Substituent Effect in the First Excited Singlet State of **Monosubstituted Benzenes**

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: sEDA, pEDA, and cSAR descriptors of the substituent effect were determined for >30 monosubstituted benzenes in the first excited singlet S₁ state at the LC-ωB97XD/ aug-cc-pVTZ level. It was found that in the S₁ state, the σ - and π valence electrons are a bit less and a bit more affected, respectively, than in the S₀ state, but basically, the effect in both states remains the same. In the S_0 and S_1 states, the d(C-X) distances to the substituent's first atom and the ring perimeter correlate with the sEDA and pEDA in the appropriate states, respectively. The energies and the gap of the frontier orbitals in the two states are linearly correlated and for the $HOMO(S_1)$, $LUMO(S_1)$, and $HOMO(S_1)-LUMO(S_1)$ gap correlate also with the $pEDA(S_1)$ and

HOMO orbital in the monosubstituted benzene			Similarity of the
Ground Singlet		First Excited Singlet	Substituent Effects
\$	Cl	=	great
i	CFO	i	visible discrepancies
Ç	NO ₂	%	great difference

 $cSAR(S_1)$ descriptors. In all studied correlations, three similar groups of substituents can be distinguished, for which correlations (i) are very good, (ii) deviate slightly, and (iii) deviate significantly. Comparison of the shape of the $HOMO(S_0)$ and $HOMO(S_1)$ orbitals shows that for case (i) HOMO orbitals exhibit almost perfect antisymmetry against the benzene plane, for case (ii) the antisymmetry of HOMO in one of the states is either perturbed or changed, and for case (iii) one HOMO state has σ -character.

1. INTRODUCTION

The fluorescence of organic molecules from the first excited to the ground singlet state has a multitude of applications, including in organic light-emitting diodes,^{1,2} molecular photoswitches,^{3,4} biosensors,^{5,6} chemosensors,^{7,8} microscopy,⁹⁻¹¹ imaging,^{12,13} image-guided surgery,^{14,15} phototherapy of cancer,^{16,17} etc. Excited states are of interest also for their photoreactivity, which offers conditions for performing unique syntheses. ^{18,19} Molecular design in these fields aims to tune the fluorescence properties (e.g., the fluorescence maximum, intensity, bandwidth, or radiation lifetime), while conserving other properties (e.g., what is required to be a medicine/ligand, a sensor, or a valuable technical material). The most basic but still powerful modification leading to the desired properties is the introduction of a certain functional group of known electron donor and acceptor properties. However, the rational design of such modifications should be based on precise descriptors of the substituent effects elicited by the functional group in the excited state.

The most important and widely used electronic substituent effect descriptors²⁰ (including the Hammett constants) have been derived using ground-state reactions and processes (e.g., dissociation of benzoic acids, NMR chemical shifts, etc.). As the geometry and electronic structure of molecules in excited states can sometimes be significantly different from those in the ground state, 21 the question of whether these classical ground-

state descriptors could be used to accurately model the excitedstate properties arises. In the past, they often were. Successful description with the classical Hammett constants²⁰ was achieved for quantities as different as excited-state pKa* values of aromatic acids and bases, ^{22–25} absorption or fluorescence maxima, ^{26–32} fluorescence quantum yields, ³³ transition-state free energies for the fluorescence quenching reaction,³⁴ excitedstate lifetimes, 35-41 and rate constants for the nonradiative deactivation³⁶ (see page S3 of the Supporting Information for a more detailed description). Another ground-state descriptor (derived computationally), pEDA(I), served to model modern, excited-state photodevices.4

There were also examples in which the ground-state descriptors were perceived to be inaccurate, and researchers introduced novel constants designed for the excited states. The first descriptor constructed to directly express the substituent effect in the first singlet excited state was probably Baldry's $\sigma_{\rm ex}$ constant, based on pK_a^* values of para- and meta-substituted phenols in the first excited singlet state.46 The descriptor proved to be better in correlating some other excited-state reactivity data rather than the ground-state descriptors, so the author concluded that there was a benefit in using the constants

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designed especially for the excited state. However, a subsequent study showed that yields and quantum yields for the photoaddition of methanol to nine 1-phenylbutadienes correlated more strongly with the ground-state substituent constants than with the excited-state ones. An analogous approach based on phenols and benzoic acids was adopted by Shim et al. for pK_a correlations of several substituted benzene derivatives, which appeared to be much better than those built using the classical σ , σ^+ , and σ^- Hammett constants.

The Cao, Chen, and Yin $\sigma^{\mathrm{ex}}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ constant 50 was determined on the basis of the λ_{max} of the K-band⁵¹ in the ultraviolet (UV) spectra of substituted benzenes and para-disubstituted stilbenes. It correlated neither with the σ_p Hammett constant²⁰ nor with any other substituent constants, yet significant correlations with the UV absorption energies of several types of substituted compounds have been demonstrated. 50,52 Further studies attempted to better predict the UV absorption energy of a series of para-disubstituted phenylethenyl benzenes.⁵ $\sigma^{\rm ex}_{\rm CC}$ constant has also been shown to be useful for studying the influence of the substituent on reduction potentials of substituted aniline derivatives. 54 The adequacy of the $\sigma^{\rm ex}_{
m CC}$ constant for this problem has been explained by the similarity of an electron in the reduction process to the electron distribution after absorbing a photon. Indeed, the use of $\sigma^{\mathrm{ex}}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ constants remarkably improved the correlations for substituted benzenamines, acetophenones, and naphthalenes. The $\sigma^{\rm ex}_{\rm CC(m)}$ constant has recently been applied to study the UV spectra of >200 disubstituted stilbenes and benzenes.⁵⁵ The main objections to the construction of the $\sigma^{\rm ex}_{\ \ {
m CC}}$ constant come from the Franck-Condon principle. However, the principle refers to the overlap between two vibrational wave functions in the ground and excited states.⁵⁶ In the first approximation, it says that the electronic transition is vertical and occurs without a change in the ground-state geometry that would significantly determine the UV absorption energy. Therefore, does the $\sigma^{\rm ex}_{
m CC}$ constant really describe first of all the excited-state properties?

