

Simplified Tuning of Long-Range Corrected Time-Dependent Density Functional Theory

Aniket Mandal and John M. Herbert*

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ABSTRACT: Range-separated hybrid functionals have dramatically improved the description of charge-transfer excitations in time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT), especially when the range-separation parameter is adjusted in order to satisfy the ionization energy (IE) criterion, $\varepsilon_{\text{HOMO}} = -\text{IE}$. However, this "optimal tuning" procedure is molecule-specific, inconvenient, expensive for large systems, and problematic in extended or periodic systems. Here, we consider an alternative procedure known as global density-dependent (GDD) tuning, which sets the range-separation parameter in an automated way based on properties of the exchange hole. In small molecules, we find that long-range corrected functionals with either IE or GDD tuning afford remarkably similar TD-DFT excitation energies, for both valence and charge-transfer excitations. However, GDD tuning is more efficient and is well-behaved even for large



Supporting Information

systems. It provides a black-box solution to the optimal-tuning problem that can replace IE tuning for many applications of TD-DFT.

W ith its favorable balance of accuracy and affordability, time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT) has become the method of choice for excited-state calculations in molecules with more than 10–20 atoms.¹ Early applications of TD-DFT noted egregious failures for Rydberg and charge-transfer (CT) excitations,^{2–8} ultimately traceable to incorrect asymptotic dependence of the exchange-correlation potential, $v_{\rm xc}$.^{9–11} That behavior can be rectified using long-range corrected (LRC) exchange functionals,^{12–15}

$$E_{x}^{LRC} = (1 - c_{hfx})E_{x,GGA}^{SR} + c_{hfx}E_{x,HF}^{SR} + E_{x,HF}^{LR}$$
(1)

Here, $E_{x,GGA}^{SR}$ is a short-range exchange functional obtained from a generalized gradient approximation (GGA),^{14–16} while the quantities $E_{x,HF}^{SR}$ and $E_{x,HF}^{LR}$ are short- and long-range Hartree–Fock exchange, respectively.

This range separation is based on partition of the Coulomb operator, the most widely used form of which is¹

$$\frac{1}{r_{12}} = \frac{1 - \operatorname{erf}(\omega r_{12})}{\frac{r_{12}}{\operatorname{SR}}} + \frac{\operatorname{erf}(\omega r_{12})}{\frac{r_{12}}{\operatorname{LR}}}$$
(2)

This introduces one adjustable parameter (ω) whose value sets the length scale ($\sim 1/\omega$) for the asymptotic transition to exact exchange. It has been suggested to set ω in a nonempirical way,^{17–22} based on the ionization energy (IE) theorem of exact DFT.^{11,23,24} That condition,

$$\varepsilon_{\text{HOMO}} = \underbrace{E(N) - E(N-1)}_{-\text{IE}} \tag{3}$$

relates the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) energy level to the IE. By tuning ω in order to satisfy eq 3, accurate CT excitation energies can be obtained.^{17–20} This

paradigm has been so successful that some have described the description of CT states in TD-DFT as a solved problem. $^{\rm 25}$

The IE-tuning procedure described above, which is sometimes called "optimal" tuning,²⁰ is appealing because it is motivated by an exact condition. It starts from a model with correct asymptotic shape, since $v_{\rm xc}(r) \sim -1/r$ for any LRC functional with 100% long-range Hartree–Fock exchange, as in eq 1. Then, the correct asymptotic value $v_{\rm xc}(\infty)$ is enforced via eq 3.^{11,26} We rewrite the latter condition as

$$IE(\omega_{IE}) = -\varepsilon_{HOMO}(\omega_{IE})$$
(4)

which indicates what the procedure entails, namely, a sequence of LRC-DFT calculations for both the molecule and its cation, using different values of ω , in order to determine the optimal value ω_{IE} that satisfies eq 4. This is expensive for large molecules and tedious in any case, and there is no guarantee that such a value exists. In particular, IE-tuning can be fraught for small-gap systems, which drive the optimally tuned value of ω toward zero, corresponding to a functional that eliminates $E_{x,HF}^{LR}$. This small-gap behavior is noteworthy because semilocal GGA functionals tend toward vanishing gaps for large systems.^{27–34} Problems with IE tuning have been observed in large conjugated π systems,^{35–39} long-chain alkanes,³⁵ nanoscale materials,⁴⁰ and large water cluster anions.⁴¹ For periodic systems, where introducing a net charge is problem-

