taking into account the surrounding gas phase in terms of "\textit{ab initio} atomistic thermodynamics,"\textsuperscript{2,20,21} This approach allows the determination of the lowest-energy surface structure, for given conditions of a surrounding gas phase, thus enabling the construction of a ($p, T$) phase diagram containing the stable (or metastable) regions of different phases. This is also an appropriate first approach to steady-state catalysis, which is often run close to thermodynamic equilibrium to prevent catalyst degradation.

We consider a surface in contact with an oxygen atmosphere, which is described by the oxygen pressure and temperature. This atmosphere can then act as a reservoir of oxygen atoms, interchanging oxygen species with the surface, while keeping the temperature and pressure at a constant value. The Gibbs free energy of adsorption can be calculated by

$$\Delta G(T,p) = \frac{1}{A} \left( G^{O/Cu} - G^{Cu} - N_{Cu} \mu_{Cu} - N_{O} \mu_{O} \right),$$ \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $G^{O/Cu}$ and $G^{Cu}$ are the Gibbs free energies of the O/Cu system and clean surface, respectively. $A$ is the surface area and $\mu_{O}$ and $\mu_{Cu}$ are the chemical potentials of the oxygen and copper atoms. The number of oxygen atoms and the difference in the number of Cu atoms between the O/Cu system and clean surface are represented by $N_{O}$ and $\Delta N_{Cu}$, respectively. When calculating the difference between $G^{O/Cu}$ and $G^{Cu}$, the contributions due to vibrational free energy, spect to the free oxygen atom and a negative number indicates that it is endothermic (unstable). The average binding energy can alternatively be referred to the dissociation energy of the O$_2$ molecule by subtracting half the binding energy of O$_2$, $E_b^{O_2}$,

$$E_b^{O/Cu} = E_b^{O_2} - \frac{1}{2} (E_b^{O_2}).$$ \hspace{1cm} (2)

Here $n^{O/Cu}(r)$ is the total electron density of the substrate-adsorbate system, from which the electron density of both the clean surface $n^{Cu}(r)$ and that of the isolated oxygen adlayer $n^O(r)$ are subtracted. The atomic positions of the clean Cu surface and O layers are taken to be the ones of the relaxed adsorbate system.

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$$\Delta G(T,p) = \frac{1}{A} \left( G^{O/Cu} - G^{Cu} - N_{Cu} \mu_{Cu} - N_{O} \mu_{O} \right),$$ \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $G^{O/Cu}$ and $G^{Cu}$ are the Gibbs free energies of the O/Cu system and clean surface, respectively. $A$ is the surface area and $\mu_{O}$ and $\mu_{Cu}$ are the chemical potentials of the oxygen and copper atoms. The number of oxygen atoms and the difference in the number of Cu atoms between the O/Cu system and clean surface are represented by $N_{O}$ and $\Delta N_{Cu}$, respectively. When calculating the difference between $G^{O/Cu}$ and $G^{Cu}$, the contributions due to vibrational free energy,
configurational entropy and the \( pV \) term are present. However, from a dimensional analysis, the \( pV \) term is of the order of tenth of meV/Å\(^2\), hence can be safely neglected.\(^{20,22} \) The contribution from configurational entropy is known to be non-negligible at phase transition boundaries,\(^{23} \) nevertheless it is omitted for this study since we focus on the relative stability of the phases explored rather than the intricate transition boundaries. A more detailed discussion of the vibrational contribution will be presented later in this paper. These aspects simplify Eq. (5) to

\[
\Delta G(\Delta \mu_O) = \frac{1}{A} \left[ N_0 \mu_{O_{p(120)2}}^{O2} - N_{Cu}\mu_{Cu} - N_{O}\Delta \mu_O \right],
\]

where the oxygen chemical potential is now measured with respect to the dissociation energy of an isolated \( O_2 \) molecule \( \Delta \mu_O = \mu_{O_{p(120)2}}^{O2} - \frac{1}{2}E_{O_2} \). As can be easily seen, the term \( \Delta N_{Cu}\mu_{Cu} \) will only be required when the total number of Cu atoms on the surface is different from that of the clean substrate, and thus represents the cost of interchanging the Cu species with a reservoir of Cu atoms with chemical potential \( \mu_{Cu} \). This reservoir is conveniently chosen to be bulk Cu, with which the surface is assumed to be in equilibrium. When comparing a set of surface structures, from Eq. (6), it is clear that the more oxygen accommodated in the structure, the steeper the gradient of the corresponding \( \Delta G(\Delta \mu_O) \) versus \( \Delta \mu_O \) curve will be. In the limiting case of the bulk oxide with an infinite number of O atoms, this will yield a vertical line at a value of oxygen chemical potential that equals the bulk oxide heat of formation per O atom. For values of \( \Delta \mu_O \) larger than this (less negative), the bulk oxide represents the thermodynamically stable phase.