The need to construct substituent effect descriptors of the first excited π singlet state ⁵⁷ was investigated by Sadlej-Sosnowska and Kijak by adopting Sadlej-Sosnowska's substituent active region (SAR) approach (see Methods). ^{58–61} They analyzed the computationally derived potentials and charges on atoms of the functional groups in both parasubstituted benzoic acids and nitrosobenzenes and C_{ipso} atoms. It appeared that these quantities in both the ground state and the excited state are equally well modeled with the classical σ_p Hammett constant. ²⁰ Also, the Δ cSAR descriptors estimating the amount of charge transferred between the active regions of the two functional groups (Δ and c stand for difference and charge, respectively) if calculated for the singlet excited state or the ground state are strongly correlated with σ_p . The cSAR descriptor is the sum of charges of the C_{ipso} and substituent atoms. ^{57,58}

In this work, we examine the problem of the singlet excitedstate substituent effects from the point of view of yet another class of descriptors: sEDA and pEDA (where s, p, and EDA stand for σ , π , and electron donor—acceptor, respectively). (62–65 The sEDA and pEDA descriptors are calculated as the difference in a population of σ - and π -valence orbitals, respectively, on the C atoms of the substituted and unsubstituted benzene rings. (52) The descriptors quantify the amount of electrons donated to or withdrawn from the valence σ - and π -electron system. The effect on σ - and π -electron structure is expressed by the sEDA and pEDA descriptors, respectively. The sEDA descriptors are a kind of groupelectronegativity parameters, whereas the pEDA descriptors specify some resonance characteristics. The sEDA and pEDA descriptors appeared to be useful and so far have been applied in a few dozen studies, including a few papers modeling the properties of molecules in excited states. However, can they correctly describe the substituent effect in excited states? To answer this question, we constructed the sEDA and pEDA descriptors for >30 monosubstituted benzenes in the S₁ excited state. Like their analogues in the ground state, they quantify the amount of electrons donated to or withdrawn from the σ - and π -electron systems of molecules in the S₁ state. Additionally, for the same set of molecules in the excited state, we calculated the cSAR substituent effect descriptor of Sadlej-Sosnowska. This descriptor directly characterizes the substituent rather than the substituted core. A comparison of the sEDA, pEDA, and cSAR descriptors in ground and excited singlet states explains the success of the classical substituent constants in analyses of the properties of molecules in their excited states. On the other hand, the same comparison reveals the existence of several substituents for which such an analysis fails regardless the descriptor used.

2. METHODS

2.1. Calculations. The calculations were performed by using the Gaussian 09 revision D.01 suite of programs. ⁶⁶ The geometries of >30 benzene monoderivatives in the ground and first singlet excited states were optimized, following the (restricted, closed-shell) DFT ⁶⁷ and TD-DFT ⁶⁸ approaches using B3LYP, ^{69–71} CAM-B3LYP, ⁷² and LC-ωB97XD ⁷³ functionals and the aug-cc-pVTZ basis set. ^{74,75} The former functional was used with and without the D3 Grimme's correction for dispersion forces; ⁷⁶ CAM-B3LYP was used only with the correction, while LC-ωB97XD, which has the dispersion correction included by definition, ⁷³ was used without the additional term. The harmonic frequencies of the optimized geometries in the ground and excited states were determined to be all positive to ascertain that the structures are true minima.

The charge and population analysis was conducted according to the NBO method ⁷⁷ as implemented in the Gaussian 09 revision D.01 suite of programs. ⁶⁶ The sEDA, pEDA, and cSAR descriptors for the ground and first singlet excited states were determined as for the ground states. ^{57,62} The sEDA and pEDA values are calculated as a difference in σ - and π -electron valence electron populations of the ring C atoms in the monosubstituted benzenes, respectively. The cSAR descriptor is the sum of the charges in the so-called substituent active region, that is the atoms of the substituent and the C_{ipso} atom of the ring.

The basic idea of the SAR approach is to calculate a substituted molecule and to select the atoms most responsible for the substituent effect and then use their properties to construct the descriptor. Analogously to the classical Hammett constant, the benzoic acids were taken to construct the SAR descriptor in the ground and excited states. All atoms of the substituent and the $C_{\rm ipso}$ atom have been demonstrated to constitute the substituent active region, while the sum of their charges or the sum of their potentials was singled out as the probing property. Here, partial charges used for determining the cSAR descriptors were calculated using the NBO method, as well.

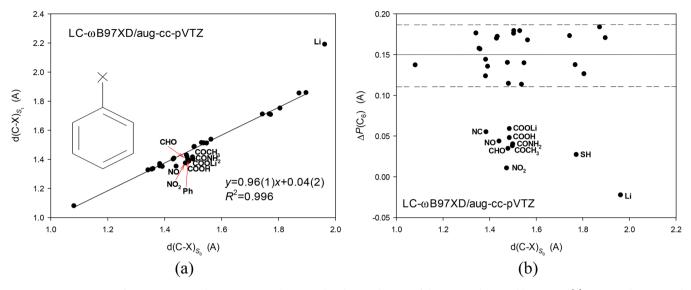


Figure 1. Comparison of some geometrical parameters in the ground and excited states of the monosubstituted benzenes: (a) C_{ipso} -X distance and (b) difference in ring perimeters $\Delta P(C_6) = P(C_6)(S_1) - P(C_6)(S_0)$ with respect to the C_{ipso} -X distance.

