

Integrals of Gaussian Type Orbitals (GTO)

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April 3, 2024

- In computational chemistry, STOs (Slater-Type Orbitals) and GTOs (Gaussian-Type Orbitals) are fundamental for describing the electronic structure of molecules.
- These basis functions play a crucial role in methods like Hartree-Fock theory and density functional theory (DFT).

STO (Slater-Type Orbitals)

- STOs are derived from solutions of the Schrödinger equation for the hydrogen atom.
- Defined as:

$$\phi_{nlm}(\mathbf{r}) = N_{nl} r^{n-1} e^{-\zeta r} Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$$

- n , l , and m are quantum numbers; r is the distance from the nucleus; θ and ϕ are angles; Y_{lm} are spherical harmonics.
- STOs have limitations regarding decay properties, affecting convergence in molecular calculations.

GTO (Gaussian-Type Orbitals)

- GTOs are expressed as Gaussian functions multiplied by polynomials.
- Defined as:

$$g_{nlm}(\mathbf{r}) = N_{nl} r^n e^{-\alpha r^2} Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$$

- α determines the width of the Gaussian function.
- GTOs offer computational advantages due to mathematical simplicity and better decay properties.

Why We Use STO and GTO

- 1 Representation of Electron Wavefunctions
- 2 Flexibility and Accuracy
- 3 Computational Efficiency
- 4 Basis Set Expansion
- 5 Applicability to Various Methods
- 6 Adaptability to Molecular Symmetry

Introduction to Cartesian Gaussians

- Cartesian Gaussians are a type of Gaussian-type orbital (GTO) used in computational chemistry.
- They offer a convenient representation of molecular orbitals in Cartesian coordinates.
- Cartesian Gaussians are expressed in terms of x , y , and z coordinates, rather than spherical coordinates.

Form of Cartesian Gaussian

A Cartesian Gaussian takes the form:

$$C_{ijk}^{\alpha, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \triangleq P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}} \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) = \langle \mathbf{r} | \alpha, \mathbf{x}, i, j, k \rangle$$

$$P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \triangleq (r_1 - x_1)^i (r_2 - x_2)^j (r_3 - x_3)^k$$

- α : This is a positive constant known as the exponent coefficient. It controls the width of the Gaussian function. Larger values of α result in a narrower peak, concentrating the function's amplitude closer to the center \mathbf{x} .
- \mathbf{r} : This is a three-dimensional vector representing the point where the function is evaluated. In Cartesian coordinates, it typically has components (r_1, r_2, r_3) , corresponding to the positions along the x , y , and z axes, respectively.
- \mathbf{x} : This is also a three-dimensional vector representing the center of the Gaussian function. It typically has components (x_1, x_2, x_3) , specifying the position of the peak along the x , y , and z axes, respectively.

Advantages of Cartesian Gaussians

- Provide a more direct representation of molecular orbitals in Cartesian coordinates.
- Well-suited for Cartesian-coordinate-based computational methods like Hartree-Fock theory and density functional theory (DFT).
- Offer computational advantages similar to other types of Gaussians, such as flexibility and ease of manipulation.

The List of Integrals

Four integrals are necessary for HF:

- 1 The overlap integral: $\langle p | q \rangle$.
- 2 The kinetic integral: $\langle p | \nabla^2 | q \rangle$.
- 3 The nuclear integral: $\langle p | V_{\text{nuc}} | q \rangle$.
- 4 The electron repulsion integrals (ERI): $(pq | rs)$ and $(pr | qs)$.

p, q, r, s are (contracted) Cartesian Gaussians.

Overlap

The overlap integral is an integral over the product of two Cartesian Gaussians:

$$\langle \beta, \mathbf{y}, r, s, t \mid \alpha, \mathbf{x}, i, j, k \rangle = \int d\mathbf{r} C_{rst}^{\beta, \mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{r}) C_{ijk}^{\alpha, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r})$$

Since the product of two Cartesian Gaussians is another Cartesian Gaussian, we end up integrating just a single Cartesian Gaussian. This integral relies on the observation that derivatives of a Gaussian w.r.t. its center span the vector space of Cartesian Gaussians.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) = 2\alpha(r_1 - x_1) \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2)$$