At the \( p \) and \( T \) of interest, oxygen behaves similar to an ideal gas. Then the chemical potential of oxygen \( \mu_O \) can be related to \( p \) and \( T \) by the formula

\[
\mu_O = \frac{1}{2} \left[ E_{O_2} + \mu_{O_{p(120)2}}^{O2}(p^0,T) + k_BT \ln \left( \frac{P_O}{P^0} \right) \right],
\]

where \( p^0 \) corresponds to standard pressure and \( \mu_{O_{p(120)2}}^{O2}(p^0,T) \) includes the contributions from rotations and vibrations of the oxygen molecule, as well as the ideal gas entropy at 1 atmosphere. These are listed in thermodynamic tables and allow the determination of \( \mu_{O_{p(120)2}}^{O2} \).\(^{20,24} \)

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### A. Clean Cu(111), bulk Cu, and the \( O_2 \) molecule

Before studying the effect of oxygen adsorption on the Cu(111) surface, we first consider the bulk and clean metal surface systems, and the free oxygen molecule. The calculated lattice constant (neglecting zero point vibrations) is 3.64 Å, which agrees very well with the established experimental value of 3.61 Å.\(^{25} \) The computed bulk modulus and cohesive energy are 136 GPa and 3.45 eV, which are in excellent agreement with the experimental values of 137 GPa and 3.49 eV,\(^{25} \) respectively. The slight overestimation of the lattice constant and the underestimation of the bulk modulus are in line with analogous studies for other TMGs.\(^{20-28} \)

For the clean surface, we used \((1 \times 1), (2 \times 2), (3 \times 3), \) and \((4 \times 4)\) supercells, including full atomic relaxation of the two outermost Cu layers on each side while keeping the middle three layers fixed at their bulk values. These calculations are required to minimize numerical errors and determine accurately binding energies. The obtained interlayer relaxations \( \Delta_{ij} = (d_{ij} - d)/d \times 100\% \), between layers \( i \) and \( j \) with respect to the bulk spacing \( d = 2.10 \) Å, are \( \Delta_{12} = -0.9\% \) and \( \Delta_{23} = -0.3\% \) for the topmost layers. These results are in good agreement with experimental values\(^{29,30} \) \( \Delta_{12} = -0.7\% \) and \( \Delta_{23} = -0.3\% \), and other DFT calculations.\(^{31-33} \) The calculated work function for the clean surface is 4.78 eV and is in line with the reported experimental value\(^{34} \) of 4.94 eV and theoretical value of 4.78 eV.\(^{32} \) The surface energy is determined to be 0.52 eV, which agrees well with reported DFT (0.50 eV) \( \) (Ref. 32) and experimental (0.63 eV) \( \) (Ref. 35) values.

Spin-unrestricted calculations using non-spherical densities are performed to study the oxygen atom and molecule. To achieve excellent numerical accuracy, the real-space cutoff for the calculation of both the oxygen atom and oxygen molecule is increased to 20 Bohr, with the largest basis set available in the DMol\(^3 \) code. The binding energy of \( O_2 \) is calculated to be 3.04 eV/O atom, while the bond length and vibrational frequency are 1.22 Å and 1527 cm\(^{-1}\), respectively, in excellent agreement with other theoretical results.\(^{4,16,26} \) From experiments, the corresponding values\(^{36} \) are 2.56 eV/atom, 1.21 Å, and 1580 cm\(^{-1}\). The typical overestimation of DFT-GGA is observed in the binding energy. The calculated values presented here are indicative of well-converged DFT-GGA calculations, and since our interest lies mainly in the relative stability of various structures, this overbinding will not affect the qualitative conclusions in this paper.