Correlation analysis was performed using the SigmaPlot 13 program. 78

2.2. Methodological Decisions. Comparison of the results obtained using different functionals *inter se* and with the experimental data led us to the decision to analyze the problem focusing on the LC- ω B97XD/aug-cc-pVTZ calculations. Thus, unless stated otherwise, we comment on only data obtained at this level. Data obtained with the other methods and all XYZ coordinates are collected in the Supporting Information (Tables S2 and S3, with XYZ coordinates, and Figures S1–S3).

Here, let us make a reservation that the aim of the study was to find semiquantitative relationships concerning molecules in the first excited singlet state rather than to determine exact values of their properties in the excited states. The discrepancies between theoretical predictions and the experimental data may be a result of inadequate theory or functionals, an insufficiency of the basis set, in general, or the description of some elements in particular, the absence of a medium, omission of a significant conformer, and several simplifications that are necessary to efficiently perform calculations for a few dozen molecules at a few theoretical levels. Note also that the direct comparison with experiment is rather hard, as the experimental data on the first excited singlet state of the monosubstituted benzenes are rarely available, except for the electronic spectra, which are not of interest here.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Geometry. Equilibrium geometries of molecules in the electronic excited states can be distinguishably different from those in their ground states. ²¹ In the case of the studied series of monosubstituted benzenes, the calculations predict three types of structural changes in the S_1 state: (a) shortening of the C–X bond between the C_{ipso} atom and the first atom (X) of the substituent, (b) an increase in the lengths of the ring C–C bonds, and (c) planarization and deplanarization of the molecule. The first two tendencies conform qualitatively to the early experimental findings elucidated from microwave spectroscopy in the first excited singlet states. ⁷⁹

With respect to the C–X bond lengths, d(C-X) (Figure 1a), for most structures in the first excited singlet state, they are only

slightly shorter than in the ground state. However, for a few compounds, the d(C-X) values visibly differ between states. In the case of Li, this is the result of dissociation of the substituent from the ring in the S_1 state. The prediction of such a dissociation is not unjustified, because even though phenyllithium is well-known and used as a valuable reagent, we have not found the fluorescence or even the UV spectra of this compound described so far in the literature. This may suggest that C_6H_5Li in the excited state is even less stable than in the ground state.

The C-X distances in the excited state deviate also from the correlation for three other types of compounds: (a) O=C-Y (where Y stands for H, CH₃, OH, OLi, or NH₂), (b) Ph, and (c) NO and NO₂ (Figure 1a). In all these cases, the C-X bond in the excited state is discernibly shorter than in the ground state and indicates an increase in double-bond character between C and X. When Y = OH, i.e., benzoic acid, the increase in the double-bond character of the C_{ipso} -C bond implies a smaller polarization of the OH bond and, as a consequence, a lower acidity in the S_1 state than in the S_0 state. This is in line with experimental results, 49 because the p K_a * of benzoic acid is larger in the excited state than in the ground state and pK_a is inversely related to the acidity of a compound. The C_{ipso} -C shortening in the O=C-Y substituted benzenes is also predicted by the other DFT functionals applied and seems to agree, at least qualitatively, with the experimental

For biphenyl, the shortening of the $C_{ipso}-C'_{ipso}$ bond in the first excited state also agrees with predictions from several modern computational approaches, such as symmetry-adapted cluster configuration interaction (SAC-CI), complete active space self-consistent field (CASSCF), complete active space perturbation theory of the second order (CASPT2), and the time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT). The $^{11}B_{1}$ state came out energetically lower than, nearly equal to, or higher than the almost degenerated $^{11}B_{2}$ and $^{11}B_{3}$ states depending on the theoretical level used, SAC-CI or TD-PBE0 (or for both SAC-CI and TD-PBE0). However, the $C_{ipso}-C'_{ipso}$ distance in all those states was shorter than in the ground state. Moreover, as in our calculations, the $^{11}B_{1}$ and $^{11}B_{3}$ states were planar, and the molecule in the $^{11}B_{2}$ state was less

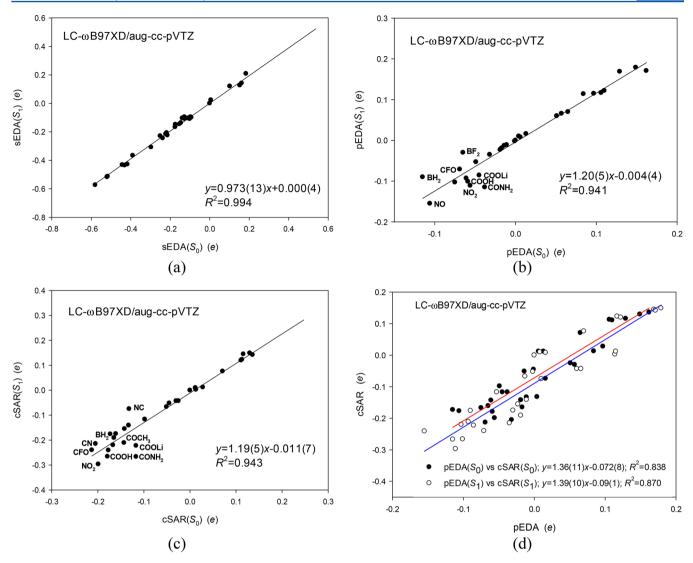


Figure 2. Correlation between descriptors in the ground and first singlet states of monosubstituted benzenes: (a) sEDA, (b) pEDA, (c) and cSAR. (d) Correlation between the pEDA and cSAR descriptors in the ground and excited states. No points were excluded from correlations.

