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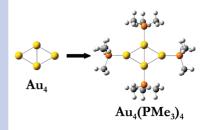


DFT Study of Ligand Binding to Small Gold Clusters

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ABSTRACT The influence of ligands on electronic structure of small gold clusters (Au₂, Au₄) has been investigated by density functional theory (DFT). Specifically, we study the effect of bonding of four donor ligands (NH₃, NMe₃, PH₃, and PMe₃) on cluster geometries and energetics in gas phase and in solution. Performance of five generations of DFT functionals and five different basis sets is assessed. Our results benchmark the importance of the DFT functional model and polarization functions in the basis set for calculations of ligated gold cluster systems. We obtain NMe₃ \approx NH₃ < PH₉ < PMe₃ order of ligand binding energies and observe shallow potential energy surfaces in all molecules. The latter is likely to lead to a conformational freedom in larger clusters with many ligands in solution at ambient conditions. The study suggests appropriate quantum-chemical methodology to reliably model small noble metal clusters in a realistic ligand environment typically present in experiments.



SECTION Molecular Structure, Quantum Chemistry, General Theory

ecently, there has been a significant increase in the research focused on the synthesis, characterization, and theoretical analysis of gold clusters and nanoparticles, as their potential applications encompass ever increasing areas of modern technology and scientific advances, ranging from biological luminophores to the components of plasmonic devices and catalysis. Their ability to guide, enhance, emit, and modify optical fields puts them on the center stage for applications such as photonic crystals, biosensors, and optical materials. 1,2 Small gold clusters (arbitrarily taken here as less than 20 gold atoms) hold promise for great advances in materials science, as they are increasingly viewed as basic elements for assembly of nanoarchitectures having specific emergent properties. On the adopted length scale, the metal clusters become molecular species with discrete electronic states and possible strong fluorescence properties. Several experimental studies done in the past^{3,4} explored the high polarizability, optical absorption, and emission properties of these molecular-scale clusters. However, the assignment of the observed spectra is tedious without the detailed knowledge of geometries and associated electronic structures. As the shape and size of nanoclusters define their optical properties, there has been a considerable effort to understand the factors that control the geometry. For example, computational studies of several bare gold nanoclusters (Au_N) suggest transition from twodimensional (2D) planar structures (N < 11) to three-dimensional (3D) systems for $N \ge 13.5^{-7}$

Using ligands with functional groups attached to the surface gold atoms allows for the construction of functional nanoassemblies and binding the clusters to surfaces of various substrates. Moreover, the ligand environment could

significantly affect the electronic properties of the clusters themselves. Compared to the vast amount of information available for small bare gold clusters, much less theoretical emphasis has been given to the ligation of these clusters with stabilizing molecules—ligands. Previous studies of charged and neutral clusters ^{8–12} have shown that relative stability can change among 3D isomers as a result of the ligand stabilization effect. For example, Shafai et al. ⁸ reported the icosahedral (3D) arrangement of gold atoms in Au₁₃ as the most stable geometry in the presence of phosphine (PH₃) ligands, whereas the bare cluster is planar. Similar effect was found for Au₁₁ cluster in the presence of SCH₃ ligands, ⁹ which agreed with the experimentally observed 3D structure of a ligand-protected Au₁₁ cluster. ¹⁵

This shows that accounting for the ligand effects (or, generally, any surface-adsorbed molecules) is crucial for understanding the behavior of gold clusters observed experimentally. However, it also increases the computational complexity of the problem. A variety of different theoretical chemistry methodologies has been exploited in the past. Even though for bare gold clusters a significant body of theoretical work assesses the performance of different methodologies, no similar studies have been conducted for ligated entities. Acceptable model quantum chemistry should provide reasonable accuracy to infer the leading physical trends and to enable comparison of computational results with experimental data; at the same time, the related

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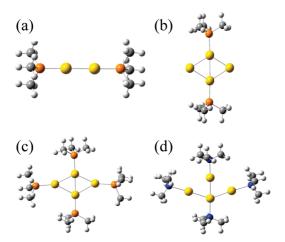


Figure 1. Typical geometries of ligand-protected Au_2 and Au_4 clusters: (a) $Au_2(PMe_3)_2$, (b) $Au_4(PMe_3)_2$, (c) $Au_4(PMe_3)_4$, and (d) $Au_4(NMe_3)_4$. Color scheme: yellow - Au, orange - P, blue - N, dark gray - C, light gray - H.