#### B. Oxygen adsorption on Cu(111)

Experimentally, no ordered oxygen adlayers are observed for the Cu(111) surface, unlike for other low-index surfaces.\(^{37-40} \) Nevertheless, to build up a systematic study of oxygen interactions on the Cu(111) surface, we have calculated the adsorption energies of \( O \) on Cu(111) for a range of coverages \( \Theta \) (we define \( \Theta \) as the ratio of the number of adsorbed atoms to the number of atoms in an ideal substrate layer): \((1 \times 1)-O \) \( \Theta = 1.00 \) ML, \((2 \times 2)-3O \) \( \Theta = 0.75 \) ML, \((2 \times 2)-2O \) \( \Theta = 0.50 \) ML, \((2 \times 2)-O \) \( \Theta = 0.25 \) ML, \((3 \times 3)-O \) \( \Theta = 0.11 \) ML, and \((4 \times 4)-O \) \( \Theta = 0.06 \) ML. For on-surface adsorption at each of these coverages, the oxygen adatoms are placed in the fcc- and hcp-hollow, and top sites. We also considered adsorption of oxygen under the first Cu layer. The computed binding energies of both on- and sub-surface adsorption are presented in Fig. 1, with the three sub-surface adsorption sites illustrated.

It is evident that the binding energy of \( O \) on Cu(111) changes only marginally, from a coverage of 0.06 to 0.25 ML, but thereafter decreases linearly and sharply, with increasing coverage, indicating a repulsive interaction between surface adsorbates. The fcc-hollow site is energetically slightly more favorable as compared to the hcp-hollow site.
The difference of less than 0.15 eV remains constant over the whole considered coverage range. A summary of the various geometric structure parameters for O in the fcc-hollow site at the considered coverages is presented in Table I.

We also calculated the binding energy of oxygen at the bridge site for a coverage of 0.06, 0.25, and 1.00 ML. For 0.06 and 0.25 ML, the binding energies are found to be about 0.40 eV less stable than that in the fcc-hollow sites at the same coverage. This estimated diffusion energy barrier agrees well with the recently reported value of 0.45 eV obtained for 0.25 ML coverage by a DFT-GGA pseudopotential calculation. However, at 1.00 ML, the difference is narrowed to 0.25 eV. This indicates that the diffusion energy barrier is fairly constant at low coverages and it decreases with increasing coverage, where the dominant interaction is the strong repulsion between O atoms.

When compared to the O/Ag(111) system, it clearly shows that the binding energy of oxygen to the Cu(111) surface is much stronger than that of the O/Ag(111) surface.

### Table I. Calculated geometric structure parameters (in Å) for different coverages Θ of O in the fcc-hollow site. $d_{Cu-O}$ indicates the bond length between oxygen and the nearest copper atom and $d_{01}$ is the planar averaged vertical height of O above the topmost Cu layer. $d_{12}$ and $d_{23}$ are the first and second metal interlayer distances where the center of mass of the layer is used. The computed bulk interlayer spacing is 2.10 Å. $E^{O/Cu}_{b(1/2)O_2}$ is the binding energy in eV, with respect to the (calculated) dissociation energy of the oxygen molecule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coverage Θ</th>
<th>0.00</th>
<th>0.75</th>
<th>0.50</th>
<th>0.25</th>
<th>0.11</th>
<th>0.06</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$d_{Cu-O}$</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$d_{01}$</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$d_{12}$</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$d_{23}$</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E^{O/Cu}_{b(1/2)O_2}$</td>
<td>−0.21</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIG. 1. (Color online) Calculated binding energy of oxygen on Cu(111) in the on-surface and sub-surface sites, for various coverages, with respect to the energy of a free oxygen atom. The solid lines connecting the calculated binding energies are used to guide the eye. Half the binding energy of $O_2$, theory and experiment, is indicated by the dotted and dot-dashed horizontal lines, respectively.

FIG. 2. Calculated work function change $\Delta \Phi$ (top) and surface dipole moment $\mu$ (bottom) as a function of coverage for O in the fcc-hollow site. The solid lines connecting the calculated values are used to guide the eye.

26) system. In fact, the binding energy is surprisingly similar to that of the O/Rh(111) (Ref. 28) and O/Pd(111) (Ref. 27) systems. A plausible explanation for the more exothermic binding energy of O on Cu(111) when compared to O/Ag(111), could be derived from the enthalpy of formation of bulk Cu$_2$O. This is calculated to be $-1.24$ eV (experimental value $-1.75$ eV) as compared to the calculated enthalpy of formation$^{26}$ of Ag$_2$O of $-0.09$ eV (experiment $-0.33$ eV). This indicates that a more rapid oxidation of Cu is to be expected and this is confirmed by various experiments. Also, it can be seen that the experimental enthalpy of formation per oxygen atom of Cu$_2$O is much more similar to that of RuO$_2$ ($-1.59$ eV), Rh$_2$O$_3$ ($-1.19$ eV), and PdO ($-0.88$ eV) than to Ag$_2$O. It is seen from Fig. 1 that the binding energies of O at sub-surface sites vary only slightly over the coverages from 0.25 to 1.00 ML, suggesting that the repulsive interaction between the sub-surface oxygens and the energy needed to deform the Cu lattice which typically decreases with increasing coverage compensate each other. Compared to the on-surface binding energies, they are significantly less stable, especially at low coverages. Likewise, this trend is in line with observations for other O/TM systems reported in Ref. 45.