skewed. The predicted shortening of the C–N distance in the first excited singlet state of nitrobenzene also agrees with calculations performed at a level of theory higher than those used here: (EOM-) CCSD/cc-pVDZ⁸³ and CASPT2//CASSCF. For nitrosobenzenes, we found no convincing computational evidence of its first excited-state geometry, but the CASPT2 calculations of the nitrosomethane structure in the first excited state suggest that the C–N distance is a bit shorter whereas the N–O distance is a bit longer than in the ground state. S

With regard to the ring C–C bonds, the excitation to the S_1 state leads to a quite notable increase in their lengths. This can be seen in the increase in ring perimeter $P(C_6)$: the $\Delta P(C_6) = P(C_6)(S_1) - P(C_6)(S_0)$ values are positive (Figure 1b). The increase is usually around 0.15(4) Å; however, for the NC- and SH-substituted benzenes and all previously mentioned deviating substituents, apart from Ph, it is <0.06 Å. For dissociated phenyllithium, the perimeter is predicted to be even smaller than in the ground state (Figure 1b). The presence of thiobenzene between molecules whose perimeter differences deviate from the general tendency is caused by a dissociation of the H atom from the SH group, in which the S–H distance

exceeds 1.95 Å. However, aromatic thiols tend to dissociate after photoexcitation at room temperature and form phenylthiyl radicals. 86,87 The presence of the NC-substituted molecule in this very group is not clear.

In the case of several substituents, the S_1 -state minimum is predicted to have a nonplanar core ring, with the $C_{\rm ipso}$ and \boldsymbol{X} atoms distorted from the ring plane $[\tau(C_{meta}-C_{ortho}-C_{ipso}-X)$ \neq 0]. This is seen for BF₂ ($\tau = -14.0^{\circ}$), BH₂ ($\tau = -13.8^{\circ}$), CFO ($\tau = 9.7^{\circ}$), MeSO₂ ($\tau = 3.5^{\circ}$), NMe₂ ($\tau = 2.7^{\circ}$), and SiH₃ $(\tau = 2.6^{\circ})$. For NMe₂, distortion from the plane occurs despite an increase in the double-bond character of the C_{ipso}-N bond, which forces planarization of the substituent, yet simultaneously a hindrance between the substituent Me groups and H atoms in ortho positions is twisting the flat substituent by 20° from the plane. The absence of the Me groups or the presence of only one such group in NH2 and NHMe causes that the derivative remains flat. This seems to be in agreement with previous findings. 88,89 The other derivatives with the distorted ring plane were not analyzed experimentally, and this finding cannot be directly supported by measurements.

3.2. Substituent Effect Descriptors for the First Excited Singlet State. The $sEDA(S_1)$, $pEDA(S_1)$, and

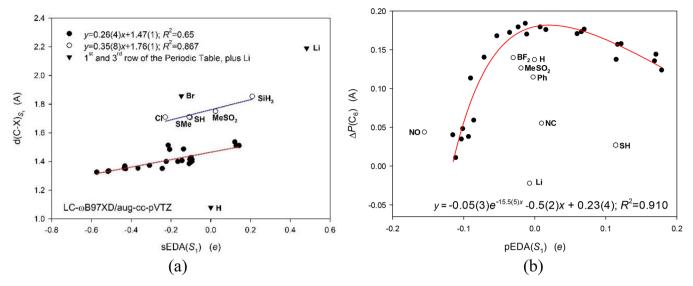


Figure 3. Correlation between (a) the C–X distance in monosubstituted benzenes in the S_1 excited state and $\text{sEDA}(S_1)$ and (b) the difference in ring perimeter $\Delta P(C_6) = P(C_6)(S_1) - P(C_6)(S_0)$ with $\text{pEDA}(S_1)$. The empty circles in panel b denote points that were excluded from the presented correlations.

cSAR(S₁) descriptors for the monosubstituted benzenes in the first excited singlet state were defined as for the ground state. 57,58,62 Recall that sEDA and pEDA descriptors are differences in C atom populations of σ - and π -valence orbitals in the substituted and unsubstituted benzene rings, 62 while cSAR is the sum of charges of the C_{ipso} and substituent atoms. 57,58 The former two descriptors express the amount of electrons donated to or withdrawn from the σ - and π -valence orbitals of the benzene ring by a substituent. They are linearly independent, which means that they reflect different properties of the ring. sEDA is a kind of group electronegativity and correlates with the electronegativity of the atom connecting the substituent with the ring and induction descriptors, whereas pEDA is a kind of resonance parameter that reveals the influence of the substituent on the π -electron system and correlates, for some systems, with aromaticity properties. 63-65,90 The cSAR descriptor is an overall characterization of the substituent itself and, simultaneously, of the substituted system. It correlates with some classical substituent effect descriptors and not strongly with pEDA.^{20,91-93}

As the geometry changes in the S_1 excited state, so does the charge distribution, and this is reflected in the distinct values of the substituent effect descriptors for the S_0 and S_1 states. Despite these differences, the ordering of the substituents according to the parameters is retained, and the values for the S_0 and S_1 states are highly correlated (Figure 2a-c).

This is especially true for the sEDA descriptor, where the correlation is close to perfect ($R^2 = 0.994$) and no outliers are present (Figure 2a). Nevertheless, on average, the sEDA(S_1) is 0.973 times the ground-state descriptor, so we can conclude that in the first excited state, the effect on the ring σ -valence system of both σ -electron-donating and σ -electron-withdrawing groups is a bit weaker than in the ground state.