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Figure 1. Results for a data set of transitions with charge-separated character. (a) Comparison of tuned range separation parameters (ω_{IE} and ω_{GDD}), obtained within the framework of the LRC- ω PBE functional. (b) Errors in TD-DFT excitation energies, with negative values indicating that the TD-DFT transition energy lies below the benchmark. All calculations use the def2-TZVPD basis set. Numerical data for 24 distinct transitions can be found in Table S1, including more than one transition for some of these molecules.

atic, IE tuning must be done carefully, based on localized orbitals.⁴² The same procedure can also mitigate problems with IE tuning in long-chain polymers.⁴³

In the present work, we consider TD-DFT applications using LRC functionals with an alternative (and automatic) means to determine ω , in a system-specific way, based on a global density-dependent (GDD) tuning procedure.³⁵ Here, the range-separation parameter is determined according to

$$\omega_{\rm GDD} = C_{\rm GDD} \langle d_{\rm x}^2 \rangle^{-1/2} \tag{5}$$

where d_x^2 is the second moment of the distance to the center of the exchange hole, weighted toward asymptotic distances. (Details are provided in the Methods section.) The parameter C_{GDD} is empirical and is determined so that $\omega_{GDD} \approx \omega_{IE}$ for a data set of small molecules.^{35,44,45} Nevertheless, we find that GDD tuning performs well on large molecules also, and is often negligibly different from IE tuning in TD-DFT applications. Meanwhile, it reduces the cost and increases the convenience to determine an optimal range-separation parameter.

We first compare the IE- and GDD-tuning approaches for TD-DFT calculations on CT excitation energies because that is the problem that LRC-DFT was originally designed to solve.¹³ Tuned values ω_{IE} and ω_{GDD} , using the LRC- ω PBE functional,⁴⁶ are depicted in Figure 1a for a set of transitions with charge-separated character. (The complete data set can be found in Table S1, assembled from existing benchmarks.^{47,48}) Optimal values ω_{GDD} are relatively constant across this data set whereas ω_{IE} exhibits larger molecule-by-molecule differences, especially for benzothiadiazole and *N*-phenylpyrrole. With the exception of those two cases plus quinoxaline and a dipeptide, $\omega_{IE} < \omega_{GDD}$.

Strikingly, these variations are not reflected in the TD-DFT excitation energies (Figure 1b). Even those molecules with the largest difference between ω_{IE} and ω_{GDD} exhibit very small differences in excitation energies (ca. 0.1 eV), indicating that excitation energies are not exquisitely sensitive to ω , at least not in the vicinity of the optimally tuned value. To set a baseline establishing that LRC functionals do improve the

description of CT states, we also show TD-PBE0 errors in Figure 1b. These are much larger and tend toward significant underestimation of CT transition energies.

The LRC- ω PBE functional does not incorporate any exact exchange at short-range, meaning that $c_{\rm hfx} = 0$ in eq 1. For comparison, we also examine the LRC- ω PBEh functional that uses $c_{\rm hfx} = 0.2$ and sets $\omega = 0.2$ bohr⁻¹ by fiat, based on empirical fitting.⁴⁹ TD-DFT results using this functional are similar to those obtained using the optimally tuned LRC- ω PBE functionals (Figure 1b). This is not surprising, given where the tuning procedures landed and the observed insensitivity to ω . Furthermore, these results indicate why LRC- ω PBEh is an effective choice for systems whose excited states exhibit charge-separated character.⁴⁹⁻⁵¹ It is interesting that LRC- ω GDDPBE results hew more closely to LRC- ω PBEh than do the IE-tuned results.