Turning to the electronic properties, we first analyze the change in the calculated work function and surface dipole moment as a function of O coverage, shown in Fig. 2. The work function change increases significantly from 0.11 to 1.00 ML. This can be understood in terms of the large surface dipole moment arising due to partial electron transfer from the surface to the adsorbate; the difference between the electronegativities of oxygen (3.44) and copper (1.90) is quite large (3.44−1.90=1.54). With increasing coverage,
there will be a strong repulsion amongst the partially negatively charged O atoms. To reduce this repulsion, there will be partial electron transfer back to the substrate, giving rise to a decrease in the surface dipole moment, resulting in a depolarization. The sharp dip in the surface dipole moment at 0.11 ML can be correlated to a smaller electron charge (per \( \text{Å}^3 \)) on the O atom as compared to the lower and higher coverage structures. The abovementioned increase in the work function with increasing oxygen coverage is similar to the late 4d TM-oxygen systems.\(^{27,28}\) Comparing the work-function change at 0.25 ML O coverage of the O/Cu (1.17 eV), a 3d TM-oxygen system and its late 4d TM [Ru (0.40 eV), Rh (0.55 eV), and Pd (0.48 eV)] counterparts, we find that the work function changes of the latter are considerably smaller than for O/Cu. This can be understood by considering the electronegativities of Pd (2.20), Rh (2.28), and Ru (2.20). The resulting smaller differences between the electronegativities of oxygen and these TMs give rise to the smaller observed work function changes. Since Cu is slightly more electropositive than the abovementioned 4d metals, a large work function change is to be expected for the O/Cu system. Silver, having a similar electronegativity (1.93) to that of Cu, experiences a similar work function change (1.25 eV) upon O adsorption to the O/Cu system at the same coverage.

The adsorbate dipole moment is a direct consequence of the adsorbate induced redistribution of the electron density. To gain further insight into the electronic structure of O/Cu(111), the difference electron density plot, \( n^A(r) \), for 0.25 ML coverage presented in Fig. 3 is considered next. The corresponding projected density-of-states (PDOS) is shown in Fig. 4. We have chosen to use plots for the 0.25 ML coverage to understand the electronic effects for two reasons: It can be seen in Fig. 2 that the surface dipole moment saturates at coverages higher than 0.25 ML. On the other hand, binding energies for O coverages less than 0.25 ML are very similar. Hence we have chosen the 0.25 ML coverage as a point of reference for the following discussion.

The difference electron density \( n^A(r) \) is shown for a plane perpendicular to the surface, containing the Cu-O bond. This quantity is more instructive than a total density plot as it clearly focuses only on the change in electron density due to O adsorption, making it sensitive to small amounts of electron transfer. As expected, the perturbation created by the oxygen adsorption is mostly localized on the O atom itself and on its nearest Cu neighbor. The electron density of the nearest-neighbor Cu is depleted (shown as dotted lines) with a corresponding enhancement in the electron density of the O adatom (shown as solid lines). The electron transfer from the Cu atom to the O adatom is significant and reflects the high electronegativity of oxygen. This results in an accumulation of electron density at the vacuum side of the surface, with an induced inward pointing dipole moment. Considering the observations made concerning Figs. 2 and 3, it is evident that the high electronegativity of oxygen is responsible for both the large work function change and significant polarization, indicating some degree of ionic character in the Cu-O bond formed.

By looking at the corresponding PDOS, it can be seen that there is a renormalization (i.e., a broadening and shifting) of the O atomic energy levels to lower energies and a hybridization between the O 2\( p \) and Cu 3\( d \) orbitals. The oxygen levels are split into bonding and antibonding states.\(^{46}\) The bonding state is located at the bottom, and outside, of the Cu 3\( d \) band and is fully occupied, while the antibonding states are found at the top of the Cu 3\( d \) band and are only partially occupied and have a minimum in the PDOS at the Fermi level. The weight being on the side of the bonding states results in a much stronger bond between oxygen and the Cu surface as compared to O/Ag,\(^{26}\) where the antibonding states are more pronounced, thereby weakening the bonding between Ag and O.

