Basis Sets and Pseudopotentials

Slater-Type Orbitals (STO's) $\phi_{abc}^{STO}(x,y,z) = Nx^{a}y^{b}z^{c}e^{-\zeta r}$

- N is a normalization constant
- a, b, and c determine the angular momentum, i.e.
 L=a+b+c
- ζ is the orbital exponent. It determines the size of the orbital.
- STO exhibits the correct short- and long-range behavior.
- Resembles H-like orbitals for 1s
- Difficult to integrate for polyatomics

Gaussian-Type Orbitals (GTO's) $\phi_{abc}^{GTO}(x,y,z) = Nx^{a}y^{b}z^{c}e^{-\zeta r^{2}}$

- N is a normalization constant
- a, b, and c determine the angular momentum, i.e.
 L=a+b+c
- ζ is the orbital exponent. It determines the size of the orbital.
- Smooth curve near r=0 instead of a cusp.
- Tail drops off faster a than Slater orbital.
- Easy to integrate.

Contracted Basis Sets

$$\chi(CGTO) = \sum_{i=a}^{b} \alpha_i \chi_i(PGTO)$$

- P=primitive, C=contracted
- Reduces the number of basis functions
- The contraction coefficients, α_i , are constant
- Can be a segmented contraction or a general contraction

Contracted Basis Sets

	Segmented Contraction			General Contraction		
	CGTO-1	CGTO-2	CGTO-3	CGTO-1	CGTO-2	CGTO-3
PGTO-1						
PGTO-2						
PGTO-3						
PGTO-4						
PGTO-5						
PGTO-6						
PGTO-7						
PGTO-8						
PGTO-9						
PGTO-10						

Jensen, Figure 5.3, p. 202



Figure 3.3 Comparison of the quality of the least-squares fit of a 1s Slater function ($\zeta = 1.0$) obtained at the STO-1G, STO-2G, and STO-3G levels.

Figure from Szabo and Ostlund, Modern Quantum Chemistry.

Even-tempered Basis Sets

$$\phi_{abc}(x,y,z) = Nx^a y^b z^c e^{-\zeta r^2}$$

 $\zeta_i = \alpha \beta_i$

- Same functional form as the Gaussian functions used earlier
- The exponent, ζ, is fitted to two parameters with different α and β for s, p, d, etc. functions.
- Successive exponents are related by a geometric series
 log(ζ) are evenly spaced

Reudenberg, K., *et Al.*, *Energy, Structure and Reactivity, Proceedings of the* 1972 *Boulder Conference*; Wiley: New York, 1973. Reeves, C. M. J. Chem Phys. **1963**, 39, 1.

Well-tempered Basis Sets

$$\begin{split} &\phi_{abc}(x,y,z) = Nx^{a}y^{b}z^{c}e^{-\zeta r^{2}} \\ &\zeta_{i} = \alpha\beta^{k-1}[1+\gamma(\frac{k}{K})^{\delta}], \quad k = 1, 2, ..., K \end{split}$$

- $\alpha,\,\beta,\,\gamma,\,\text{and}\,\,\delta$ are parameters optimized to minimize the SCF energy
- Exponents are shared for s, p, d, etc. functions

Huzinaga, S. et Al., Can. J. Chem. 1985, 63, 1812.



Figure 1. The distribution of s-symmetry gaussian exponents in three energy-optimized (14s,9p) neon atom basis sets.

Davidson, E. R.; Feller, D. Chem. Rev. 1986, 86, 681-696.

Plane Wave Basis Sets

- Used to model infinite systems (e.g. metals, crystals, etc.)
- In infinite systems, molecular orbitals become bands
- Electrons in bands can be described by a basis set of plane waves of the form

$$\chi_k(\mathbf{r}) = e^{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}}$$

- The wave vector **k** in a plane wave function is similar to the orbital exponent in a Gaussian function
- Basis set size is related to the size of the unit cell rather than the number of atoms

Polarization Functions

- Similar exponent as valence function
- Higher angular momentum (l+1)
- Uncontracted Gaussian (coefficient=1)
- Introduces flexibility in the wave function by making it directional
- Important for modeling chemical bonds

Diffuse Functions

- Smaller exponent than valence functions (larger spatial extent)
- Same angular momentum as valence functions
- Uncontracted Gaussian (coefficient=1)
- Useful for modeling anions, excited states and weak (e.g., van der Waals) interactions

Cartesian vs. Spherical

Cartesians:

- s 1 function
- p 3 functions
- d 6 functions
- f 10 functions

Sphericals:

- s 1 function
- p 3 functions
- d 5 functions
- f 7 functions

Look at the d functions:

In chemistry, there should be 5 d functions (usually chosen to be , $d_{x^2-y^2}$, d_{xy} , d_{xy} , d_{yz} , d_{yz} , These are "pure angular momentum" functions.