Overall, error statistics are negligibly different for these three TD-LRC-DFT methods, as documented in Table 1. Errors are also negligibly different when LRC- ω PBEh is tuned with either the GDD or the IE procedure. The range-separated CAM-B3LYP functional⁵² also performs well for this data set. It engenders more significant errors for larger molecules,⁵³ however, because CAM-B3LYP incorporates only 65% Hartree–Fock exchange at long-range.⁵² (Problems with incorporating IE tuning into the CAM-B3LYP *ansatz* have been noted,⁵⁴ and we have not attempted it here.) TD-PBE0 and TD-B3LYP errors for CT excitations are limited only by the size of the molecule and are more dramatic in large molecules, solvated systems, and aggregates.^{5–8,32,47,50}

Whereas the data set examined in Figure 1 consists of CT transitions, Figure 2 plots TD-DFT errors for a standard set of valence transitions.⁴⁷ (See Table S2 for the complete data set.) As a baseline comparison for GGAs and global hybrid functionals, we include TD-PBE and TD-PBE0 results alongside TD-LRC- ω PBE using ω_{IE} or ω_{GDD} for the range-separation parameter. Significant and systematic underestimation of excitation energies using GGA functionals (including but not limited to PBE) is a common side effect of incorrect asymptotic behavior of $v_{xc}(r)$.¹ Global hybrid functionals such

Table 1. TD-DFT/def2-TZVPD Error Statistics for CT Transitions^a

	Error (eV) ^b			
Method	MAE ^c	Mean	Max	
LRC- <i>w</i> PBE ^{<i>d,e</i>}	0.19	-0.01	0.45	
$LRC-\omega_{IE}PBE^{d}$	0.19	0.07	0.71	
$LRC-\omega_{GDD}PBE^{d}$	0.18	0.01	0.46	
LRC- <i>w</i> PBEh ^{f,g}	0.22	-0.07	-0.48	
LRC- $\omega_{\rm IE}$ PBEh ^f	0.20	-0.04	0.46	
LRC- $\omega_{\rm GDD}$ PBEh ^f	0.20	0.17	0.57	
CAM-B3LYP	0.20	-0.12	-0.75	
PBE0	0.52	-0.48	-1.49	
B3LYP	0.65	-0.64	-1.87	

^{*a*}For the data set of 24 transitions in Table S1. ^{*b*}With respect to benchmarks in Table S1, taken from refs 47 and 48. ^{*c*}Mean absolute error. ^{*d*}c_{hfx} = 0. ^{*e*} ω = 0.3 bohr⁻¹ (no tuning). ^{*f*}c_{hfx} = 0.2. ^{*g*} ω = 0.2 bohr⁻¹ (no tuning).

as PBE0 push the excitations energies higher, resulting in typical unsigned errors of 0.2-0.3 eV for localized excitations,^{1,55} which is smaller than typical errors for CT transitions. These trends are reflected in the TD-PBE and TD-PBE0 data in Figure 2.

As compared to global hybrids, LRC functionals stabilize the occupied energy levels. Functionals whose range separation

parameters are fit to thermochemical data tend to push even localized excitation energies somewhat higher, which slightly upsets the good performance of methods such as TD-PBE0 for valence excitation energies, leading to typical errors of 0.3–0.4 eV when LRC functionals are employed.^{1,55} CAM-B3LYP avoids this degradation by sacrificing the LRC constraint of 100% exact exchange at long range,^{51,52} meaning that $v_{xc}(r)$ decays somewhat too quickly for a charge-separated excitation. For the tuned LRC- ω PBE functionals, which maintain correct asymptotic behavior, any upshift in the valence excitation energies is a small effect, as the average errors are comparable to those exhibited by PBE0 (Figure 2).

The tuned functionals LRC- $\omega_{\rm IE}$ PBEh and LRC- $\omega_{\rm GDD}$ PBEh with $c_{\rm hfx} = 0.2$ afford very similar error distributions as compared to the corresponding functionals with $c_{\rm hfx} = 0$, as shown in Figure 2. For non-LRC functionals, however, increasing the amount of exact exchange has a significant impact on the mean signed error (MSE) for these localized excitations. TD-PBE calculations systematically underestimate excitation energies, which is typical of semilocal functionals, ^{1,55} with a MSE of -0.45 eV for this data set. For TD-PBE0, the MSE is reduced to -0.13 eV and the mean absolute error (MAE) is 0.24 eV, which is as good as any standard functional for typical small-molecule benchmarks.¹ MAEs for the tuned LRC functionals are similar but the MSEs are positive, consistent with a small upward shift in the excitation energies as compared to TD-PBE0. Finally, the HF-PBE functional,



Figure 2. Errors in TD-DFT/def2-TZVPD excitation energies (with respect to established benchmarks), for a data set of valence excitations from ref 47, using the functionals (a) PBE, (b) PBE0, (c) LRC- ω_{GDD} PBE, (d) LRC- ω_{IE} PBE, (e) LRC- ω_{GDD} PBEh, (h) LRC- ω_{IE} PBEh, (g) HF-PBE, and (h) CIS. Numerical data can be found in Table S2.