C. Bulk cuprous oxide, Cu\(_2\)O

Before studying possible surface oxidic structures, it is useful to consider the properties and structure of bulk copper oxide. The two most common oxides of Cu are cuprous oxide Cu\(_2\)O and cupric oxide CuO. The former has a cuprite structure and the latter crystallizes in a tenorite structure. The cuprite structure of Cu\(_2\)O is shown in Fig. 5(A). The standard enthalpies of formation\(^{41}\) for Cu\(_2\)O and CuO are −1.75 and −1.64 eV, showing that from a thermodynamic point of view 

![Diagram](image-url)
view, Cu₂O forms more readily than CuO. We have chosen to focus on cuprous oxide for our investigation as recent studies have shown that the Cu₂O phase is most commonly seen upon oxidation of Cu. The reduction of CuO by Cu to Cu₂O is exothermic at room temperature and is even more so at elevated temperatures, while its reduction to Cu by thermal desorption of oxygen is highly endothermic, even more so at elevated temperatures, while its reduction to Cu by thermal desorption of oxygen is highly endothermic, even at high temperatures. Hence it is valid to assume in our study the formation of a cuprous oxide phase.

The calculation for cuprous oxide is performed using a six atom cell (Cu₂O₂), and describing the irreducible Brillouin zone with 56 special k points. The real-space cutoff of 9 Bohr is also used in this calculation. We have determined the lattice constant, bulk modulus and enthalpy of formation for cuprous oxide and they are 4.32 Å, 103.7 GPa, and 1.24 eV, respectively. The former two quantities agree quite well with both experimental and theoretical values, summarized in Table II. The theoretical enthalpy of formation \( H_f^{\text{Cu}_2\text{O}} \) is considerably smaller than the experimental value and this can in part be attributed to the notable typical overestimation of the binding energy of the oxygen molecule. Calculated bond distances are slightly larger (not more than 2%) than the experimental values which is not unusual for DFT-GGA calculations.

The band structure of cuprous oxide is shown in Fig. 5(B). At the \( \Gamma \) point, it can be clearly seen that Cu₂O is a direct band gap semiconductor, with a theoretical band gap of 0.64 eV. The well-established experimental value is 2.17 eV and typically, significantly larger than that obtained by DFT-GGA (or LDA).

![FIG. 5. (A) The crystal structure of cuprous oxide Cu₂O. The oxygen and copper atoms are represented by black and pale gray circles, respectively. (B) The band structure of Cu₂O. The calculated band gap for Cu₂O is 0.64 eV.](image)

TABLE II. Bulk properties of cuprous oxide, Cu₂O. The lattice constant \( a_0 \), the nearest distance between copper atoms \( d_{\text{Cu-Cu}} \), and oxygen atoms \( d_{\text{O-O}} \), and the Cu-O bond length \( d_{\text{Cu-O}} \) are listed in units of Å. The bulk modulus \( B_0 \) and enthalpy of formation \( H_f^{\text{Cu}_2\text{O}} \) are given in GPa and eV per oxygen atom, while the band gap \( E_{\text{bg}} \) is in eV.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( a_0 )</th>
<th>( d_{\text{Cu-Cu}} )</th>
<th>( d_{\text{O-O}} )</th>
<th>( d_{\text{Cu-O}} )</th>
<th>( B_0 )</th>
<th>( H_f^{\text{Cu}_2\text{O}} )</th>
<th>( E_{\text{bg}} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present work</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PWPP</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>104</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FPLAPW</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HF</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>9.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( ^a \)Reference 49.  
\( ^b \)Reference 50.  
\( ^c \)Reference 51.  
\( ^d \)References 41 and 52–54.

D. Surface oxidic structures

Further oxidation of the Cu surface might lead to the formation of surface and/or bulk oxides as observed on other late TM surfaces. Many experiments have reported the formation of Cu₂O(111) on the Cu(111) surface upon oxidation. Keeping this in mind, we consider various oxidic structures and determined their relative stability.

Recent UHV scanning tunneling microscopy experiments have shown that oxidation of the Cu(111) surface is extremely complex. Observed surface structures are described as a \( \sqrt{73}R5.8° \times \sqrt{21}R10.9° \) structure (also known as the “44” structure) and a \( \sqrt{13}R46.1° \times 7R21.8° \) structure (also known as the “29” structure). These phases are reported to resemble the basic structure of one layer of Cu₂O(111) which consists of a three-layer repeat unit with each copper layer sandwiched between two layers of oxygen atoms. The surface unit cell possesses a hexagonal symmetry and has approximately twice the surface unit area of Cu(111). To mimic these complex surface structures, we have used a \( (2 \times 2) \) and a \( (4 \times 4) \) supercell to model various possible structures, with only the most energetically favorable phases shown in Fig. 6.