More generally, the n^{th} derivative defines the n^{th} Hermite polynomial $\alpha^{n/2} H_n(\sqrt{\alpha}(r_1 - x_1))$

$$\frac{\partial^n}{\partial x_1^n} \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) = \alpha^{j/2} H_n(\sqrt{\alpha}(r_1 - x_1)) \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2)$$

The Hermite polynomials form a basis set for polynomials, so we can expand the polynomial part of the Cartesian Gaussian product in terms of Hermite polynomials as

$$C_{rst}^{\beta,\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{r})C_{ijk}^{\alpha,\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha\beta|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}|^2}{\gamma}\right) \sum D_{ir}^m E_{js}^n F_{kt}^p \Lambda_{mnp}^{\gamma,\mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{r})$$

$$\Lambda_{mnp}^{\gamma,\mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\partial^m}{\partial z_1^m} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial z_2^n} \frac{\partial^p}{\partial z_3^p} \exp(-\gamma(\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{z})^2)$$

We will call the function Λ the Hermite Gaussians. The coefficients in this basis transform can be recursively evaluated as

$$(r_1 - x_1)^i (r_1 - y_1)^r = \sum_m^{i+r} D_{i,r}^m \gamma^{m/2} H_m(\sqrt{\gamma}(r_1 - z_1))$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (r_1 - x_1) \cdot (r_1 - x_1)^{i-1} (r_1 - y_1)^r \\
 &= \sum_m^{i+r-1} D_{i-1,r}^m \gamma^{m/2} ((r_1 - z_1) + (z_1 - x_1)) H_m(\sqrt{\gamma}(r_1 - z_1)) \\
 &= \sum_m^{i+r-1} D_{i-1,r}^m \left(\gamma^{m/2} (z_1 - x_1) H_m + \gamma^{(m-1)/2} \left(m H_{m-1} - \frac{1}{2} H_{m+1} \right) \right) \\
 &= \sum_m^{i+r-1} D_{i-1,r}^m \gamma^{m/2} (z_1 - x_1) H_m \\
 &+ D_{i-1,r}^{m+1} \gamma^{m/2} (m+1) H_m - D_{i-r,r}^{m-1} \gamma^{(m-2)/2} \frac{1}{2} H_m,
 \end{aligned}$$

Overlap

which yields

$$\gamma = \alpha + \beta, \mathbf{z} = \frac{\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}}{\gamma},$$

$$D_{ir}^m = \frac{1}{2\gamma} D_{i-1,r}^{m-1} + (r_1 - x_1) D_{i-1,r}^m + (m+1) D_{i-1,r}^{m+1},$$

$$D_{0r}^m = \frac{1}{2\gamma} D_{0,r-1}^{m-1} + (r_1 - y_1) D_{0,r-1}^m + (m+1) D_{0,r-1}^{m+1},$$

$$D_{00}^0 = 1, \text{ and } D_{ir}^m = 0 \text{ if } m < 0 \text{ or } m > i + r.$$

Once we have the coefficients, the overlap integral can be performed through $\Lambda_{mnp}^{\gamma,\mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{r})$ as

$$\int d\mathbf{r} \Lambda_{mnp}^{\gamma,\mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\partial^m}{\partial z_1^m} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial z_2^n} \frac{\partial^p}{\partial z_3^p} \int d\mathbf{r} \exp(-\gamma(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{z})^2) = \delta_{m0} \delta_{n0} \delta_{p0} \left(\frac{\pi}{\gamma}\right)^{3/2}$$

The kinetic integral is also a Cartesian Gaussian integral, and it can be performed the same way as the overlap integral. We first derive the Laplacian of a Cartesian Gaussian

$$\begin{aligned}
 \nabla^2 C_{ijk}^{\alpha, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) &= (\nabla^2 P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r})) \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) + P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \nabla^2 \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) \\
 &\quad + 2 \nabla P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot \nabla \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) \\
 &= \partial_{r_1}^2 P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) + P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \partial_{r_1}^2 \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) \\
 &\quad + 2 \partial_{r_1} P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot \partial_{r_1} \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) + \partial_{r_2} \dots \\
 &= i(i-1) P_{i-2jk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) \\
 &\quad + 4\alpha^2 P_{i+2jk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) - 2\alpha P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) \\
 &\quad - 4i\alpha P_{ijk}^{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \exp(-\alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{x})^2) + \dots \\
 &= i(i-1) C_{i-2jk}^{\alpha, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) + 4\alpha^2 C_{i+2jk}^{\alpha, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) - 2\alpha(2i+1) C_{ijk}^{\alpha, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}).
 \end{aligned}$$