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Figure 3. Tuned LRC- ω PBE results for conjugated polymers as a function of molecular size. (a) Optimal ω values, (b) TD-DFT(TDA) excitation energies for the S₁ state, and (c) exciton size for linear acene molecules. (d) Optimal ω , (e) $\Delta E(S_1)$, and (f) d_{rms} for (PPV)_n oligomers. (g) Optimal ω , (h) $\Delta E(S_1)$, and (i) d_{rms} for O₂N(Ph)_nNH₂. Acene calculations were performed using the def2-TZVPD basis set and other calculations used def2-ma-SVP.

$$E_{\rm xc}^{\rm HF-PBE} = E_{\rm x}^{\rm HF} + E_{\rm c}^{\rm PBE} \tag{6}$$

sets an opposite goalpost as compared to TD-PBE. It exhibits a MAE of 0.51 eV and nearly all of the errors are positive. For comparison, the uncorrelated configuration interaction singles (CIS) method affords strictly positive errors with a MAE of 0.82 eV.

Description of the ${}^{1}L_{a}$ transition of the linear acene molecules is a trouble spot for TD-DFT, even with global hybrid functionals.⁵⁶ Errors increase as a function of molecular size in a manner that is not observed for the ${}^{1}L_{b}$ state, which is polarized along the opposite axis of the molecule.^{50,56} As compared to either GGA or hybrid functionals, LRC functionals do a much better job at describing both states.⁵⁰ Optimal tuning affords especially accurate excitation energies, with MAEs of 0.17 eV (LRC- ω_{IE} PBE) and 0.20 eV (LRC- ω_{GDD} PBE) with respect to experiment, considering the combined data set of ${}^{1}L_{a}$ and ${}^{1}L_{b}$ for naphthalene through hexacene (Table S3). For naphthalene, the ${}^{1}L_{b}$ state lies below ${}^{1}L_{a\nu}$ in contrast to the behavior for the larger acenes, and this is captured by both of the aforementioned LRC functionals but not by PBE, PBE0, or HF-PBE. Most importantly for the present analysis, TD-DFT excitation energies obtained using LRC- ω_{IE} PBE versus LRC- ω_{GDD} PBE differ by an average of only 0.12 eV, which is smaller than the intrinsic accuracy of either method.

Although these two tuned LRC functionals perform equally well for acene excitation energies, they yield different results for other properties. HOMO/LUMO gaps for the acene sequence are known to decrease much faster than the corresponding gaps for the cyclohexane-based perhydroacenes,⁵⁷ and application of IE tuning to the linear acenes suggests that $\omega_{IE} \rightarrow 0$ as the number of rings increases.³⁹ (This is consistent with vanishing-gap behavior when GGA functionals are applied to other large insulators.²⁷⁻³⁴) The decay rate of $\omega_{\rm IE}$ is much faster than that of $\omega_{\rm GDD}$, as shown in Figure 3a. The GDD-tuned value appears to be approaching a characteristic length scale $1/\omega_{\rm GDD} \approx 4$ bohr that is comparable to the size of one benzene ring (4.645 bohr), whereas $1/\omega_{\rm IE}$ > 4 bohr except in the case of naphthalene. Problems with IE tuning in other one-dimensional polymers have been noted recently, with tuning based on localized orbitals as a suggested workaround.43

Size-dependent trends in the ${}^{1}L_{a}$ excitation energies are plotted in Figure 3b. Consistent with TD-LRC- ω PBE error statistics discussed above, the two tuning schemes afford very similar results although a slight difference emerges as the number of rings increases, with systematically lower excitation energies for IE tuning. However, the difference amounts to only 0.1 eV for nonacene, which is smaller than the inherent accuracy for acenes where benchmarks are available, despite a significant difference between ω_{IE} and ω_{GDD} . This situation is reminiscent of the CT data in Figure 1, where modest differences between ω_{IE} and ω_{GDD} did not manifest as significant differences in excitation energies.

