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TIME-DEPENDENT DENSITY FUNCTIONAL THEORY STUDIES
OF CHARGE TRANSFER IN OXYGEN DISSOCIATION
ON SILVER NANOPARTICLE

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JINGHENG DENG

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TIME-DEPENDENT DENSITY FUNCTIONAL THEORY STUDIES
OF CHARGE TRANSFER IN OXYGEN DISSOCIATION
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BY THE COMMITTEE CONSISTING OF

Dr. Yihan Shao, Chair

Dr. Bin Wang

Dr. Wak Tak Yip

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Abstract

We performed calculations to study the dominating charge transfer mechanism in an plasmon-mediated catalytic reaction, oxygen dissociation on Ag nanoparticles (NPs) by using time-dependent density functional theory. Two mechanisms, plasmon-induced hot-electron transfer (PHET) and direct interfacial charge transfer (DICT), were discussed. In order to study the effects of the size and shape of nanoparticles on the charge transfer, ten different geometries of Ag-NP-O₂ were considered. Real-time time-dependent density functional theory (RT-TDDFT) was used to obtain the evolution of electron density and energy. And fragment based Hirshfeld (FBH) population and Becke population were calculated to analyze the evolution of electron density and energy on the oxygen molecule. Linear-response time-dependent density functional theory (LR-TDDFT) calculations and natural transition orbitals (NTOs) analysis were performed to provide insights into the charge transfer process. The results of RT-TDDFT and LR-TDDFT are consistent with each other. It can be concluded that the PHET mechanism is the one dominating the charge transfer process while the DICT mechanism only has limited contribution.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Overview

A plasmon is a quantized collective oscillation of free electron gas in a metal, typically including Au and Ag, when the excitation is induced by the incident electromagnetic radiation[1]. Plasmonic nanoparticles are small particles whose sizes are far smaller than the wavelengths of incident radiations and it enables these particles to couple the electron gas oscillation with the radiations[2]. When radiation is applied on the surface of plasmonic nanoparticles with high free electron mobility and if the energy of radiation matches the resonance energy of the oscillation of surface valence electrons, localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) excitation will occur[3]. The resonance between radiation and the surface electrons can lead to the formation of coherent electrons in space and energy. As a result, LSPR excitation will produce a strong electric field, which is localized on the surface of the nanoparticles. The decay of the electric field further can lead to the formation of energetic charge carriers, hot electrons and holes[4, 5, 6]. Thus, plasmonic nanoparticles have attracted people's attention for several decades due to the great potential application in photochemical catalysis [7, 8, 9, 10]. When a molecule is

adsorbed on the surface of plasmonic nanoparticles, the hot electrons or holes can transfer to the adsorbate and further result in the formation of ionized adsorbate. It can be applied in catalyzing reaction, which is known as plasmonic-mediated catalysis by creating ionized unstable intermediates through LSPR. Typical examples include H₂O splitting, CO oxidation, hydrogenation of carbonyls, H₂ and O₂ dissociation, etc[7, 9, 11, 12].

1.2 Plasmon-mediated Catalysis

The idea of plasmon-mediated catalysis is to utilize the strong electric field generated due to the decay of excited plasmon to inject charge carriers into the virtual orbitals of reactants adsorbed on the surface of noble metals and eventually form an unstable ionic transition state of reactants.[9] Therefore, the formation of activated reactant depends on the generation of hot charge carriers (electrons or holes) which follows by the decay of plasmon excitation.

In plasmonic photocatalysis, electron-hole separation plays an essential role to activate the reaction. Therefore, the mechanism of electron-hole separation becomes the key to design a high-efficiency catalysis strategy. There are two reported mechanisms: conventional plasmon-induced hot-electron transfer (PHET) and direct interfacial charge transfer (DICT)[13, 14]. For a metal-adsorbate complex, the conventional PHET mechanism indicates that the electrons are excited from the occupied orbitals to the virtual orbitals at the metal. This is followed by electron-electron scattering (Landau damping), which leads to transferring the excited electrons from the conduction band of the metal to the virtual orbitals of the adsorbate. While in the DICT mechanism, charge carriers (electrons) can directly transfer from the occupied metal orbitals to the virtual adsorbate orbital through

chemical interface damping (CID)[14, 15, 16, 17]. Foerster et al. reported that the contribution of CID depends on the size of nanoparticles and predicted that CID is the dominant mechanism for plasmon decay process occurring in small gold nanorods[18]. Recent studies are paying more and more attention to the DICT mechanism for its potentially promising application on selective catalysis.[9] In the DICT mechanism, by tuning the shape and size of noble metal nanoparticles as well as the incident radiation, it is possible to improve the reaction efficiency and selectivity by selectively control the formation of the particular products through depositing energy in the corresponding reaction coordinate[3].

Recently, plasmon-mediated O₂ dissociation catches many researcher's attention[19, 20, 21, 22, 23]. Linic et al. reported plasmon-driven O₂ dissociation reaction on Ag nanotubes [24]. Wu et al. demonstrated a strategy of plasmon-induced hot electrons enhancement to catalyze oxygen reduction reaction on non-noble metal[25]. Even though plasmon-mediated O₂ dissociation reaction has generated a lot of interest, the electron transfer mechanism at molecular level still remains unclear.

1.3 Theoretical Methods

In practical applications, in order to design an appropriate reaction pathway to obtain desired products, it is important to determine which mechanism is dominating the reaction at molecular level.

In addition to experimental exploration on the mechanism of plasmonic mediated catalytic reaction, theoretical studies can also play an important role in studying the plasmon behavior of noble metal nanoparticles. Zhao et al. built a pyriding-Ag₂₀ model to study surface-enhanced Raman scattering[26]. Li et al. applied real-time time-dependent density functional theory to estimate the exciton trans-

fer and decay in a Ag nanowire array [27]. Yan et al. showed that the electron transition between the monolayer of hydrogen and the silver(111) surface can be modeled with using linear-response time-dependent density functional theory[28]. Since the computational cost increases significantly with the size of system ($\mathcal{O}(n^4)$ for LR-TDDFT, $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ for RT-TDDFT), studying a smaller system can be a good starting point. Kummel et al. and Aikens et al. performed calculations on different sizes of noble metal nanoparticles and showed that the resulting absorption spectra of smaller nanoparticles exhibit similar characteristic peaks compared to the larger nanoparticles[29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34]. As a result, the plasmon modes of different sizes of nanoparticles are expected to be similar.