numerical cost should be low to allow scaling to larger systems. In this work, we explore the effect of different basis sets and density functional theory (DFT) functionals on the geometries and electronic properties of small gold clusters (Au₂ and Au₄) in the presence of several ligands (NH₃, NMe₃, PH₃, and PMe₃). We have tested smaller ligands such as PH₃ for our structural study, as it can satisfactorily model various commonly used alkyl phosphines as well as such ligands as PPh₃, according to previous findings.^{22,23} Analysis of the results from different methodologies leads to understanding of the underlying physical phenomena defining cluster geometry and chemical stability, and allows for identification of low-cost computational approaches applicable to larger systems.

Representative geometries of ligated Au₂ and Au₄ clusters are shown in Figure 1. We consider butterfly (rhombus) geometry of the Au₄ cluster, previously found to be the lowest energy isomer.²⁴ Four types of ligand molecules (NH₃, NMe₃, PH₃, and PMe₃) that can be used in experiment, have been adopted to construct three types of ligated clusters (12 molecules total): Au₂L₂ (e.g., Figure 1a), Au₄L₂ (e.g., Figure 1b), and Au₄L₄ (e.g., Figure 1c,d). We start discussion of the computational results with ligand binding energy, which is a critical quantity showing ligand ability to stabilize a metal cluster. The magnitude of the binding energy has been determined as the difference between the energies of an optimal structure of bound compound and its respective components, that is, free ligand molecules and a bare gold cluster, normalized by the number of ligands in the ligated cluster. Figure 2 shows dependence of the ligand binding energy on the DFT model calculated using the TZVP basis set. Despite the different origin of the five DFT functionals used in our study, the results produced by four of these functionals (with the exception of LSDA) are consistent and in close agreement with each other. Particularly, the binding energies calculated with three functionals (GGA, meta-GGA, and LChybrid) are within 2-3 kcal/mol for all clusters (Figure 2). As expected, the LSDA model consistently overestimated the binding energies by about 15 kcal/mol (50-70%) compared to all other models. This is the typical case for many molecular

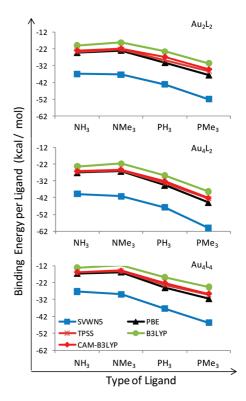


Figure 2. Binding energies per ligand in kcal/mol for geometries of Au_2 and Au_4 in partial and fully ligated forms determined using various DFT functionals. The TZVP basis set was used for all calculations.

systems, when later-developed functional models such as GGA or meta-GGA produce much more accurate results when compared with experimental data. For reference, Table 1S in the Supporting Information provides comparison of the bond lengths and dissociation energies of the bare Au_2 dimer using various functionals with the LANL2DZ basis set: indeed, the LSDA produces the best match to the experimental bond length of Au_2 (2.47 Å), but significantly overestimates the dimer's binding energy. From Figure 2 we also observe that B3LYP slightly underestimates the metal—ligand binding energies by $\sim 4-5$ kcal/mol in all molecules. Overall, we conclude that the ligand binding energy is not overly sensitive to the choice of functional, and the modern DFT models proven reliable for other molecular systems are able to provide stable and consistent trends in all considered clusters.

Figure 3 shows the dependence of the ligand binding energy on the basis set size calculated using the TPSS functional. It is apparent that the basis set plays a key role in determining correct energetic trends for ligand binding energies, regardless of the cluster type. Large basis sets (TZVP and QZVP) result in essentially identical ligand binding energies (within 1.5 kcal/mol in all cases). Subsequently, TZVP and QZVP basis sets can be used as reference methods for evaluation of the other three basis sets. We notice that the relative binding strength of amines versus phosphines changes significantly with the change in the basis set flexibility. From all three sets of data in Figure 3, it appears that the lack of polarization in the basis set artificially increases the bonding strength of amine ligands and weakens the bonding

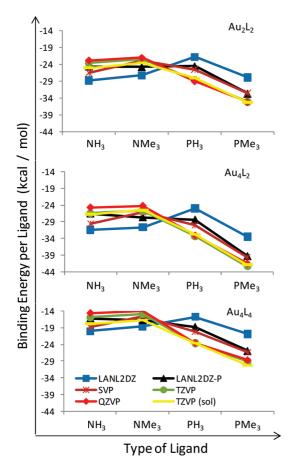


Figure 3. Binding energies per ligand in kcal/mol for geometries of Au_2 and Au_4 in partial and fully ligated forms determined using various basis sets. The TPSS functional was used for all calculations.