Upon extending these calculations to larger acenes, we observe a discontinuity in the HOMO/LUMO gap computed using LRC- ω PBE, between n = 10 and n = 11 rings. The S₁ excitation energy and $\omega_{\rm IE}$ exhibit corresponding discontinuities as shown in Figure S2. The discontinuity in $\omega_{\rm IE}$ is attributable to the abrupt change in the Kohn-Sham gap, yet there is no discontinuity in ω_{GDD} (Figure S2a). Nevertheless, there is a discontinuity in the S1 excitation energy computed using TD-LRC- ω_{GDD} PBE, which is similar to that obtained using TD-LRC- ω_{IE} PBE (Figure S2b). This behavior, along with extremely small (sometimes negative) excitation energies starting at n = 11, points to instabilities in the ground-state calculation. These TD-DFT calculations were performed using the Tamm-Dancoff approximation (TDA),¹ as full linear response exhibits imaginary eigenvalue problems for the larger acenes. All of this hints at the appearance of an open-shell biradicaloid singlet ground state for larger acenes. This has been discussed in the literature^{58,59} but lies beyond the scope of ω -tuning.

For other conjugated polymers, the two tuning procedures engender larger differences in excitation energies. Figure 3 also presents data for a sequence of $poly(p-phenylenevinylene)_n$ or $(PPV)_n$ oligomers, as well as poly(p-phenyl) nitroaniline $[O_2N-(C_6H_4)_n-NH_2]$, which we abbreviate as O_2N - $(Ph)_n NH_2$. For $(PPV)_n$, the behavior is similar to that of the acenes in the sense that $\omega_{\rm IE} < \omega_{\rm GDD}$ for a given oligomer size, although in this case $\omega_{\rm IE}$ seems to have converged by n = 7. There is a very slight upshift in $\omega_{\rm IE}$ for larger oligomers, which is mirrored in the HOMO/LUMO gaps; see Figure S3e for the latter. At first, we hypothesized that this might arise due to a slight twisting of the PPV chain in the optimized geometries that we employ, yet the same behavior is evident in coplanar geometries of $(PPV)_n$. Furthermore, the uptick in ω_{IE} has no effect on the S₁ transition energies, which are plotted in Figure 3e. We conclude that small fluctuations around the asymptotic value of $\omega_{\rm IE}$ reflect a degree of insensitivity to $\omega_{\rm r}$ in the vicinity of the optimally tuned value. Thus, the large-*n* behavior of ω_{IE} reflects the limitations in computing the optimal value of ω when the objective function is rather flat.

For the (PPV)_n excitation energies, TD-LRC- ω_{IE} PBE and TD-LRC- ω_{GDD} PBE results gradually diverge from one another as a function of *n*, reaching a difference of 0.4 eV for n = 7, by which point both calculations have reached an asymptotic value of the S₁ excitation energy. Similar behavior is observed for the push-pull systems $[O_2N(Ph)_nNH_2]$, although in that case the large-*n* values of the S₁ excitation energy differ by only 0.1 eV. Similar to $(PPV)_n$, however, we observe that ω_{IE} reaches an asymptotic value rather quickly (by n = 3), whereas ω_{GDD} continues to decrease even at n = 8 (Figure 3g). The S₁ excitation energies show a similar trend, with ω_{IE} reaching an

asymptotic value by n = 3 whereas ω_{GDD} continues a downward trend through n = 8 (Figure 3h).

In an effort to understand these size-dependent trends, we computed the exciton size as measured by the root-mean-square (rms) electron-hole separation,^{60,61}

$$d_{\rm rms} = \langle \|\mathbf{r}_{\rm elec} - \mathbf{r}_{\rm hole}\|^2 \rangle^{1/2} \tag{7}$$

Results are plotted along the bottom of Figure 3 for the acenes, $(PPV)_n$, and $O_2N(Ph)_nNH_2$ systems. For the acenes, exciton delocalization (as measured by d_{rms}) continues to increase through the largest size examined, with no indication of a plateau (Figure 3c). This indicates complete delocalization and we believe this behavior is consistent with ω_{GDD} values that continue to decrease at least through n = 20 (see Figure S2a), despite the aforementioned ground-state instability.