This thesis focuses on the charge transfer mechanism for O₂ dissociation reaction on Ag nanoparticles using real-time time-dependent density functional theory (RT-TDDFT) and linear-response time-dependent density functional theory (LR-TDDFT). Both methods are essentially equivalent but each one also has its own unique features. For RT-TDDFT, the major feature is that the electronic dynamics can be obtained directly, which can provide an intuitive picture of electron behavior. However, to obtain a complete and accurate picture of the process, it requires a sufficiently long simulation with an appropriate time step, which can be as small as 0.02 atomic unit (0.5 attosecond). This could make the calculation very expensive. For LR-TDDFT, on the other hand, it is much more efficient than RT-TDDFT. Compared with RT-TDDFT, the low-lying excited states can be obtained with a relative low computational cost. Due to this reason, LR-TDDFT has been implemented in most of mainstream quantum chemistry calculation packages. Besides, various analysis methods for LR-TDDFT can be done in most of packages to obtain the insights on electron excitation, including natural transition

orbitals analysis, detachment/attachment density analysis[35].

In the remainder of this introduction, we briefly introduce the key concepts of two methods used in this study, RT-TDDFT and LR-TDDFT. Further discussions about the analysis techniques and calculation details will be discussed in chapter Two. Results will be presented in Chapter Three. Conclusions will be included in Chapter Four.

1.4 Density Functional Theory (DFT)

Density functional theory was established by Walter Kohn and Pierre Hohenberg in 1964[36] and then further developed by Walter Kohn and Lu Jeu Sham in 1965[37] to make it become practical. For a N-particle system, the Schödinger equation is written as:

$$\hat{H}\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3, \dots, \mathbf{r}_{N-1}, \mathbf{r}_N) = E\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3, \dots, \mathbf{r}_{N-1}, \mathbf{r}_N) \quad (1.1)$$

with Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \nabla_i^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|} + \sum_i v_{ext}(\mathbf{r}_i) \quad (1.2)$$

where $\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3, \dots, \mathbf{r}_{N-1}, \mathbf{r}_N)$ is the wave function of all electrons at positions $\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3, \dots, \mathbf{r}_{N-1}, \mathbf{r}_N$ and $v_{ext}(\mathbf{r})$ is the external potential which includes the coulomb potential caused by nucleus.

The energy of electrons is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}
E &= \int \cdots \int \Psi^* \hat{H} \Psi d\mathbf{r}_1 \cdots d\mathbf{r}_N \\
&= \int \cdots \int \Psi^* \left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \nabla_i^2 \right) \Psi d\mathbf{r}_1 \cdots d\mathbf{r}_N \\
&+ \int \cdots \int \Psi^* \left(\sum_{i \neq j} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|} \right) \Psi d\mathbf{r}_1 \cdots d\mathbf{r}_N \\
&+ \int \cdots \int \Psi^* \left(\sum_i v_{ext}(\mathbf{r}_i) \right) \Psi d\mathbf{r}_1 \cdots d\mathbf{r}_N \tag{1.3}
\end{aligned}$$

Within Kohn-Sham DFT, the wave function Ψ of a non-interacting system can be expressed in the form of Slater determinant with a set of orthonormal molecular orbitals $\{\psi_i\}$:

$$\Psi_{non-inter} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \begin{vmatrix} \psi_1(\mathbf{x}_1) & \psi_2(\mathbf{x}_1) & \psi_3(\mathbf{x}_1) & \cdots & \psi_N(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \psi_1(\mathbf{x}_2) & \psi_2(\mathbf{x}_2) & \psi_3(\mathbf{x}_2) & \cdots & \psi_N(\mathbf{x}_2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \psi_1(\mathbf{x}_N) & \psi_2(\mathbf{x}_N) & \psi_3(\mathbf{x}_N) & \cdots & \psi_N(\mathbf{x}_N) \end{vmatrix} \tag{1.4}$$

Define electron density:

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_i^{N_{MO}} |\psi_i|^2 \tag{1.5}$$

where ψ_i are the occupied molecular orbitals. Therefore, the total energy then can be written as:

$$E[\rho] = T[\rho] + V_{ee}[\rho] + \int \rho(\mathbf{r}) v_{ext} d\mathbf{r} \tag{1.6}$$

By doing the variation to $E[\rho]$:

$$\frac{\partial E[\rho]}{\partial \rho(\mathbf{r})} = 0 \quad (1.7)$$

The ground state density ρ can be obtained.

Based on eq. 1.5, Kohn and Sham made a further step to improve the accuracy of DFT. They proposed to construct a fictitious non-interacting system which has the same density as the real one. The resulting wave functions are fictitious and electronic correlation is not included. By doing so, the kinetic term in eq 1.5 is known so that no approximation on kinetic energy term is needed. Define:

$$E_{xc}[\rho] = T[\rho] - T_s[\rho] + V_{ee}[\rho] - J[\rho] \quad (1.8)$$

where $T_s[\rho] = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \langle \psi_i | \nabla^2 | \psi_i \rangle$ is the kinetic energy of non-interacting system, $J[\rho] = \frac{1}{2} \int \int \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2|} \rho(\mathbf{r}_1) \rho(\mathbf{r}_2) d\mathbf{r}_1 d\mathbf{r}_2$.

Therefore, the total energy functional then can be written as:

$$E[\rho] = T_s[\rho] + J[\rho] + E_{xc}[\rho] + \int \rho(\mathbf{r}) v_{ext} d\mathbf{r} \quad (1.9)$$

Then, Kohn-Sham (KS) equation can be written as[38]:

$$-\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \psi_i + v_{eff} \psi_i = \epsilon_i \psi_i \quad (1.10)$$

$$v_{eff} = v_{ext} + v_{ee} + v_{xc} \quad (1.11)$$

1.5 Time-Dependent DFT (TDDFT)

DFT is a ground state method, which describes time-independent cases. To study excited states, it should be extended to the time-dependent situation. Under the framework of DFT, there are two approaches, real-time time-dependent DFT (RT-TDDFT) and linear-response time-dependent DFT (LR-TDDFT).

1.5.1 Real-Time TDDFT (RT-TDDFT)

RT-TDDFT was established by Runge and Gross in 1983[39]. They showed that the time-dependent density can be determined uniquely from the effective potential. In other words, it implies that the many-body wave function is equivalent to the density. Therefore, the properties of a given system can be obtained through propagating the density. The time-dependent KS equation can be derived from applying variation to an action A :

$$A = \int dt \langle \psi(t) | i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - H(t) | \psi(t) \rangle \quad (1.12)$$

which satisfies:

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial \rho(t)} = 0 \quad (1.13)$$

where $\rho(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_i^{N_{occ}} |\psi_i(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2$. Apply the same method described in the previous section, one can finally obtain the time-dependent KS equation:

$$-\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \psi_i(\mathbf{r}, t) + v_{eff} \psi_i(\mathbf{r}, t) = i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi_i(\mathbf{r}, t) \quad (1.14)$$

$$v_{eff}(\mathbf{r}, t) = v_{ext}(\mathbf{r}, t) + v_{ee}(\mathbf{r}, t) + v_{xc}(\mathbf{r}, t) \quad (1.15)$$

Detailed algorithm will be discussed in chapter two.