of phosphines. The lack of adequate description of polarization effects leads to the underestimation of phosphorus nucleophilicity, thereby lowering the strength of its interaction with gold. At the same time, it leads to artifically high energy of the $\sigma^*(Au-N)$ antibond, thereby strengthening the bonding of amines with gold. As a result, the least expensive LANL2DZ basis set lacking polarization functions fails to reproduce the relative binding strength of amines versus phosphines. Even adding a single polarization function for each element (LANL2DZ-P) allows one to correct the trend. Notably, both small basis sets, LANL2DZ and LANL2DZ-P, reproduce well the changes in bonding energies for the same family of ligands (NH₃ vs NMe₃) or (PH₃ vs PMe₃). The SVP basis set reproduces well the trend between PH₃ and PMe₃, but not NH₃ vs NMe₃.

The above analysis allows us to select TPSS/TZVP methodology to be adequate to analyze effects of ligand binding to small gold clusters. We further notice, that for all three types of ligated clusters, there is an expected increase in binding energies in the following order of ligands: NMe $_3 \approx \text{NH}_3 < \text{PH}_3 < \text{PMe}_3$. The similar binding energies of NH $_3$ and NMe $_3$ are expected because of the high electronegativity of nitrogen that dampens the effect of extra electron density from donating CH $_3$ groups. The observed similarity is consistent with close values of gas-phase proton affinities of NH $_3$ and

NMe₃ (196 and 216 kcal/mol, respectively).²⁹ In contrast to amines, the presence of donating groups on phosphorus significantly increases its nucleophilicity, which manifests in higher binding energies of PMe3 when compared to PH3. Finally, the radial extend and polarizabilty of the amine lone pair is smaller than that of the phosphine, which in turns leads to weaker binding of amines (23.7 kcal/mol per ligand for Au₂L₂ with TPSS/TZVP) to gold compared to phosphines (28.7 kcal/mol per ligand for Au₂L₂ with TPSS/TZVP). For all ligands we observe an increase in ligand binding energies in the order $Au_4L_4 < Au_2L_2 < Au_4L_2$. The increase in ligand binding from Au₄L₄ to Au₂L₂ most likely comes from increasing nuclephilicty of ligands as their number decreases around the cluster, and the strongest binding of ligands in Au₄L₂ is a result of extra electron density delocalization over four gold atoms compared to only two in Au₂L₂. It is noteworthy that the results produced in the presence of solvent are consistent with above order of binding strengths, but there is an observed increase in binding energies of nitrogen based ligands by 2 kcal/mol for Au₂L₂ and Au₄L₄, whereas there is no such change observed for Au₄L₂. This is likely due to nonuniform changes in cluster structures upon solvation.

The resulting geometries of all ligated clusters are similar and several representative structures are shown in Figure 1. For reference, Table 2S in the Supporting Information presents variations of Au-Au and Au-L bond lengths for the three geometries of the gold clusters we considered determined with different basis sets. The ligation of bare Au₂ dimer with NH₃ and PH₃ leads to an increase of the Au-Au metal bond in the case of PH₃ and does not affect the metal-metal separation in the case of bonding with NH₃. The coordination of two NH₃ or NMe₃ molecules to Au₄ cluster causes shortening of the central Au—Au bond and elongation of four peripheral Au—Au bonds when compared to bare Au₄ geometry. Analysis of bare and ligated Au₂ and Au₄ gold cluster geometries indicates that large basis sets (TZVP and QZVP) can be considered flexible enough to give rise to converged values of both Au-Au and Au-L bond lengths. The LANL2DZ basis set justifiably can be considered the least flexible, as it lacks any polarization functions on either atom. The lack of polarization mostly affects Au-P bonds, whereas Au-N bonds are only slightly elongated. LANL2DZ-P is somewhat less costly than SVP, and its use fixes most shortcomings of the parental LANL2DZ basis, therefore we believe that LANL2DZ-P may be preferred over SVP in geometry optimizations of large ligated gold cluster systems. Relatively small change in nucleophilicity of NMe₃ compared to NH₃ manifests itself only in a weekly pronounced Au-Au bond shrinkage, whereas the strong increase in phosphine nucleophilicity from PH3 to PMe3 results in more apparent Au-Au bond elongation.