The behavior of $d_{\rm rms}$ is quite different for the (PPV)_n systems, as shown in Figure 3f. Regardless of which tuning procedure is used, the exciton size reaches an asymptotic value by n = 9 or 10, although that value differs by about 1.1 Å depending on whether $\omega_{\rm IE}$ or $\omega_{\rm GDD}$ is used. This is consistent with an asymptotic excitation energy that is reached for the same oligomer size (Figure 3e), and indicates a maximum value for the effective conjugation length.^{36,62} Notably, GGA functionals afford complete exciton delocalization for $(PPV)_n$ rather than a finite exciton size.⁶² This is inconsistent with correlated wave function calculations, whereas TD-DFT calculations based on LRC functionals afford the correct result.⁶² This should provide a cautionary note for recent attempts to adjust ω based on exciton size,⁶³ which in any case should only be attempted using orbital-invariant measures of that size.⁶

To this, we can add that larger exciton sizes obtained using IE tuning, meaning that $d_{\rm rms}(\omega_{\rm IE}) > d_{\rm rms}(\omega_{\rm GDD})$ for a given oligomer size, are consistent with the fact that $\omega_{\rm GDD} > \omega_{\rm IE}$ (Figure 3d). The latter fact implies that the onset of exact exchange occurs on a shorter length scale for GDD tuning as compared to IE tuning, restricting the delocalization of the former relative to the latter. However, this distinction comes with only a modest difference in the S₁ excitation energies.

Turning to the $O_2N(Ph)_nNH_2$ oligomers, we note that there is significant twisting of the $(Ph)_n$ chain in the optimized geometries that we employ, leading to a fluctuation in d_{rms} as a function of size, which settles to an asymptotic value by n = 4for ω_{IE} (Figure 3i). For GDD tuning, the d_{rms} values shows an upward trend after n = 4, suggesting a link between ω and electron-hole separation. For IE tuning, the asymptotic value of d_{rms} is about 0.1 Å larger than it is in the n = 1 case and for $d_{rms}(\omega_{GDD})$ the value stays between 2.4 and 2.5 Å after n = 1. These differences are much smaller than the 2.5 Å length scale of one phenyl ring, and we regard them as insignificant.

Next, we consider the performance of both tuning schemes for a benchmark set of small open-shell and "exotic" molecules.⁶⁴ Tuned TD-LRC- ω PBE results are listed in Table 2 and we observe large differences between ω_{IE} and ω_{GDD} in some cases, yet excitation energies are often quite similar. For example, in NH₂ the excitation energies differ by less than 0.1 eV even though the tuned ω values differ by 0.13 bohr⁻¹. For the NCO and OH radicals, however, TD-LRC- ω_{IE} PBE and TD-LRC- ω_{GDD} PBE excitation energies differ by 0.5 and 0.4 eV, respectively, and the ω_{IE} values are unusually large. Even more striking is the failure to determine ω_{IE} for the CN radical, for which IE tuning sends $\omega \rightarrow \infty$. In contrast,

Table 2. TD-DFT(TDA) Results for Open-Shell and Exotic Molecules^a

	ω (bohr ⁻¹)		Error (eV) ^b	
Transition	GDD	IE	GDD	IE
BeF (² Π)	0.388	0.496	0.04	0.04
$BH_{2}(^{2}B_{1})$	0.404	0.482	0.08	0.08
$CN (^{2}\Pi)^{c}$	0.486	-	0.27	-
HCF $(^{1}A'')$	0.462	0.468	-0.09	-0.12
$NH_2 (^2A_1)$	0.531	0.659	-0.09	-0.09
NO $(^{2}\Sigma^{+})$	0.505	0.600	-0.49	-0.39
OH $(^{2}\Sigma^{+})$	0.437	1.547	0.14	0.67
NCO $(^{2}\Sigma^{+})$	0.444	1.515	0.48	0.85
MAE			0.21	0.28
	1			

^{*a*}LRC- ω PBE/def2-TZVPD. ^{*b*}With respect to theoretical best estimates from ref 64. Positive errors indicate that the TD-DFT transition energy is larger than the benchmark. ^{*c*}IE tuning is omitted because $\omega_{IE} \rightarrow \infty$.

GDD tuning is well behaved and affords an accurate excitation energy for this species.