1.5.2 Linear-Response TDDFT (LR-TDDFT)

Other than propagating the density matrix explicitly, another way to solve RT-KS equation is to apply a weak perturbation to the density matrix to get the corresponding response. Starting with TDSCF equation:

$$i \frac{\partial \mathbf{P}(t)}{\partial t} = [\mathbf{F}(t), \mathbf{P}(t)] \quad (1.16)$$

The perturbed density matrix:

$$\mathbf{P}(t) = \mathbf{P}^{(0)} + \lambda \mathbf{P}^{(1)}(t) \quad (1.17)$$

Since the time dependency of the Fock matrix comes from the density matrix, the resulted Fock matrix:

$$\mathbf{F}(t) = \mathbf{F}^{(0)} + \lambda \mathbf{F}^{(1)}(t) \quad (1.18)$$

By plugging equations 1.17 and 1.18 into 1.16 and solving it, one can finally get the resulting response function[40, 41]:

$$F_{aa}^{(0)} x_{ai} - x_{ai} F_{ii}^{(0)} + \left(f_{ai} + \sum_{bj} \left\{ \frac{\partial F_{ai}}{\partial P_{bj}} x_{bj} + \frac{\partial F_{ai}}{\partial P_{jb}} y_{bj} \right\} \right) P_{ii}^{(0)} = \omega x_{ai} \quad (1.19)$$

$$F_{ii}^{(0)} y_{ai} - y_{ai} F_{aa}^{(0)} - P_{ii}^{(0)} \left(f_{ia} + \sum_{bj} \left\{ \frac{\partial F_{ia}}{\partial P_{bj}} x_{bj} + \frac{\partial F_{ia}}{\partial P_{jb}} y_{bj} \right\} \right) = \omega y_{ai} \quad (1.20)$$

It can be further simplified to:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{B} & \mathbf{A} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{Y} \end{pmatrix} = \omega \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{Y} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.21)$$

where:

$$\mathbf{A}_{ai,bj} = \delta_{ij}\delta_{ab}(\epsilon_a - \epsilon_i) + (ai|jb) - (ab|ji) \quad (1.22)$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{ai,bj} = (ai|jb) - (ab|ji) \quad (1.23)$$

$$\mathbf{X}_{ai} = x_{ai} \quad (1.24)$$

$$\mathbf{Y}_{ai} = y_{ai} \quad (1.25)$$

In LR-TDDFT:

$$\mathbf{A}_{ai,bj} = \delta_{ij}\delta_{ab}(\epsilon_a - \epsilon_i) + (ai|bj) + (ai|f_{xc}|bj) \quad (1.26)$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{ai,bj} = (ai|bj) + (ai|f_{xc}|bj) \quad (1.27)$$

Chapter 2

Methods

2.1 Propagator

The density matrix at time t_2 is propagated from t_1 by applying a unitary propagator:

$$\mathbf{U}(t_2, t_1) = \mathcal{T} \exp \left(-i \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \mathbf{F}(t) dt \right) \quad (2.1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(t_2) = \mathbf{U}(t_2, t_1) \mathbf{P}(t_1) [\mathbf{U}(t_2, t_1)]^\dagger \quad (2.2)$$

A small time step is necessary to maintain the numerical stability when propagating the density matrix. In this work, the modified midpoint unitary transform (MMUT) method[42] was employed to propagate the density matrix.

Assume the time step is Δt and start from current time, t_N , with current density matrix $\mathbf{P}(t_N)$ and the one at previous half time step, $\mathbf{P}(t_N - 1/2\Delta t)$, to the next one $\mathbf{P}(t_N + 1/2\Delta t)$:

$$\mathbf{P}(t_N + 1/2\Delta t) = (e^{-i\Delta t \mathbf{F}(t_N)}) \mathbf{P}(t_N - 1/2\Delta t) (e^{i\Delta t \mathbf{F}(t_N)}) \quad (2.3)$$

where $\mathbf{F}(t_N)$ is the Fock matrix at t_N which can be built from $\mathbf{P}(t_N)$. Then, the density matrix at $t_N + \Delta t$:

$$\mathbf{P}(t_N + \Delta t) = (e^{-i\Delta t\mathbf{F}(t_N)})\mathbf{P}(t_N + 1/2\Delta t)(e^{i\Delta t\mathbf{F}(t_N)}) \quad (2.4)$$

2.2 Natural Transition Orbitals Analysis

In this study, the goal is to find out which electron transfer mechanism involved in the plasmon mediated catalysis is the dominant one. Therefore, looking at natural transition orbitals (NTOs) can give us essential insights on how the electrons (or holes) transfer during the excitation process[43]. The single particle transition density matrix is defined as

$$T_{ia} = \sum_{\sigma} \langle \Psi_{ex} | c_{i\sigma}^{\dagger} c_{a\sigma} | \Psi_0 \rangle \quad (2.5)$$

where i stands for occupied orbitals and a stands for virtual orbitals, σ is the spin index. The dimension of transition density matrix is $N_{occ} \times N_{vir}$. N_{occ} and N_{vir} are the number of occupied and virtual orbitals respectively.

Now define two unitary matrix \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} :

$$\mathbf{T}\mathbf{T}^{\dagger}u_i = \lambda_i u_i, \quad i = 1 \dots \mathbf{N}_o \quad (2.6)$$

$$\mathbf{T}^{\dagger}\mathbf{T}v_i = \lambda'_i v_i, \quad i = 1 \dots \mathbf{N}_v \quad (2.7)$$

where u_i, v_i are the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{T}\mathbf{T}^\dagger$ and $\mathbf{T}^\dagger\mathbf{T}$ separately, λ_i and λ'_i are the corresponding eigenvalues. Then, we have:

$$\mathbf{U} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{N_o}) \quad (2.8)$$

$$\mathbf{V} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{N_v}) \quad (2.9)$$

The matrix \mathbf{U} is a unitary transformation from the occupied canonical orbitals to the NTOs which can represent the “holes”, while \mathbf{V} transform virtual canonical orbitals to the NTOs which can represent “particles”. For those eigenvalues which have the same number, the corresponding NTOs are considered as a pair of “hole” and “particle”. For a given pair of eigenvalues λ_i, λ'_i , they are the excitation amplitudes of NTOs which reflect the importance of the corresponding NTO pair.