We have classified the investigated structures into two “families”: The \( p2 \)-configuration and the \( p4 \)-configuration. The former relates to the use of a \( (2 \times 2) \) periodicity and the latter to a \( (4 \times 4) \) periodicity, with respect to the clean surface. All proposed oxidic structures consist of a basic three-layer lateral unit with a copper layer sandwiched between two layers of oxygen atoms: an upper layer of oxygen on top of the Cu layer \( O_L \), and a lower layer \( O_R \). We consider this O-Cu-O lateral unit as a trilayer (TL) which is characteristic of the (111) surface of bulk Cu₂O.

To expand and include the possibility of other oxidic structures with varying oxygen content, oxygen and copper adatoms are further adsorbed onto or removed from the surface. These adatoms are denoted by \( X_F \), \( X_R \), and \( X_T \) (where \( X=\text{O or Cu} \)), indicating the adsorption site to be a fcc-, a hcp-hollow, or a top site of the Cu substrate, respectively. To illustrate this point with an example, we consider the \( p4 \).
+Cu$_4$+O$_F$ structure; it would comprise the basic p4 structure with an additional (hence the “+” sign) Cu adatom at the top site and O at the fcc-hollow site. Furthermore, the notation p4+O$_{FH}$ would mean the addition of O adatoms at both the fcc- and hcp-hollow sites simultaneously.

The removal of a so-called “OCu$_3$” unit from the p4 structure results in the “p4-OCu$_3$” structure [Fig. 6(A)]. The “OCu$_3$” unit can be understood as an oxygen atom bonded to three Cu atoms in a pyramidal geometry. The average binding energy of the p4-OCu$_3$ structure is very similar to that of the most favorable on-surface structure (θ=0.25 ML) described in the previous section, with a difference of only 1 meV between them. By removing another “OCu$_3$” unit, this would produce the structure p4-(OCu$_3$)$_2$, and this can be understood as a pyramidal structure formed by 4 oxygen atoms at the vertices of a 3 Cu atom cluster. This structure could be seen as the initial stage of surface oxide formation, and by adding two “OCu$_3$” units, the p4 structure would result. Similarly to the homogeneous oxygen overlayer discussed in the previous section, the oxidic layer is formed on both sides of the slab to preserve inversion symmetry and uses the converged parameters determined for the (2×2) and (4×4) supercells. The average binding energy of oxygen for each of the considered oxidic structures is presented in Table III.

Upon close examination of Figs. 6(F) and 6(I), one can observe that the Cu-O-Cu angle (relative to the surface normal) of the p2-configuration structures is smaller than that of the p4-configuration structures. Given that the Cu-O bond length in both configurations are rather similar (p4-configuration: 1.83 Å and p2-configuration: 1.82 Å), one can estimate the degree of buckling by measuring the Cu-O-Cu angle in the TL. For bulk Cu$_2$O, the Cu-O-Cu angle is 109.0°. For the p2- and p4-configuration structures, this angle is found to be smaller. It is averaged at 101.3° and 86.7° for the p4- and p2-configuration, respectively. The 20% decrease in the Cu-O-Cu angle of the p2-configuration as compared to that in Cu$_2$O(111) indicates that the p2-configuration structures suffer, amongst other unfavorable interactions, from a stronger lateral repulsion between the O at-

TABLE III. Binding energies, cf. Eq. (2) (with respect to the calculated $\frac{1}{2}$O$_2$) of oxidic structures at corresponding oxygen coverages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oxidic structures</th>
<th>Coverage (ML)</th>
<th>$E_b$ (eV)</th>
<th>Figure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$p_2$</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>6(G)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_2$+Cu$_F$</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>6(H)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_2$+O$_F$</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>6(B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$+Cu$_F$</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$+Cu$_H$</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$+Cu$_{FH}$</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$+Cu$_{FH}$</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$+Cu$_{2F}$</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$+O$_F$</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>6(D)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$+O$_H$</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>6(E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$+O$_{FH}$</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>6(C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$-OCu$_3$</td>
<td>0.313</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>6(A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p_4$-(OCu$_3$)$_2$</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIG. 7. (Color online) (A) Calculated Gibbs free energy of adsorption $\Delta G$ for a clean Cu(111) surface and other oxygen-containing surface structures, with varying oxygen chemical potential $\Delta \mu _{O}$. All unfavorable surface phases are indicated by light gray dotted lines, with the p4-configuration phases in orange. The phases of p4-OCu$_3$ and p4 are represented by the dark blue and red lines, respectively. The p4+O$_f$, p4+O$_{H}$, and p4+O$_{HH}$ phases show similar stability and are presented in varying shades of green lines. (B) shows the same as (A) but on a larger scale. (C) The stability range of the mentioned phases, evaluated in (A), plotted in the ($p, T$) space. The phases are distinguished by varying shades of gray, with the bulk oxide phase more favorable at high pressure for all temperatures considered.