Unusually large (and in one case, divergent) values of ω_{IE} may reflect an attempt by the tuning procedure to mitigate selfinteraction error in the ground state, effectively hacking the LRC- ω PBE ansatz to turn it into a short-range hybrid functional by making $1/\omega$ small. (Indeed, both ω_{IE} and ω_{GDD} are larger for this whole data set, as compared to values that are typical in closed-shell systems.) However, the LRC- ω_{IE} PBEh functional with $c_{hfx} = 0.2$ exhibits similar pathologies for OH, NCO, and CN; see Table S8. Apparently, 20% exact exchange at short range is insufficient to avoid these unusually large values of ω_{IE} .

Finally, we examine the absorption spectrum of the hydrated electron, which has frequently been used to interrogate structural models of this unusual species,⁶⁵ often using TD-DFT calculations.^{41,66–68} For this purpose we selected seven well-spaced snapshots from a QM/MM simulation,⁴¹ with DFT regions extending to a radius of 7.5 Å and consisting of $(H_2O)_N^{-}$ with N = 68-76. Tuning was performed separately for each snapshot and the results are quite consistent across structures, with $\omega_{GDD} = 0.246-0.253$ bohr⁻¹ and $\omega_{IE} = 0.146-0.161$ bohr⁻¹.

TD-DFT(TDA) absorption spectra are shown in Figure 4, each computed using a total of 15 excited states per snapshot, which is not enough to converge the "blue tail" at higher energies.⁶⁶ However, λ_{max} is adequately approximated using just three excited states, representing $s \rightarrow p$ transitions of a particle in a cavity. ^{65,66} The fact that $\omega_{GDD} > \omega_{IE}$ translates into a blue shift in the GDD-tuned spectrum, which is peaked at 2.3 eV as compared to 1.8 eV for the IE-tuned spectrum and 1.7 eV for the experimental spectrum.⁶⁹ (Average excitation energies reported here encompass the lowest three excited states, weighted by oscillator strength.) Similar results are obtained for two other functionals that have been applied to this problem in the past; see Figure S5. Interestingly, LRC- ω_{GDD} PBE violates the IE theorem in eq 3 by an average of 0.3 eV yet predicts vertical IEs that are within 0.1 eV of LRC- $\omega_{\rm IE}$ PBE values, which satisfy the IE theorem by construction. This is further evidence of modest sensitivity to ω in the vicinity of the optimally tuned value.

In summary, two alternative tuning procedures have been examined for determining an optimal range-separation



Figure 4. Simulated absorption spectra of $e^{-}(aq)$ using seven QM/ MM snapshots with 68–76 DFT water molecules and \approx 18,000 classical point charges, as in ref 41. Vertical transition energies computed at the TD-DFT(TDA)/6-31++G* level were weighted by oscillator strength and broadened using a 0.2 eV Gaussian function. Darker spectra include 15 excited states while the lighter-colored spectra use only the lowest three excitation energies for each snapshot.

parameter in functionals such as LRC-wPBE. Both procedures afford accurate excitation energies for transitions that exhibit charge-separated character, a major motivation for the development of LRC functionals and IE tuning.^{13,17-19} For small molecules, $\omega_{\rm IE} \approx \omega_{\rm GDD}$, essentially by construction since a single adjustable parameter in the GDD procedure is fit to $\omega_{\rm IE}$ data.^{35,44,45} For large systems, the GDD procedure has a clear advantage in that it is a black-box, one-shot calculation that avoids a laborious scan over ω in order to determine ω_{IE} . For example, in molecules such as O₂N(Ph)₈NH₂ and $(PPV)_{11}$, the IE-tuning procedure is about six times more expensive as compared to GDD tuning in our present implementation. Moreover, ω_{GDD} remains well-behaved in systems where the HOMO/LUMO gap becomes small or behaves erratically. For neutral molecules, GDD tuning avoids the need to perform calculations on an ionized species, which can be an advantage for DFT under periodic boundary conditions.