2.3 Partitioning Scheme

To obtain the dynamical picture of electron and energy distribution, two kinds of partitioning schemes were performed: fragment based Hirshfeld (FBH) and Becke scheme. For electron partitioning, the FBH scheme is given by[44]:

$$N_A = - \int d\mathbf{r} w_A(\mathbf{r}) \rho(\mathbf{r}) + Z_A \quad (2.10)$$

where N_A is the charge located on fragment A , ρ is the electron density of the molecule, Z_A is the nuclear charges on isolated fragment A , and w_A is corresponding weight:

$$w_A = \frac{\rho_A(\mathbf{r})}{\sum_B \rho_B(\mathbf{r})} \quad (2.11)$$

The Becke scheme is given by[45]:

$$N_A^{Becke} = - \int d\mathbf{r} w_A(\mathbf{r}) \rho(\mathbf{r}) + Z_A \quad (2.12)$$

$$w_A^{Becke} = \frac{P_A(\mathbf{r})}{\sum_B P_B(\mathbf{r})} \quad (2.13)$$

where P_A are cell functions which are polynomials in the distance between nuclei A and grid points (\mathbf{r})[46]. To obtain the partitioning of energy, it can be done by replacing the electron density with energy density.

2.4 Calculation Details

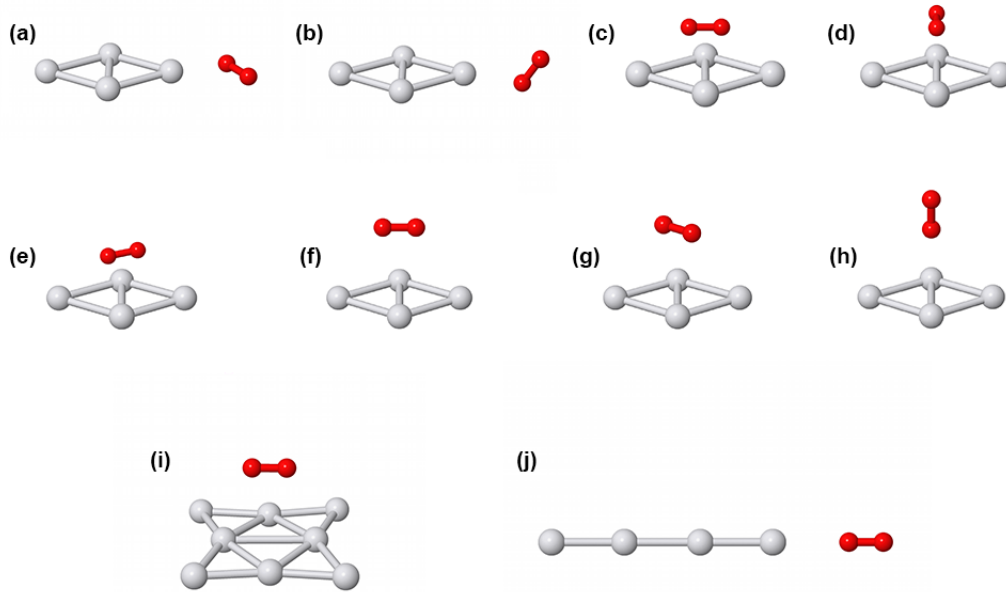


Figure 2.1: Optimized geometries studied in this work: a) side-long-short; b) side-long-T; c) side-short-long; d) side-short-short; e) side-short-T; f) parallel-long; g) parallel-short; h) T-shape; i) Ag₈-NC-O₂; j) Ag₄-NW-O₂

In this study, three different types of Ag nanoparticles, Ag₄[47], Ag₈ nanoclus-

ter (NC) and Ag₄ nanowire (NW)[27, 48] were studied. As shown in Fig. 2.1, the first two rows are the eight configurations of Ag₄ NW O₂ complex, the oxygen molecule was put around the silver cluster with different orientations. In the first two configurations, O₂ was put along the long axis of the Ag₄ and the O-O bond orientation is along the short axis (denoted as “side-long-short”) or perpendicular to the plane of Ag₄ (denoted as “side-long-T”). In the next three configurations, O₂ was put along the short axis and the O-O bond orientation is along the short axis (denoted as “side-short-short”) or along the long axis (denoted as “side-short-long”) or perpendicular to the plane of Ag₄ (denoted as “side-short-T”). In the last three configurations, O₂ was put above the plane of Ag₄ and, according to the orientation of O₂, in parallel with long axis, short axis of Ag₄ and perpendicular to the plane (denoted as “top-parallel-long”, “top-parallel-short” and “top-vertical” respectively). For Ag₈-NC-O₂ complex, the oxygen is parallel to the plane of Ag₈. For Ag₄-NW-O₂ complex, all atoms are on a straight line.

Optimization and LR-TDDFT calculations were performed by using Q-chem 5.1 package[35] with PBE functional[49]. 6-31G(d) basis set was used on oxygen atoms and Stuttgart effective core potential and basis set[50] was used on silver atoms. The same level of theory was used throughout the whole work. In LR-TDDFT calculations, 600 excited states and the corresponding natural transition orbitals (NTOs) were obtained.

The electronic dynamics of all geometries were obtained by performing RT-TDDFT calculations with using PySCF package[51]. The modified Midpoint Unitary Transform (MMUT)[42] propagation scheme was used and three time steps (0.02, 0.05, 0.2 a.u.) were adopted. For all RT-TDDFT calculations, a weak-field perturbation (for Ag₈-NC-O₂ and Ag₄-NC-O₂, the field strength was 10⁻³ a.u.; for Ag₄-NW-O₂,

it was 10^{-4} a.u.) was applied to the initial state in the direction from Ag nanoparticles to O₂ molecule. For all Ag₄ complexes, the total number of propagation steps was 10000, thus the total propagation time for each time step were 200, 500 and 2000 a.u. respectively. For the Ag₈ complex, only two time steps were adopted, 0.02 and 0.2 a.u. and the corresponding number of time steps were 10000 and 4000 respectively. Fragment based Hirshfeld population and Becke population were calculated to analyze the evolution of electron density and energy on the oxygen molecule.

Chapter 3

Results

3.1 RT-TDDFT Results

3.1.1 Energy and Electron Density Evolution

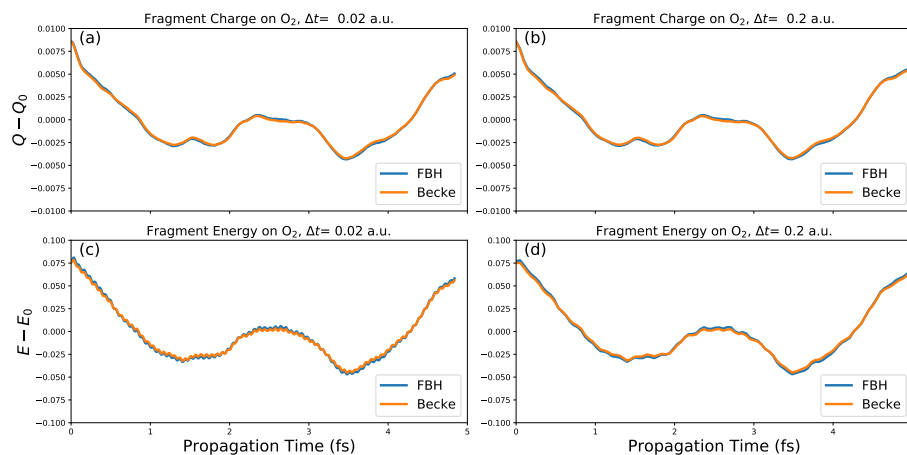


Figure 3.1: Net charges (a-b) and energy (c-d) evolution of Ag₈-NC-O₂ with different time step.