But it is easier to write a program to use Cartesian functions (), $d_{x^2} d_{y^2} d_{z^2} d_{z^2} d_{xy} d_{xy} d_{xy} d_{xy}$ and d_{yz}

Cartesian vs. Spherical

Suppose we calculated the energy of HCl using a cc-pVDZ basis set using Cartesians then again using sphericals.

Which calculation produces the lower energy? Why?

Pople Basis Sets

- Optimized using Hartree-Fock
- Names have the form

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k-nlm++G** or k-nlmG(...)
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- k is the number of contracted Gaussians used for core orbitals
- nl indicate a split valence
- nlm indicate a triple split valence
- + indicates diffuse functions on heavy atoms
- ++ indicates diffuse functions on heavy atoms and hydrogens

Pople Basis Sets

Examples:

- 6-31G Three contracted Gaussians for the core with the valence represented by three contracted Gaussians and one primitive Gaussian
- 6-31G* Same basis set with a polarizing function added
- 6-31G(d) Same as 6-31G*
- 6-31G** Polarizing functions added to hydrogen and heavy atoms
- 6-31G(d,p) Same as 6-31G**
- 6-31++G 6-31G basis set with diffuse functions on hydrogen and heavy atoms

The ** notation is confusing and not used for larger basis sets: 6-311++G(3df, 2pd)

Dunning Correlatoin Consistent Basis Sets

- Optimized using a correlated method (CIS, CISD, etc.)
- Names have the form

aug-cc-pVnZ-dk

- "aug" denotes diffuse functions (optional)
- "cc" means "correlation consistent"
- "p" indicates polarization functions
- "VnZ" means "valence n zeta" where n is the number of functions used to describe a valence orbital
- "dk" indicates that the basis set was optimized for relativistic calculations
- Very useful for correlated calculations, poor for HF
- Size of basis increases rapidly with n

Dunning Basis Sets

Examples:

cc-pVDZ Double zeta with polarization

aug-cc-pVTZ Triple zeta with polarization and diffuse functions

cc-pV5Z-dk Quintuple zeta with polarization optimized for relativistic effects

Extrapolate to complete basis set limit

Most useful for electron correlation methods

$$P(I_{max}) = P(CBS) + A(I_{max})^{-3}$$

 $P(n) = P(CBS) + A(n)^{-3}$

n refers to cc basis set level: for for DZ, 3 for TZ, etc.

Best to use TZP and better

http://molecularmodelingbasics.blogspot.dk/2012/06/comp lete-basis-set-limit-extrapolation.html

TCA, <u>99</u>, 265 (1998)

Basis Set Superposition Error

- Occurs when a basis function centered at one nucleus contributes the the electron density around another nucleus
- Artificially lowers the total energy
- Frequently occurs when using an unnecessarily large basis set (e.g. diffuse functions for a cation)
- Can be corrected for using the counterpoise correction.
 - Counterpoise usually overcorrects
 - Better to use a larger basis set

Counterpoise Correction $\Delta E_{CP} = E(A)_{ab} + E(B)_{ab} - E(A)_{a} - E(B)_{b}$

- E(A)_{ab} is the energy of fragment A with the basis functions for A+B
- E(A)_a is the energy of fragment A with the basis functions centered on fragment A
- E(B)_{ab} and E(B)_b are similarly defined

Additional Information

EMSL Basis Set Exchange:

https://bse.pnl.gov/bse/portal

Further reading:

Davidson, E. R.; Feller, D. Chem. Rev. 1986, 86, 681-696.

Jensen, F. "Introduction to Computational Chemistry", 2nd ed., Wiley, **2009**, Chapter 5.

Effective Core Potentials (ECPs) and Model Core Potentials (MCPs)

Frozen Core Approximation

All electron Fock operator:

$$F = h^{kinetic} - \sum_{A}^{Nuclei} \frac{Z_A}{r_A} + \sum_{j}^{occ} (J_j - K_j)$$

Partition the core (atomic) orbitals and the valence orbitals:

$$F = h^{kinetic} - \sum_{Z}^{Nuclei} \frac{Z_A}{r_A} + \sum_{A}^{Nuclei} \sum_{c}^{core} (J_c^A - K_c^A) + \sum_{v}^{valence} (J_v - K_v)$$



Approximation made: atomic core orbitals are not allowed to change upon molecular formation; all other orbitals stay orthogonal to these AOs

Pseudopotentials - ECPs

Effective core potentials (ECPs) are pseudopotentials that replace core electrons by a potential fit to all-electron calculations. Scalar relativisitc effects (e.g. mass-velocity and Darwin) are included via a fit to relativistic orbitals.

Two schools of though:

- Shape consistent ECPs (e.g. LANLDZ RECP, etc.)
- Energy consistent ECPs
 (e.g. Stüttgart LC/SC RECP, etc.)