E. Thermodynamic phase diagram of the O/Cu(111) system

We investigate the effect of pressure and temperature on the stability of the various oxidic structures. To incorporate these effects, we calculate the Gibbs free energy of the phase of interest as a function of oxygen chemical potential [see Eqs. (5) and (6)]. The result is presented in Figs. 7(A) and 7(B) (on a larger scale). The variation of the energy with the chemical potential of oxygen is reflected in the gradient of the lines. The steeper the gradient, the higher the O coverage. We have also inserted the corresponding pressure-temperature bar lines for $T=300, 600$, and $900$ K. These reflect a span of pressure values used in industrially relevant conditions.

Using Eq. (7), the above results can be presented as the two-dimensional phase diagram shown in Fig. 7(C). From previous studies, the estimated error bar for the pressure and temperature scale is approximately $10^3$ atm and $\pm 100$ K, respectively. Hence caution has to be taken not to indulge in attributing too much meaning to the absolute values presented, but rather to use them in a qualitative discussion to help distinguish the relative stability of the various phases of interest. In addition to the pressure and temperature error bars, the vibrational contribution to the differences in Gibbs
free energy has to be checked, especially at high temperatures where this contribution may be significant. This contribution can be obtained from the phonon density-of-states, computed from DFT. However, for simplicity, by applying the Einstein approximation to the phonon DOS, one can estimate the order of the magnitude of this contribution. We adopt the approach used in Ref. 20 and calculated the characteristic vibrational modes of Cu (20 meV) and O (62 meV) in bulk Cu₂O. This is done by performing a frequency calculation for each atom type in Cu₂O and averaging the vibrational modes due to each Cu and O. These averaged values are comparable to the reported values for PdO (Ref. 22) and RuO₂ (Ref. 20) and even a ±50% variation of the values yields a change of less than 10 meV Å⁻². Thus, for the present system, vibrations may be neglected, not affecting the physical conclusions drawn. Such a course of action is however not always justified. Recent studies have found that hydroxylated surfaces have a large vibrational contribution to the surface free energy which is of the order of 15 to 30 meV Å⁻². They need to be included to draw meaningful conclusions, which calls for additional care when the technique of first-principles atomistic thermodynamics is employed. When using this technique, one also has to take caution to try and include all conceivable relevant structures, that is, to sample as complete a configurational space as possible. Structures that are not considered will not appear in the phase diagram.

It can be seen that for values of the oxygen chemical potential of less than −1.65 eV, the clean Cu(111) surface is the thermodynamically most stable phase. For higher values of oxygen chemical potential from −1.65 to −1.24 eV, the p4-OCu₃, p4 and p4+O₆ structures are the most thermodynamically favored [see Figs. 7(A) and 7(B)]. Within the accuracy of our calculations, they are proposed to be almost degenerate, showing minimal variation, before the onset of the bulk oxide phase at an oxygen chemical potential of −1.24 eV. It is also interesting to point out that we have found none of the on-surface chemisorbed overlayers to be stable for any value of the oxygen chemical potential, demonstrating that the oxidation of Cu does not proceed via such ordered structures which are often seen on other TM surfaces.