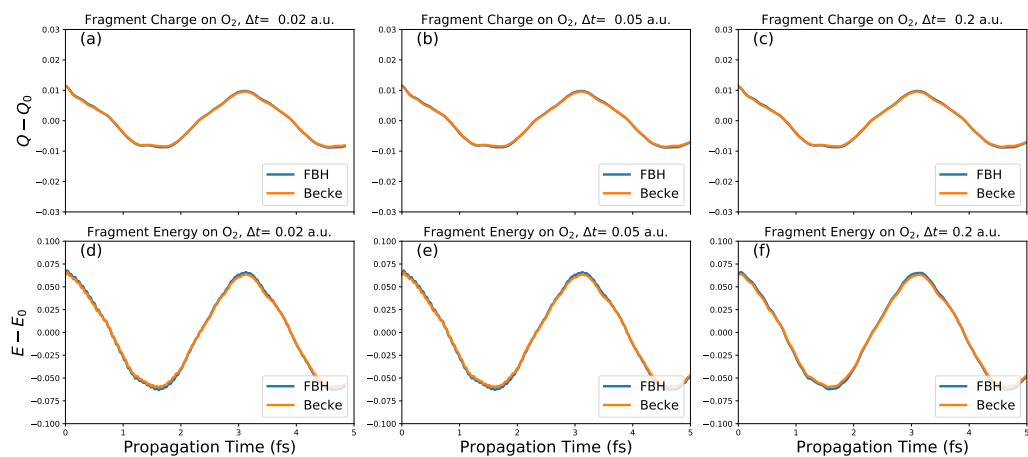


Figure 3.2: Net charges (a-c) and energy (d-f) evolution of “top-parallel-long” $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NC-O}_2$ with different time step.

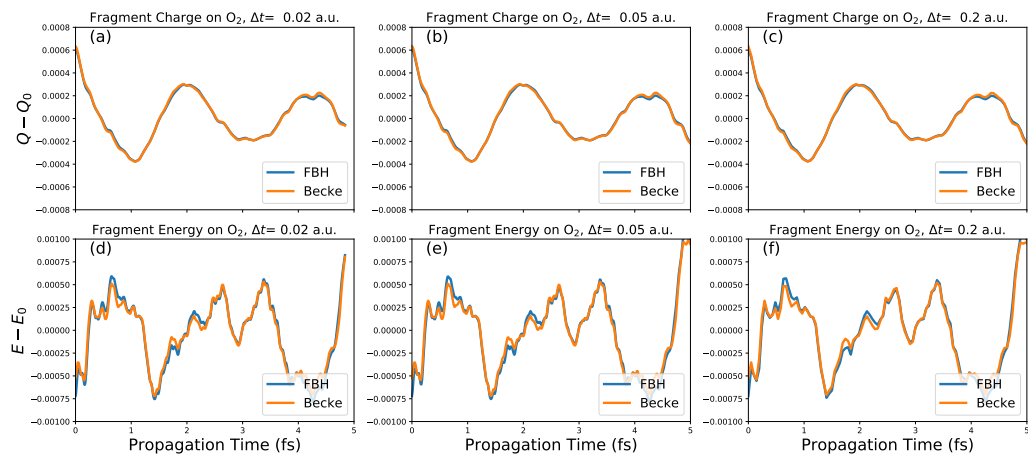


Figure 3.3: Net charges (a-c) and energy (d-f) evolution of $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NW-O}_2$ with different time step.

The energy and charge evolution curves for O_2 of $Ag_8\text{-NC-O}_2$, $Ag_4\text{-NC-O}_2$, $Ag_4\text{-NW-O}_2$ complexes are shown in Fig. 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 respectively. (Note that the charge here refers to the net charges on the O_2 molecule.) For the $Ag_4\text{-NC-O}_2$ complexes, only the of result of “top-parallel-long” configuration is shown here due to its most significant net charge oscillation among all eight configurations. Looking at the curves of $Ag_8\text{-NC-O}_2$ and $Ag_4\text{-NC-O}_2$, clearly, the charge and energy fluctuate synchronously since the sign of charge and energy on O_2 are always the same. It is consistent with the fact that the energy of a system will decrease when additional electrons are added and vice versa. However, for $Ag_4\text{-NC-O}_2$ complex, it has a very different behavior shown in Fig. 3.3. Although, the overall shapes of charge evolution and energy evolution curve are quite similar, a phase difference of around 1.6 fs can be observed which is indicating that the charge and energy are out of sync to each other. It is a character of the indirect electron transfer mechanism (PHET). According to the PHET mechanism, the electrons in the occupied orbitals of $Ag_4\text{-NC}$ are excited to its virtual orbital first and then undergo thermalization to Fermi-Dirac distribution through electron-electron scattering. During the electron-electron scattering process, the energy transfer should not be in sync to the electron transfer.