In the case of pEDA and cSAR, a noticeable group of outliers is seen when the S_1 and S_0 values are regressed (Figure 2b,c). In a majority, the deviating derivatives are these that were previously recognized as having significantly shorter C–X bond lengths (i.e., an increased double-bond character) or $C_{\rm ipso}$ and X atoms distorted from the ring plane. If some outliers would be excluded, the remaining points could give almost

perfect correlations between S_1 and S_0 values, with R^2 increased from 0.941 to 0.991 and from 0.943 to 0.997 for pEDA and cSAR, respectively.

pEDA(S_1) changes on average by a factor of 1.13 compared to pEDA(S_0). Thus, in the first excited state, the resonance effect of both π -electron-donating and π -electron-withdrawing groups is a bit stronger than in the ground state. A similar trend is observed for the cSAR descriptors, which change in the S_1 state by a factor of \sim 1.11. The conclusions for pEDA and cSAR do not apply to the group of outlying substituents, for a majority of which the change is even greater. This group should be considered with greater caution.

Finally, we observed that the similar magnitude of slopes in linear correlations for pEDA and cSAR descriptors (Figure 2b,c) is not accidental. Indeed, these descriptors are positively linearly correlated in both ground and excited states (Figure 2d). The positive value of pEDA denotes the electron-donating character of the substituent, while the positive cSAR denotes the positive charge of the substituent's active region. Hence, the physical interpretation of the correlations presented in Figure 2d is as follows: the more charge is given to the benzene π -electron system by a substituent (an increase in pEDA), the more positive the substituent becomes (an increase in cSAR). The dispersion of points around this correlation is a result of the consideration of only the π -valence electrons in pEDA and the significant contribution of σ -valence orbitals of the C_{ipso} and substituent atom charges in cSAR.

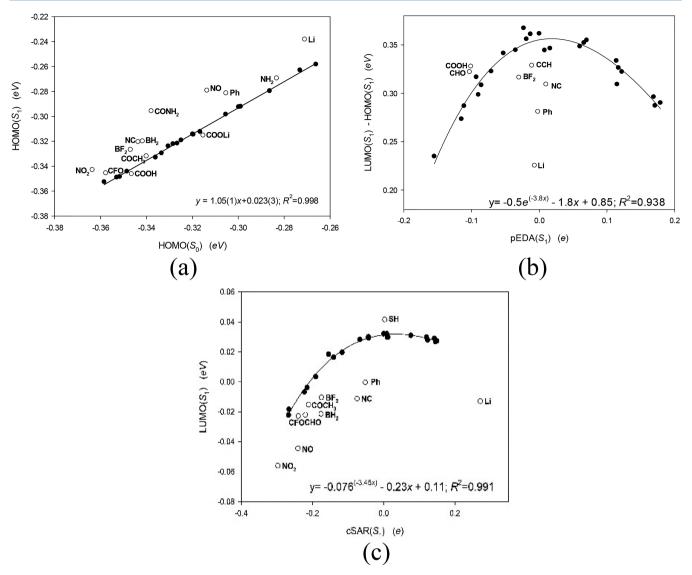


Figure 4. Correlations between (a) HOMO energies of the S_0 and S_1 states, (b) the HOMO–LUMO energy difference in the S_1 excited state and pEDA(S_1), and (c) the LUMO energy in the S_1 excited state and cSAR(S_1). The empty circles are the exceptional points that were excluded from the presented correlations (see the text).

Cl, S, Si, and Na belong to the third, and only X = Br belongs to the fourth. Notice that the slopes of the linear correlations for the substituents from the second and third periods are the same, 0.29 ± 0.03 , while intercepts differ by 0.29, as they are 1.520 ± 0.008 and 1.809 ± 0.005 , respectively (Figure S4).

A quite similar picture can be drawn for the first singlet state (Figure 3a). However, the dispersion of points around the straight lines is a bit larger, yet the slope value for the ground state, 0.29, is within the confidence interval of the first excited-state slopes, 0.35 ± 0.08 and 0.26 ± 0.04 , and the corresponding intercepts for the substituents with atoms of the second and third periods, 1.47 ± 0.01 and 1.76 ± 0.01 , are very close to those from the ground state, as well.

We again considered the changes of the ring perimeter after excitation, $\Delta P(C_6)$, which in the plot against the C–X distance reveal only a clustering of points around 0.15 and <0.06 Å (Figure 1b). The change $\Delta P(C_6)$ seems to be correlated with ground-state pEDA(S₀) only after the exclusion of several substituents (Figure S4), while with pEDA(S₁), it can be modeled with an asymmetric nonlinear function (Figure 3b). The asymmetry consists of a quickly increasing wing for the π -

electron-withdrawing substituents (pEDA < 0), a flattened maximum around pEDA = 0, and a slowly decreasing wing for the π -electron-donating substituents (pEDA > 0) (Figure 3b).

We have recently interpreted similar asymmetric changes in a study devoted to the non-additivity of the substituent effect in disubstituted benzenes and pyridines. ^{94,95} These aromatic molecules are rich in π -electrons. For these molecules, a donation or withdrawal of electrons can be compared to an "attempt to push a passenger into or pull out from a crowded Tokyo train. The former process requires a great effort, while the latter needs much less energy if it is not a barrierless operation". ⁹⁵ Thus, withdrawing π -electrons from the benzene ring is an easy process, as seen in the steep left wing of the function, while donation of π -electrons to the electron-rich system is a difficult process, represented by the slowly descending right wing of the function (Figure 3b).

In the case of using the classical substituent constants for correlating the described geometrical elements of the S_1 excited state, it seems that no obvious relationships are present (Figures S5 and S6).