It is important to note that geometry optimizations usually take many steps to converge since the multidimensional potential energy surfaces are very shallow in all clusters, particularly in the Au₄L₄ case. Consequently, we would expect large conformational freedom in the ligated clusters caused by thermal bath (or solvent) fluctuations. A representative case is the coordination of four ligands to Au₄: we observe that the amine ligand attachment causes an asymmetric shift of the peripheral gold atoms toward one of the central gold



atoms (Figure 1d) compared to the symmetric structure in the case of phosphine ligands (Figure 1c). This symmetry breaking leads to a significant elongation ($\sim\!0.15\,\text{Å}$) and weakening of two Au–Au bonds. Even though this conformational change is large, gain in energy due to this symmetry breaking is minimal: the energies of optimal symmetric (when artificial symmetry constraints are imposed) and asymmetric structures are different by 0.4 kcal/mol, which is smaller than the room temperature thermal quantum $kT\sim0.6$ kcal/mol. Moreover, the introduction of solvent causes Au₄L₄ geometries to appear similar the to Figure 1d structure in the presence of any ligand considered. As such, we expect that large conformational space will be sampled by the ensemble of ligated clusters in solvent.

All calculations have been performed using the commercially available Gaussian09³⁰ software package. We use five different basis sets with increasing amount of polarization and diffuse functions: the LANL2DZ double- ξ quality basis set with the corresponding effective core potential (ECP),³¹ LANL2DZ ECP augmented with single polarization function for each element (LANL2DZ-P),^{32,33} the split valence basis set def2-SVP of Ahlrichs et al. 34,35 with polarization, the triple- ζ valence def2-TZVP with polarization, and the quadruple- ζ valence def2-QZVP36 with polarization on all atoms and corresponding ECP on gold. Several commonly used DFT^{37,38} functionals were tested as well. Local spin density approximation (LSDA) was represented by the SVWN5 model, and the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) functional family was represented by the PBE exchange-correlation form. Among the later developed types of DFT functionals, TPSS³⁹ was our functional of choice for the kinetic energy density-dependent functional (meta-GGA). The currently popular and well-tested B3LYP⁴⁰ functional was used as a representative of a hybrid DFT model. B3LYP explicitly contains a fraction (20%) of orbital exchange. 41 Finally, we considered the long-range corrected functional CAM-B3LYP, 27 which accounts for longrange exchange effects believed to be important in the analysis of metal bonding in gold complexes and clusters.⁴² Solvation effects were simulated by using implicit CPCM solvation model⁴³ as implemented in Gaussian 09 with methanol being a solvent of choice. Gas-phase optimized geometries were used as initial guesses to optimize cluster geometries in solution. All geometry optimizations were performed without any symmetry constrains. ChemCraft-(v1.6) and GaussView(v3.0) visualization software packages were used for subsequent visualization of resulting molecular structures.

In conclusion, our computational study of small ligated gold clusters finds weak dependence of geometries and ligand binding energies on DFT functionals used in calculations (except LSDA), while underscoring the importance of polarization functions being present in the utilized basis set. Our results demonstrate that the TPSS/TZVP level of theory (if affordable) would be the method of choice for geometry optimization and chemical energy computations of ligated clusters. The LANL2DZ ECP basis set augmented with one polarization function per element (LANL2DZ-P) can be used for larger systems. We obtain NMe $_3 \approx$ NH $_3 <$ PH $_3 <$ PMe $_3$ order of ligand binding energies for Au $_2$ and Au $_4$ clusters.

Ligand binding energies also increase in the order $Au_4L_4 < Au_2L_2 < Au_4L_2$ for all ligands. Finally, we observe shallow potential energy surfaces for considered ligated gold cluster Au_4 . Consequently, significant conformational freedom in larger clusters with many ligands is expected due to solvent environment fluctuations. This work provides useful computational guidelines and insights for future theoretical and experimental studies toward using ligands as chemical tools to achieve desirable functionalities in noble metal clusters.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION AVAILABLE Table comparing bond lengths and binding energies of Au_2 dimer with different DFT functionals along with Table detailing the Au-Au (peripheral), Au-Au (central), and Au-Ligand bond lengths for 12 clusters of Au_2 and Au_4 . This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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