3.2 LR-TDDFT Results

3.2.1 Absorption Spectra

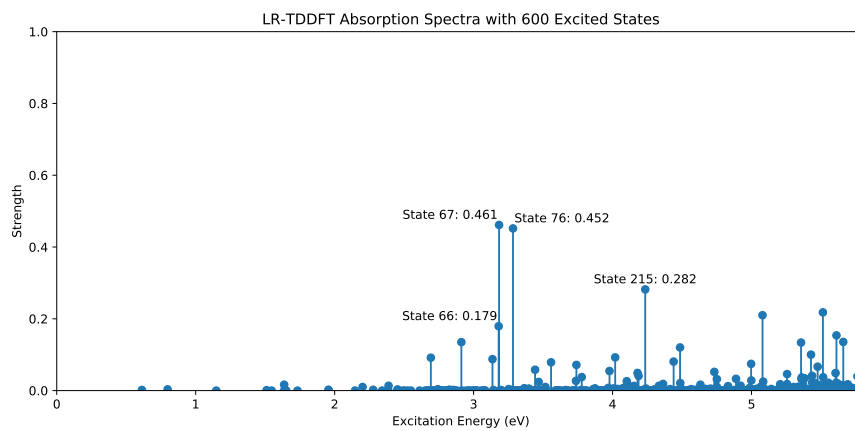


Figure 3.4: LR-TDDFT absorption spectrum with 600 excited states for Ag₈-NC-O₂

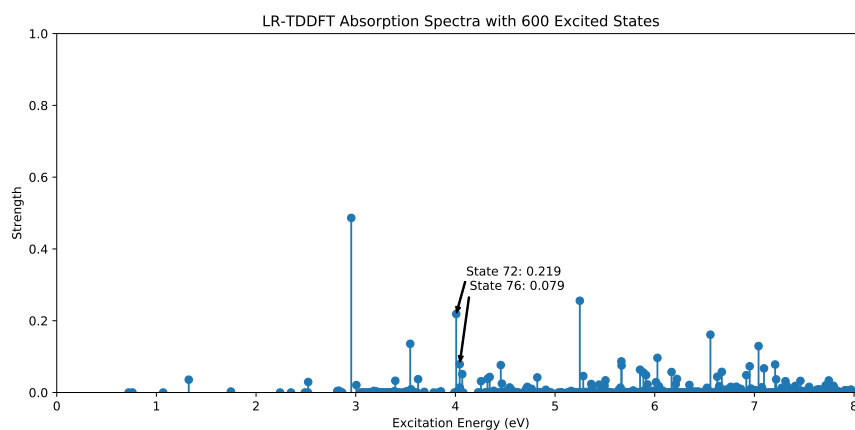


Figure 3.5: LR-TDDFT absorption spectrum with 600 excited states for “top-parallel-long” Ag₄-NC-O₂

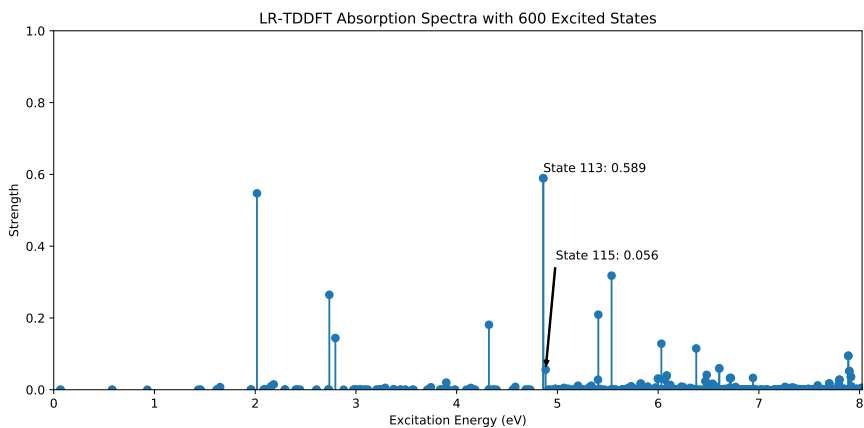


Figure 3.6: LR-TDDFT absorption spectrum with 600 excited states for $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NW-O}_2$

The absorption spectra with 600 excited states of three complexes solved by using LR-TDDFT method are shown in Fig. 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6 respectively. For $\text{Ag}_8\text{-NC-O}_4$ complex, the 67^{th} , 67^{th} , 76^{th} and 215^{th} excited states were picked out for further examination through looking at their NTOs due to their relative high oscillation strengths. Besides, 66^{th} excited state is also selected because it is degenerate with 67^{th} state.

For the same reason, the 15^{th} , 72^{th} and 76^{th} excited state of $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NC-O}_2$ complex as well as the 113^{th} and 115^{th} of $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NW-O}_2$ complex are picked out.

3.2.2 Natural Transition Orbitals Analysis

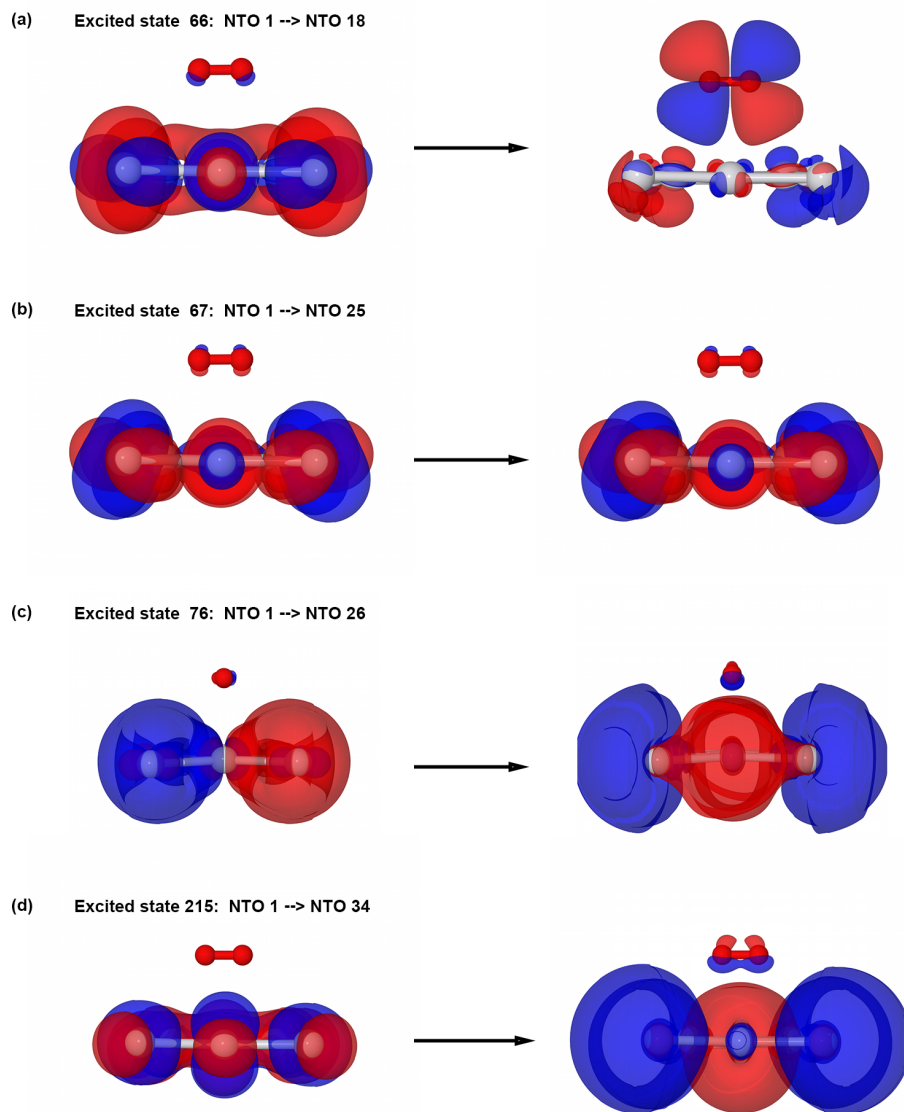


Figure 3.7: Selected natural transition orbitals of $\text{Ag}_8\text{-NC-O}_2$ (Isovalue=0.01 a.u.)