After identifying the lowest energy configuration of those considered, it is interesting to look at their electronic properties. We have plotted both the difference electron density distribution $n^\Delta(r)$ along the O-Cu-O bond direction, and the PDOS of the three oxidic structures and the bulk oxide and presented them in Figs. 8 and 9, respectively. Our aim is to identify any correlation between the electronic structure of the surface oxidic structures and the bulk oxide, in addition to the structural similarity seen in the previous section. We can see from both the $n^\Delta(r)$ and the PDOS that these surface oxidic structures exhibit features quite similar to the bulk oxide phase. Similarly to the homogeneous adsorption of O on Cu(111), the oxygen atoms, O₁ and O₂, interact strongly with the central Cu layer atom, depleting the electron density of Cu and inducing a significant enhancement of the electron density at the O atoms. The redistribution of electron density occurs mainly in the TL and this is clearly seen along the O-Cu-O bond. Upon close inspection of Figs. 8(A) and 8(B), one will realize that the difference electron density distribution of O₁ is subtly different from O₄ and O₆. This can be attributed to the chemical environment of these various O adatoms. O₁ has a higher coordination of Cu atoms [see Fig. 6(D)] as compared to the other two O adatoms, and this is reflected in a more evenly distributed difference electron density around O₁. This is also true for the O atoms in the bulk oxide [Fig. 8(C)] where they occupy higher coordination sites as opposed to surface oxygen adatoms. From the PDOS plots, three distinct features can be gathered. Moving from the p4-OCu₃ structure to the p4+O₆ structure and the bulk Cu₂O phase sequentially, a shift in the hybridized O-2p-Cu-3d band to lower energy (i.e., to the left of the Fermi level) and a narrowing of the Cu 3d band can be seen. Figure 9(C) shows that the additional O adatom in the fcc-hollow site in the p4+O₆ is responsible for the formation of the peak seen at about −1 eV in Fig. 9(D). The peaks around −5.8 and −7.5 eV can be related to the O 2p states of the O₁ atom and resemble the features of the bulk oxide, once more highlighting the resemblance between the bulk oxide and the surface oxidic structures. These features suggest to us that these oxidic structures could well be precursor states that could be stabilized under UHV conditions. From our study,
we cannot determine the lifetime of these precursor states as kinetics is not explicitly included, however, it does give us a clue as to how the bulk oxide might be formed via these precursor states.

Having discussed both the geometric and electronic structure of the O/Cu(111) system, we can now turn our attention to its relevance to copper-based catalysis under working conditions. From the constructed (p, T) phase diagram [Fig. 7(C)] one can make an educated first guess towards the relevance of a given phase for catalysis. For copper-based catalysts in the low-temperature water-gas shift reaction, the typical operational conditions are 1 atm and 600 K. Deactivation of this catalyst occurs at higher temperatures due to sintering.57 Hence from the (p, T) phase diagram, the bulk oxide is identified to be the thermodynamically most stable phase, given the assumption that kinetic effects are negligible.

Comparing to other reported (p, T) phase diagrams for O/Ag(111),2 O/Pd(111),58 O/Rh(111),59,60 and O/Ru(0001),2 we find that though the O/Cu(111) system shows a qualitatively similar trend to them, they exhibit marked differences in behavior. For the O/Ag(111) and O/Pd(111) systems, oxidation of the metal surface results in the formation of an on-surface chemisorbed adlayer of oxygen. Upon further oxidation, a thin surface oxide is formed and eventually followed by the bulk oxide phase. For both the O/Ru(0001) and O/Rh(111) systems, this transition from the metal surface to the bulk oxide phase is facilitated only by on-surface oxygen adlayers, i.e., without the formation of surface oxides. However, for the O/Cu(111) system, we find that upon increasing the oxygen chemical potential, the bulk oxide phase forms rapidly via surface oxidic structures, without the formation of any favorable on-surface oxygen adlayer. Hence it can be seen that oxidation of TM surfaces is a rather complex process and more detailed investigations are required. For this study, we can only suggest on thermodynamic grounds that the bulk oxide phase is the stable phase under industrial catalytic conditions. With regard to the experimentally observed reconstructed oxidic structures, matching the pressure (10−13 atm) and temperatures (473 to 773 K) mentioned in Ref. 15, the complicated 29- and 44-oxide structures seem to coincide with the oxidic structures we predicted, within the error limits mentioned above.

Recently, a new oxygen-induced p(4×4) reconstruction of the Ag(111) surface has been identified which shows considerably better agreement with experimental results than all previously proposed models.61,62 We have modeled this similar oxidic structure for the O/Cu(111) system (with coverage =0.375 ML) and found an identical surface relaxation as to that mentioned in Refs. 61 and 62. However, its oxygen binding energy (1.50 eV) is less favorable than those of the identified surface oxides shown in Fig. 6 (see Table III).

**IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION**

In this paper, we presented a systematic DFT-GGA study of the chemisorption of oxygen and the formation of oxidic structures on the Cu(111) surface. We provided results for energetics and structural and electronic properties of the system. By comparing with reported studies for O/Ru(0001), O/Rh(111), O/Pd(111), and O/Ag(111), we are able to both identify and differentiate trends found for these 4d transition metal surfaces. By incorporating pressure and temperature effects, we find that oxygen does not form chemisorbed adlayers on the Cu(111) surface but proceeds directly to the formation of surface oxidic structures and the bulk oxide.
phase, which is in contrast to the 4d metals but in line with experimental observation. At catalytic working conditions, the bulk oxide phase is clearly found to be the most thermodynamically stable phase and hence it should be considered as an active catalytic phase in technologically relevant reactions.

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