In many small-molecule cases, we find that TD-DFT excitation energies are surprisingly insensitive to ω in the vicinity of the optimally tuned value, so results using $\omega_{\rm IE}$ versus $\omega_{\rm GDD}$ are often statistically indistinguishable. For larger systems and some open-shell species, differences are more significant and the GDD procedure provides stable results even when the HOMO/LUMO gap is not well behaved, which is problematic for IE tuning. Overall, we find GDD tuning to be a simple replacement for IE tuning that offers advantages in many situations. It is already used routinely in some ground-state applications of LRC-DFT,^{39,70} and we encourage its widespread use in TD-DFT calculations as well.

METHODS

All calculations were performed using Q-Chem,⁷¹ in which GDD tuning was previously implemented.⁴⁴ This approach is based on the notion that the average distance between the exchange hole and the outermost electron in a molecule ought to determine the length scale ($\sim 1/\omega$) on which LRC is activated.³⁵ Operationally, this is implemented by computing the second moment of the exchange hole,^{35,39}

$$\langle d_{\rm x}^2 \rangle = \frac{\int \rho(\mathbf{r}) w(\mathbf{r}) d_{\rm x}^2(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}}{\int \rho(\mathbf{r}) w(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}}$$
(8)

weighted towards asymptotic regions of the molecule using a function $w(\mathbf{r})$. The latter is taken to be³⁵

$$w(\mathbf{r}) = \begin{cases} 1, & t(\mathbf{r}) \le \mu \\ 0, & t(\mathbf{r}) > \mu \end{cases}$$
(9)

where $t(\mathbf{r})$ is Becke's orbital localization function.^{72,73} In the context of eq 9, $t(\mathbf{r})$ ensures that $w(\mathbf{r}) \approx 0$ in the region of localized orbitals. The parameter μ is determined self-consistently so that³⁵

$$\int \rho(\mathbf{r}) w(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r} = 1 \tag{10}$$

Finally, the parameter $C_{\text{GDD}} = 0.885$ in eq 5 was determined for use with LRC- ω PBE, in order to reproduce IE-tuning results.⁴⁴ That value is used throughout this work. Smaller values of C_{GDD} have been optimized for LRC functionals with $c_{\text{hfx}} > 0$.^{35,45}

Since both $w(\mathbf{r})$ and $d_x^2(\mathbf{r})$ are functionals of $\rho(\mathbf{r})$, GDD tuning must be seeded with a self-consistent DFT calculation.³⁵ As in previous work,³⁹ LRC- ω PBE with $\omega = 0.3$ bohr⁻¹ is used for that purpose. The density thus obtained is used to evaluate $\langle d_x^2 \rangle$ in eq 8, and the value of μ in eq 9 is determined iteratively in order to satisfy eq 10. At the conclusion of this procedure, ω_{GDD} is obtained from eq 5. Previous work indicates that the resulting value of ω_{GDD} is negligibly different from a fully self-consistent determination.³⁵

Our valence excitation data set consists of 21 transitions assembled by Peach et al.⁴⁷ (Table S2), which has elsewhere been used to test LRC functionals.^{15,46} Geometries and other properties for this data set can be found in ref 61. The CT data set (Table S1) is assembled from ref 47 and a newer data set of intramolecular CT transitions in ref 48. TD-DFT calculations for these two data sets employ full linear response, i.e., the TDA is not invoked. This helps to identify the transitions in question as compared to published benchmarks. These calculations use the def2-TZVPD basis set⁷⁴ and all DFT calculations use the SG-1 quadrature grid.⁷⁵ We do employ the TDA for the calculations on conjugated polymers, for the open-shell test set, and for the $e^{-}(aq)$ models. Acene calculations use the def2-TZVPD basis set but for the conjugated polymers we use def2-ma-SVP.⁷⁶ The latter basis affords essentially identical $\omega_{\rm IE}$ values for the acenes; see Tables S4 and S5.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpclett.5c00086.

Additional calculations and data (PDF)

Coordinates for the systems examined (ZIP)

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

John M. Herbert – Department of Chemistry & Biochemistry, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210, United States; Orcid.org/0000-0002-1663-2278; Email: herbert@chemistry.ohio-state.edu Author

Aniket Mandal – Department of Chemistry & Biochemistry, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210, United States; orcid.org/0009-0000-8880-0122

Complete contact information is available at: https://pubs.acs.org/10.1021/acs.jpclett.5c00086

Notes

The authors declare the following competing financial interest(s): J.M.H. is part owner of Q-Chem Inc. and serves on its board of directors.

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