Table 3.1: Selected NTOs of Ag₈-NC-O₂

Excited state	NTO pair	Eigenvalues
66	1 → 18	0.723
67	1 → 25	0.296
76	1 → 26	0.330
215	1 → 34	0.314

For each excited state, the pair of NTOs with the largest eigenvalue were picked out and plotted, because the largest eigenvalue means that it plays the most important role. The selected NTOs of Ag₈-NC-O₂ complex mentioned in the previous section are shown in Fig. 3.7 and the corresponding eigenvalues are shown in Tab. 3.1. In Fig. 3.1(a), the hole is mainly located on Ag while the particle is transferred to a delocalized π^* orbital on O₂. This is indicating that the 66th excited state is a charge-transfer excited state, to be more specific, it is a “ $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ ” excitation. And it can be the evidence that DICT mechanism contributes part of the electron transfer during the decay of plasmon on Ag₈-NC-O₂ complex. However, the other NTO pairs show a different picture of hole and particle: both of the hole and the particle mainly locate on Ag. And especially in Fig. 3.1(c) and (d), the particle is more delocalized than the hole. It is reasonable to consider the 67th, 76th and 215th excited states are local excitations which are supporting the PHET mechanism. Overall, both of the characters of PHET and DICT mechanism show up in the excitation of Ag₈-NC-O₂ complex, however, the oscillation strength of the charge transfer state is much lower than any other state shown in Fig. 3.1. Therefore, PHET mechanism can be considered as the major pathway governing charge transfer in this complex..

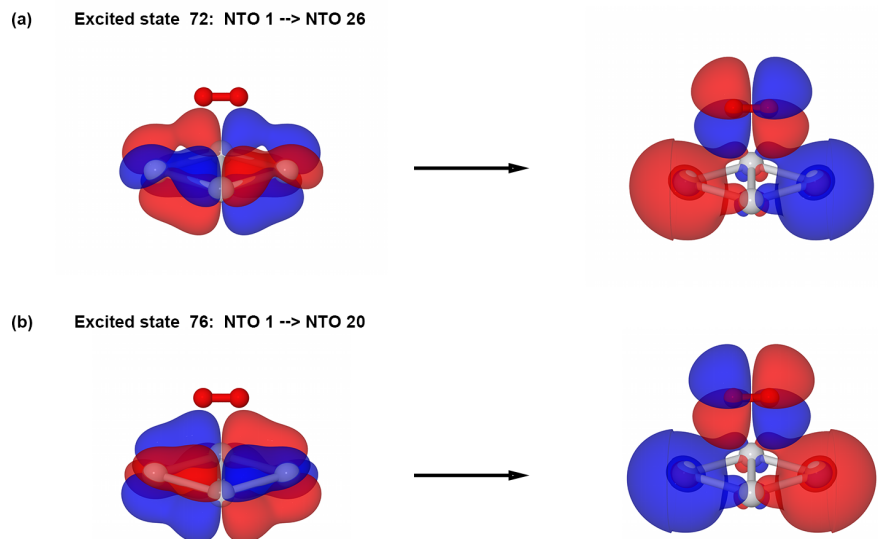


Figure 3.8: Selected natural transition orbitals of “top-parallel-long” Ag₄-NC-O₂ (Isovalue=0.01 a.u.)

Table 3.2: Selected NTOs of “top-parallel-long” Ag₄-NC-O₂

Excited state	NTO pair	Eigenvalues
72	1 → 26	0.356
76	1 → 20	0.630

For the “top-parallel-long” Ag₄-NC-O₂ complex, it is clear to see that both of the excited states shown in Fig. 3.8 refers to the “ $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ ” excitation. It is a charge transfer from the occupied orbital of Ag₄ to the virtual orbital the O₂ molecule. However, due to the relative low oscillation strengths of the selected excited states, the DICT mechanism is not that significant. As a result, it is reasonable to consider PHET mechanism as the one dominating the charge transfer process while both mechanisms are involved.

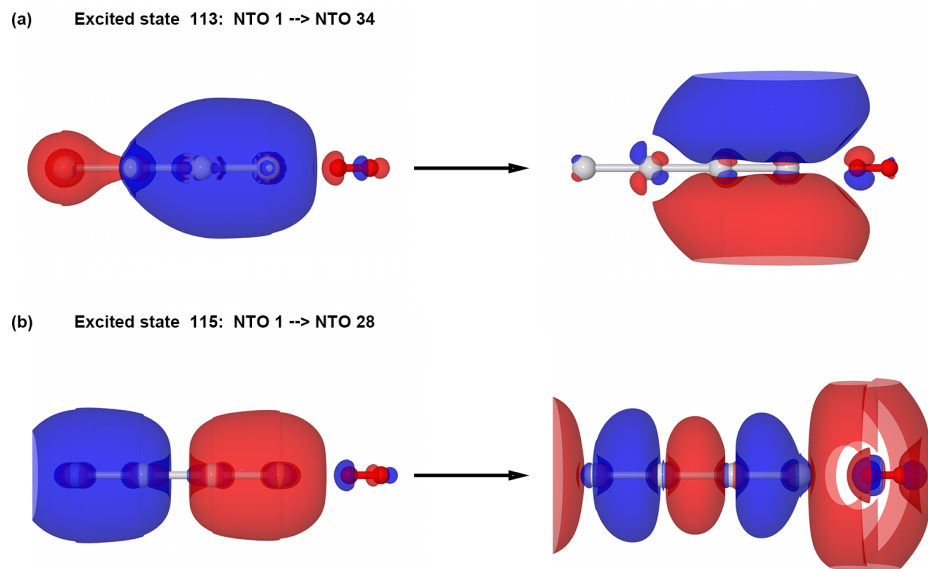


Figure 3.9: Selected natural transition orbitals of $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NW-O}_2$ (Isovalue=0.01 a.u.)

Table 3.3: Selected NTOs of $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NW-O}_2$

Excited state	NTO pair	Eigenvalues
113	1 \rightarrow 34	0.267
115	1 \rightarrow 28	0.464

For the $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NW-O}_2$ complex, in Fig. 3.8, the holes of two excited states are mainly locating on $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NW}$. The particle of the 113th state still mainly locate on Ag but it becomes much more delocalized than the hole. Thus, it can be considered as a local excitation. While, for the 115th excited state, the particle becomes extreme delocalized throughout the whole complex. The virtual NTO of Ag_4 mixes with that of O_2 so that it is possible for the electron to transfer from Ag_4 to O_2 directly. Nonetheless, the small oscillation strength of 115th excited state, 0.056, indicates that it can not be the major electron transfer mode.

Chapter 4

Conclusions

By comparing the the RT-TDDFT and LR-TDDFT results of all complexes in this study, one can observe that the both of local excitations and charge transfer excitation between Ag NP and O₂ exist in the excitation process. The existence of direct charge transfer shown in this work is consistent with experimental results. But the local excitation still holds the major contribution to the overall excitation while charge-transfer excitation only has limited contribution for the Ag-NP-O₂ system.