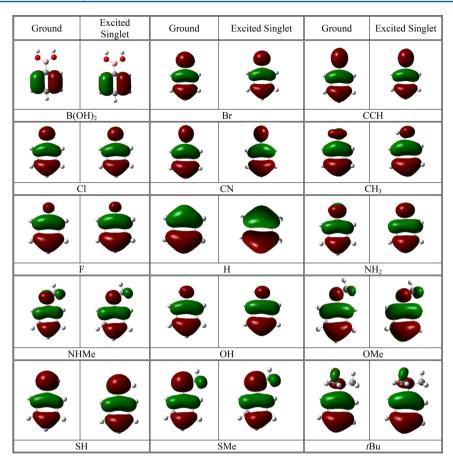


Figure 5. Comparison of the shapes of HOMO orbitals in the ground S_0 and first excited S_1 states of the monosubstituted benzenes assigned to the first group of substituents.

3.4. Substituent Effect Descriptors and Frontier Molecular Orbitals. Analyses of the highest occupied and lowest unoccupied molecular orbitals and the gap between them (HOMO, LUMO, and the HOMO-LUMO gap, respectively) have played a very important role in chemistry, 96-100 even though the energy of HOMO is only a rough approximation of the ionization potential defined by Koopmans based on the simple Hartree–Fock theory. 101,102 At the same time, the unoccupied LUMO orbitals do not even have a wellfounded physical basis and cannot be interpreted as a first estimation of the electron affinities. Nevertheless, it has recently been shown that, at a sufficiently accurate DFT level, the HOMO–LUMO gap is close to the first excitation energy, i.e., the optical gap. ^{103,104} Moreover, within the framework of timedependent DFT, it is also possible to formulate a generalized Koopmans theorem valid for the excited states. 105,106 Therefore, let us show some of the relations between HOMO and LUMO energies of the S₀ and S₁ states and the substituent effect descriptors (Figure 4 and Figure S7), keeping in mind the objections that may be raised against their use from a purely theoretical point of view. Although referring to frontier orbitals of the excited state is still rare, 107 we believe that as new computational methods for the characterization of excited states are developed, referring to these orbitals will be increasingly common, for example, to estimate the softness and hardness of molecules 108 or their conductivity proper-

First, it seems that descriptors defined for the ground state and those defined for the S₁ state are equally adequate for

analyzing the effect of the substituent on the energy of and gap between frontier orbitals in the latter state. Indeed, already considering all the HOMO, LUMO, and HOMO-LUMO gap values, without the exclusion of any properly optimized structure in both S₀ and S₁ states, one can obtain some fair correlations ($R^2 \approx 0.7 \pm 0.1$) between these values and pEDA and cSAR descriptors defined for the appropriate states (Tables S2 and S3). Second, if some points are excluded from analysis, it appears that there are linear correlations between energies of the frontier orbitals in the S₀ and S₁ states and the gap between them (Figure 4a and Figure S7). This means that, except for some substituents, one can easily predict the HOMO, LUMO, and HOMO-LUMO gap energies of the excited S₁ state if one already knows the analogous values for the ground state. Again, the outlying points correspond to the same molecules that produced outliers in previously discussed correlations. Third, a careful look at the correlations of $HOMO(S_1)$, $LUMO(S_1)$, and $HOMO(S_1)-LUMO(S_1)$ gap energies with $pEDA(S_1)$ and cSAR(S₁) descriptors (Figure 4b,c and Figure S7) reveals quite consistent and statistically significant trends accompanying the same groups of deviating points. Correlations with the pEDA(S_1) descriptor exhibit an R^2 coefficient of >0.85 (Figure S7), while for the gap, it is even more significant and equals 0.938 (Figure 4b). The correlation of $HOMO(S_1)$ with $cSAR(S_1)$ is weaker $[R^2 = 0.7 \text{ (Figure S7)}]$. $cSAR(S_1)$ is also likely uncorrelated with the gap (Figure S7). However, its correlation with LUMO(S_1) energies is impressive [$R^2 = 0.99$ (Figure 4c)]. Again, the classical substituent constants do not seem to correlate (at least in a straightforward manner) with

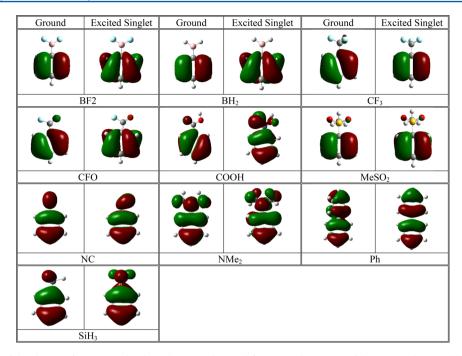


Figure 6. Comparison of the shapes of HOMO orbitals in the ground S_0 and first excited S_1 states of the monosubstituted benzenes assigned to the second group of substituents.

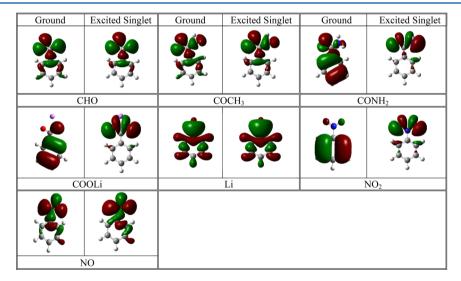


Figure 7. Comparison of the shapes of HOMO orbitals in the ground S_0 and first excited S_1 states of the monosubstituted benzenes assigned to the third group of substituents.

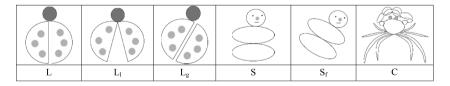


Figure 8. Nicknames of the shapes of HOMO orbitals in the ground S₀ and first excited S₁ states of the studied monosubstituted benzenes.

the calculated energies of the frontier orbitals (Figures S8 and S9).