Shape Consistent ECPs

Nodeless pseudo-orbitals that resemble the valence orbitals in the bonding region

$$\psi_{v}(\overset{\boxtimes}{r}) \rightarrow \overset{\cong}{\psi}_{v}(\overset{\boxtimes}{r}) = \begin{cases} \psi_{v}(\overset{\boxtimes}{r}) & (r \ge r_{c}) \\ f_{v}(\overset{\boxtimes}{r}) & (r < r_{c}) \end{cases}$$
 Original orbital in the outer region
$$f_{v}(\overset{\boxtimes}{r}) & (r < r_{c}) \\ \text{inner region} \end{cases}$$

- The fit is usually done to either the large component of the Dirac wave function or to a 3rd order Douglas-Kroll wave function
- Creating a normalized shape consistent orbital requires mixing in virtual orbitals
- Usually gives accurate bond lengths and structures

Energy Consistent ECPs

 Approach that tries to reproduce the low-energy atomic spectrum (via correlated calculations)

$$\min\left(\sum_{I}^{Low-lying} w_{I} \left(E_{I}^{PP}-E_{I}^{\text{Re ference}}\right)^{2}\right)$$

- Usually fit to 3rd order Douglas-Kroll
- Difference in correlation energy due to the nodeless valence orbitals is included in the fit
- Small cores are still sometimes necessary to obtain reliable results (e.g. actinides)
- Cheap core description allows for a good valence basis set (e.g. TZVP)
- Provides accurate results for many elements and bonding situations

Pseudo-orbitals



Visscher, L., "Relativisitic Electronic Structure Theory", 2006 Winter School, Helkinki, Finland.

Large and Small Core ECPs



Jensen, Figure 5.7, p. 224.

Pseudopotentials - MCPs

- Model Core Potentials (MCP) provide a computationally feasible treatment of heavy elements.
- MCPs can be made to include scalar relativistic effects
 - Mass-velocity terms
 - Darwin terms
- Spin orbit effects are neglected.
 - Inclusion of spin-orbit as a perturbation has been proposed
- MCPs for elements up to and including the lanthanides are as computationally demanding as large core ECPs.

MCP Formulation

All-electron (AE) Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H}(1,2,\mathbb{M},N) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} h_i^{AE} + \sum_{i>j}^{N} \frac{1}{r_{ij}} + \sum_{L>M}^{N} \frac{Z_L Z_M}{R_{LM}}$$

MCP Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H}(1,2,\mathbb{N},N_{v}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{v}} h_{i}^{MCP} + \sum_{i>j}^{N_{v}} \frac{1}{r_{ij}} + \sum_{L>M}^{N_{atom}} \frac{(Z_{L} - N_{L,Core})(Z_{M} - N_{M,Core})}{R_{LM}}$$

- First term is the 1 electron MCP Hamiltonian
- Second term is electron-electron repulsion (valence only)
- Third term is an effective nuclear repulsion

Huzinaga, S.; Klobukowski, M.; Sakai, Y. *J. Phys. Chem.* **1982**, *88*, 21. Mori, H; Eisaku, M *Group Meeting*, Nov. 8, **2006**.

1-electron Hamiltonian

All-electron (AE) Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H}(1,2,\mathbb{N},N) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} h_i^{AE} + \sum_{i>j}^{N} \frac{1}{r_{ij}} + \sum_{L>M}^{N} \frac{Z_L Z_M}{R_{LM}}$$

MCP Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H}(1,2,\mathbb{X},N_{v}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{v}} h_{i}^{MCP} + \sum_{i>j}^{N_{v}} \frac{1}{r_{ij}} + \sum_{L>M}^{N_{atom}} \frac{(Z_{L} - N_{L,Core})(Z_{M} - N_{M,Core})}{R_{LM}}$$

- First term is the 1 electron MCP Hamiltonian
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MCP Nuclear Attraction

$$V_{K}^{MCP}(\mathbf{r}_{i}) = -\frac{Z_{K} - N_{K,core}}{r_{iK}} \left[1 + \sum_{I}^{3} A_{I} \exp(-\alpha_{I} r_{iK}^{2}) + \sum_{J}^{3} B_{J} r_{iK} \exp(-\beta_{J} r_{iK}^{2}) \right]$$

- A_{I} , α_{I} , B_{J} , and β_{J} are fitted MCP parameters
- MCP parameters are fitted to 3rd order Douglas-Kroll orbitals

Huzinaga, S.; Klobukowski, M.; Sakai, Y. *J. Phys. Chem.* **1982**, *88*, 21. Mori, H; Eisaku, M *Group Meeting*, Nov. 8, **2006**.

MCP vs. ECP

■ 6s Orbital of Au atom



- ECPs "smooth out" the core, eliminating the radial nodal structure
- MCPs retain the correct radial nodal structure

Mori, H; Eisaku, M Group Meeting, Nov. 8, 2006.