Besides, by comparing the results of different complexes or configurations, it can be seen that the parallel configuration tend to make the charge-transfer excitation more significant. The potential reason is the relative larger orbital overlap between the orbitals of two fragments.

Appendix A

Figures

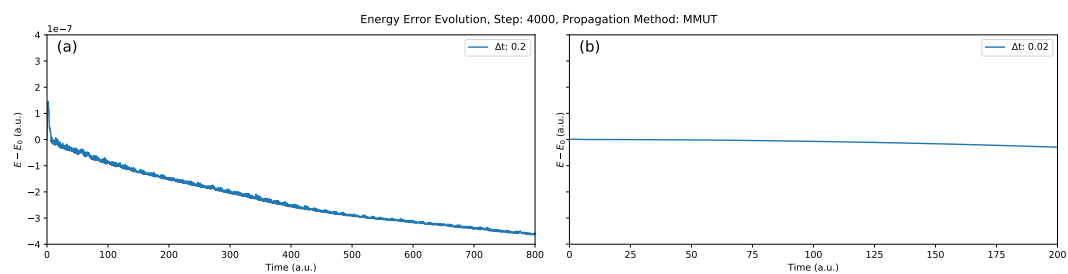


Figure A.1: RT-TDDFT energy conservation for Ag₈-NC-O₂

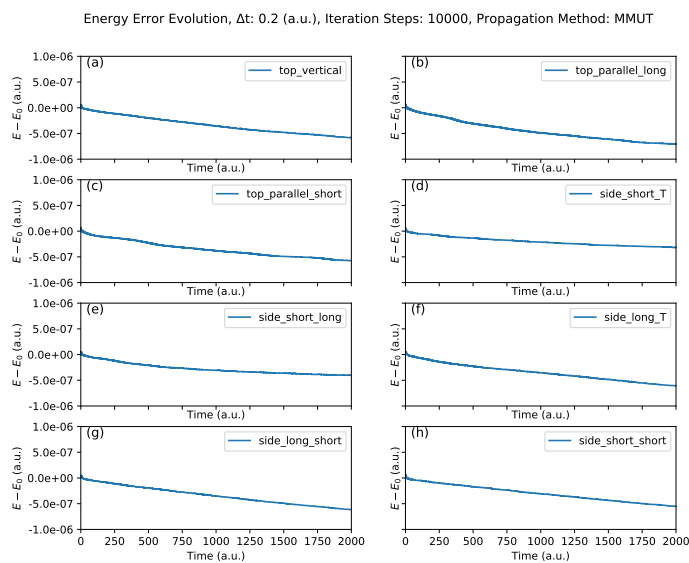


Figure A.2: RT-TDDFT energy conservation for $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NC-O}_2$ with a time step of 0.2 a.u.

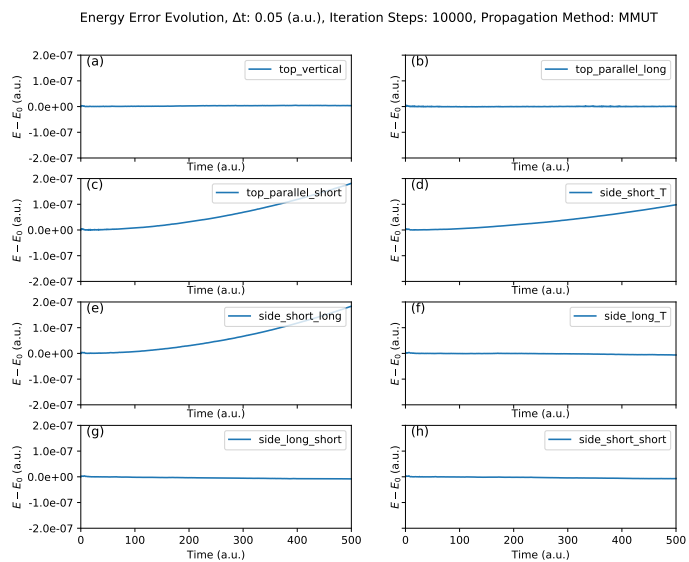


Figure A.3: RT-TDDFT energy conservation for $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NC-O}_2$ with a time step of 0.05 a.u.

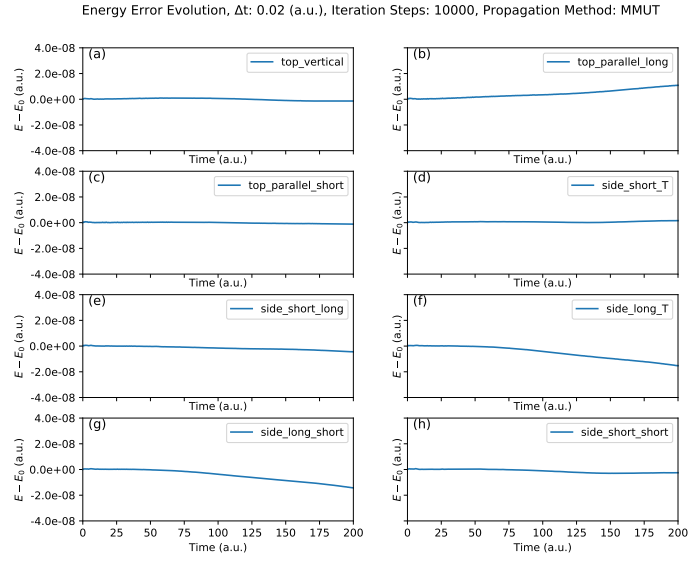


Figure A.4: RT-TDDFT energy conservation for $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NC-O}_2$ with a time step of 0.02 a.u.

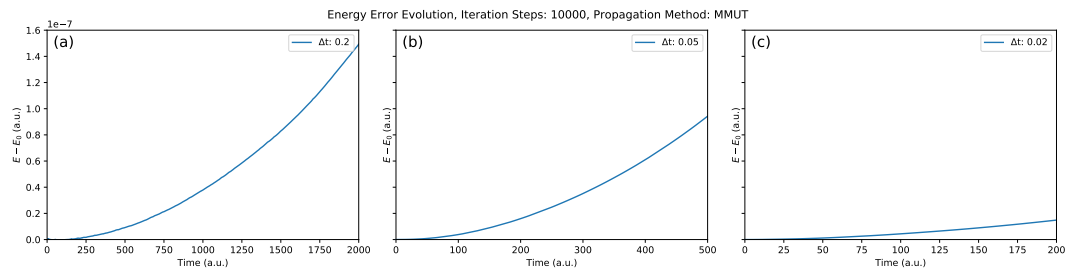


Figure A.5: RT-TDDFT energy conservation for $\text{Ag}_4\text{-NW-O}_2$

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