The findings presented above prompted us to look for an explanation for why some of the substituted benzenes deviate from the regular patterns of changes in the shape of their frontier orbitals between the ground and first excited states (Figures 5–7 and Figure S10).

Inspection of Figures 5–7 reveals three general groups of substituents that can be classified according to the qualitative degree to which a HOMO orbital is changed after undergoing a transition to the first excited state: (I) nearly unchanged, (II) slightly changed, and (III) drastically changed or drastically deviating from the π -form. It is clear that the borders between the groups are fuzzy. The following substituents belong to

group I: B(OH)₂, Br, CCH, CH₃, Cl, CN, F, H, NH₂, NHMe, OH, OMe, SH, SMe, and tBu. The following substituents belong to group II: BF₂, BH₂, CF₃, CFO, COOH, MeSO₂, NC, NMe₂, Ph, and SiH₃. The following substituents belong to group III: CHO, COCH₃, CONH₂, COOLi, Li, NO₂, and NO. The substituents from the first group, apart from SH, do not show up as deviating points in the plots discussed above and require no comment other than a reminder that, at the applied level of theory, in the excited state the H atom is predicted to dissociate from the SH group, which finds some experimental grounds. ^{86,87} The shapes of the HOMO orbitals of derivatives assigned to the next two groups need more attention.

To facilitate the discussion of HOMO orbital shapes, it is useful to introduce a set of symbolic depictions and nicknames. Thus, the observed HOMO shapes can be classified into L, S, and C shapes, after a ladybird, a snowman, and a crab, respectively (Figure 8). The L shape has two more versions, L_1 and L_g , as in a ladybird launching into flight and one that is glancing around. The S shape also has the S_f version of a falling snowman. Note that the first group of substituents exhibits only the unindexed L or S shapes (Figure 5). For benzene derivatives from the first group, the transition from the S_0 to S_1 state occurs without a change in the HOMO shape type, which can schematically be written as $L(S_0) \rightarrow L(S_1)$ or $S(S_0) \rightarrow S(S_1)$. The substituents from the first group do not deviate from the correlations shown in Figures 1–4.

In group II (Figure 6), the HOMO orbitals of BF₂, BH₂, and $MeSO_2$ derivatives transform according to an $L(S_0) \rightarrow L_l(S_1)$ scheme; however, the change for MeSO₂ is rather weak. The CF₃- and CFO-substituted derivatives change according to the $L_g(S_0) \rightarrow L(S_1)$ and $L_g(S_0) \rightarrow L_l(S_1)$ schemes, respectively. The HOMOs of the NC and SiH3 derivatives transform according to the $S(S_0) \to S_f(S_1)$ and $S_f(S_0) \to S(S_1)$ schemes, respectively. The diphenyl (X = Ph) is skewed in the ground state but flat in the first singlet state, and the transformation of its HOMO orbitals can be classified as an $S_f(S_0) \rightarrow S(S_1)$ transition; on the other hand, NMe₂ is twisted by 20° in the S₁ state, as a result of the repulsion between Me groups and ortho H atoms, and the transformation of its HOMO shape can also be classified as an $S(S_0) \to S_f(S_1)$ transition. In this group, only the HOMO of COOH changes according to an $L_{\sigma}(S_0) \to S(S_1)$ transition, but one can say that, in the limit, the L_o orbital type approaches the S one.

The changes in the HOMO orbital shapes observed in group III are the largest (Figure 7). Only in this group do some HOMO orbitals adopt the C type located on the substituent more than on the ring. For all substituents of this group, at least one HOMO is of the C shape. Indeed, the HOMO orbitals of the CHO-, COCH₃-, and NO-substituted benzenes transform as $C(S_0) \rightarrow C(S_1)$; the CONH₂, COOLi, and NO₂ ones transform as $S_f(S_0) \rightarrow C(S_1)$ and $L(S_0) \rightarrow C(S_1)$.

Thus, with the change in the electronic state from the ground to the first excited singlet state, the HOMO orbitals in group I of the substituents conserve both the type and index of the shape. Transformations of the orbitals of group II, apart from COOH, conserve the orbital type but change the shape index, whereas at least one of the HOMO orbitals in group III belongs to the C type.

Now, consider the symmetry of the HOMO orbitals and the degree of their perturbations in the transformation from the S_0 to S_1 state. Notice that in group I, the HOMO orbitals in the two states are almost perfectly antisymmetric with respect to the benzene plane (Figure 5). Even if the antisymmetry seems

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to be slightly imperfect for tBu, one should remember that tBu rotations average out the irregularities. In the case of the L₁ type of orbitals present in group II of the substituents, the antisymmetry with respect to the benzene plane is notably perturbed [see BF₂, BH₂, CFO, and MeSO₂ in S₁ states (Figure 6)]. The antisymmetry is also visibly imperfect for skewed structures, such as Ph in the ground state and NMe2 in the excited state (Figure 6). Also, antisymmetrization following substituent rotation does not occur because, in the S₁ state, functional groups such as SiH3, CF3, MeSO2, BF2, and BH2 significantly diverge from the benzene plane (which cannot be seen in small pictures, such as Figure 6). In the cases of COOH and NC, the HOMO antisymmetry in each state is conserved, but after excitation, the C-C(OOH) bond is significantly shortened and the C-NC group becomes significantly bent. Therefore, the excitation causes notable changes in the HOMO charge distribution and deviations in Figures 5-7. For group III of the substituents with C-shaped HOMO orbitals, the situation is different: they are symmetric with respect to the ring plane, and for this reason they cannot be identified as π orbitals, which are antisymmetric; thus, the properties of molecules should not follow the changes described by pEDA.

Let us now consider the question of whether ground-state descriptors can successfully describe the properties of molecules in the first excited singlet state. The answer is differentiated with regard to the substituent group. There is a large set of substituents, group I, i.e., $B(OH)_2$, Br, CCH, CH₃, Cl, CN, F, H, NH₂, NHMe, OH, OMe, SH, SMe, and tBu, for which the transition from the ground to the excited state conserves the shape of the HOMO orbital with an almost perfect antisymmetry with respect to the benzene plane (characteristic for π -orbitals). For them, the substituent effect appears to be correlated with both the first singlet excited-state descriptors and ground-state ones, which, in turn, are intercorrelated.

However, there are two groups of substituents that produce notable deviations from substituent effect correlations. One of them, group II (BF₂, BH₂, CF₃, CFO, COOH, MeSO₂, NC, NMe₂, Ph, and SiH₃), contains substituents that have a π character of the HOMO orbitals in both states, but a transition between the states either significantly perturbs the antisymmetry of HOMO in one of the states or significantly changes the shape of part of the orbital. The perturbation can be connected with skewing the molecule in one of the states (NMe₂ and Ph), distorting the substituent from the benzene plane in the excited state (BF₂, BH₂, CF₃, CFO, MeSO₂, and SiH₃), significantly shortening the connecting bond (COOH), or bending the substituent in the excited state, as in NC. The substituents from this group sometimes deviate from the correlations only slightly, as for CFO, CF₃, COOH or MeSO₂, and NMe₂, and other times they may deviate a lot, as in the case of Ph or NC. This group of substituents in the excited states seems to require more attention and a careful approach when modeled with the substituent effect descriptors derived be it at the S₀ state or the S₁ state. The substituents from group III (CHO, COCH₃, CONH₂, Li, NO₂, and NO) may be expected to always deviate from the correlations. For them, one or both HOMO states have a σ -character, and therefore, the derivatives substituted with these substituents do not follow trends designated by resonance effect descriptors such as pEDA. As a result, regardless of whether ground- or excited-state resonance descriptors are used, it would not be proper to proclaim common tendencies for derivatives of electronic structures drastically different from those of the previous two groups.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The sEDA, pEDA, and cSAR descriptors of the substituent effect were determined for >30 monosubstituted benzenes in the first excited singlet S_1 state calculated at the LC- ω B97XD/aug-cc-pVTZ level. sEDA is a kind of group electronegativity; pEDA is a kind of resonance parameter, and cSAR is an overall characterization of the substituent itself.

A juxtaposition of the C_{ipso} -X distance and the difference in ring perimeters in the ground and S1 states shows that the d(C-X) changes are not large, while most of the ring perimeters notably increase. A comparison of the S₀- and S₁state descriptors indicates that, in the S_1 state, the σ -valence electrons (sEDA) are somewhat less affected whereas the π electron system (pEDA) and the charge localized at the substituent (cSAR) are somewhat more affected than in the ground state. However, the shift of σ -electrons, π -electrons, and substituent electrons in both states remains qualitatively identical. The regression of the d(C-X) distance in the S_0 and S_1 states against the sEDA(S_0) and sEDA(S_1) descriptors, respectively, demonstrates that, for these two states, there are distinct linear correlations depending on the period to which the X atom belongs and the C-X distance can be used as a kind of "natural" substituent effect descriptor of group electronegativity in a given electronic state. On the other hand, changes in the ring perimeter after excitation follow a weak, quadratic correlation when plotted against the pEDA(S_0) descriptor, and a much stronger, but asymmetric and nonlinear, correlation when plotted against the $pEDA(S_1)$ descriptor. The reason for this asymmetry lies in differences between withdrawing and donating electrons to an electron-rich system.

The energies of the HOMO and LUMO orbitals and the HOMO–LUMO gap in the S_0 and S_1 states linearly correlate; however, there are several deviating points, the same ones that were also outliers in the previous correlations. The energies of the HOMO(S_1), LUMO(S_1), and HOMO(S_1)–LUMO(S_1) gap also seem to correlate, more or less significantly, with the pEDA(S_1) and cSAR(S_1) descriptors, and again, the same group of substituents deviates from these correlations.

A comparison of the shape of the $HOMO(S_0)$ and $HOMO(S_1)$ orbitals led to the conclusion that the set of considered substituents contains three distinct subsets: (I) $B(OH)_2$, Br, CCH, CH₃, Cl, CN, F, H, NH₂, NHMe, OH, OMe, SH, SMe, and tBu, for which the transition from the ground to the excited state conserves the shape of the HOMO orbital with almost perfect antisymmetry with respect to the benzene plane; (II) BF_2 , BH_2 , CF_3 , CFO, COOH, $MeSO_2$, NC, NMe_2 , Ph, and SiH_3 , for which the transition either significantly perturbs the antisymmetry of HOMO in one of the states or notably changes the shape of part of the orbital; and (III) CHO, $COCH_3$, $CONH_2$, Li, NO_2 , and NO, for which one or both HOMO states have the σ -character and, therefore, the derivatives substituted by these substituents do not follow trends designated by resonance effect descriptors such as pEDA.

Therefore, the answer to whether it is possible to use groundstate substituent descriptors to study the first excited singletstate properties is a conditional one and depends on the substituent group under consideration. The ground-state descriptors should be adequate for group I. In the case of group II, more care is required when modeling the excited-state properties. Group III can be expected to always deviate from correlations.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.jpca.8b02209.

Literature review pertaining to the substituent effect on the excited-state properties, route section commands of the performed calculations, total energies of the studied molecules, tables containing the calculated substituent effect descriptor values, plots of correlations of minor importance, and a comparison of the shapes of LUMO orbitals and tables with XYZ coordinates of S_0 and S_1 structures (PDF)

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Notes

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