The kinetic integral is then easy to write down as

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{\text{kin}} &= -\frac{1}{2} \int C_{rst}^{\beta,\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{r}) \nabla^2 C_{ijk}^{\alpha,\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r} \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} i(i-1) \int d\mathbf{r} C_{rst}^{\beta,\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{r}) C_{i-1jk}^{\alpha,\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \\
 &\quad - 2\alpha^2 \int d\mathbf{r} C_{rst}^{\beta,\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{r}) C_{i+2jk}^{\alpha,\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) + \alpha \int d\mathbf{r} C_{rst}^{\beta,\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{r}) C_{ijk}^{\alpha,\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}).
 \end{aligned}$$

The nuclear integral also involves a product of two Cartesian Gaussians. After converting the product to a sum of Hermite Gaussians, the integral boils down to evaluating:

$$\int d\mathbf{r}' \Lambda_{mnp}^{\gamma, \mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{r}') \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}|}$$

This integral has a well-known analytical solution for specific cases.

The electrostatic potential of a uniformly charged sphere

For a charge distribution $\sigma\rho(\mathbf{r})$, where σ is the total charge and $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ is a normalized density, the potential energy can be evaluated as

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \sigma \int d\mathbf{r}' \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{|\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}|}$$

For a uniformly charged sphere in 3D, the density is $\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \sigma\delta(r - R)$. Its potential at \mathbf{r} can be analytically evaluated in the spherical coordinates.

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sigma^2 \int dr' r'^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi \frac{\delta(r' - R)}{\sqrt{(r')^2 + r^2 - 2r'r \cos\theta}} = \sigma^2 \int \frac{R^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi}{\sqrt{R^2 + r^2 - 2Rr \cos\theta}} \\ &= \frac{2\pi\sigma^2}{r} \left(\sqrt{(R+r)^2} - \sqrt{(R-r)^2} \right) = \begin{cases} \frac{R^2\sigma}{r} & \text{if } R < r \\ R\sigma & \text{if } R > r \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Gaussian as stacked concentric spheres

A isotropic Gaussian distribution in 3D can be viewed as many concentric spheres stacked together and the potential is then an integral over the stacks. A isotropic Gaussian distribution in $3D\Lambda_{000}^{\gamma,0}$ can now be viewed as many concentric spheres stacked together and the potential is then an integral over the stacks

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \exp(-\gamma r^2) = \int dR \exp(-\gamma R^2) \delta(r - R)$$

$$\begin{aligned} V(\mathbf{r}) &= 4\pi \int_0^r dR \exp(-\gamma R^2) \frac{\sigma R^2}{r} + 4\pi \int_r^\infty dR \exp(-\gamma R^2) \sigma R \\ &= \frac{2\pi}{\gamma r} \int_0^r \exp(-\gamma R^2) dR = \frac{2\pi}{\gamma^{3/2} r} \int_0^{\sqrt{\gamma} r} e^{-t^2} dt = \frac{\pi^{3/2} \operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{\gamma} r)}{2\gamma^{3/2} r}. \end{aligned}$$

Gaussian as stacked concentric spheres

For the purpose of differentiation it turns out to be more general to write the result in terms of $u = t/(\sqrt{\gamma}r)$ instead of the error function,

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{2\pi}{\gamma} \int_0^1 e^{-\gamma r^2 u^2} du \triangleq \frac{2\pi}{\gamma} F_0(\gamma r^2)$$

The potential of $\Lambda_{mnp}^{\gamma, \mathbf{z}}$ can now be written as the derivative of F_0

$$\frac{\partial^m}{\partial z_1^m} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial z_2^n} \frac{\partial^p}{\partial z_3^p} \int d\mathbf{r} \Lambda_{000}^{\gamma, \mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{2\pi}{\gamma} \frac{\partial^m}{\partial z_1^m} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial z_2^n} \frac{\partial^p}{\partial z_3^p} F_0(\gamma |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{z}|^2) \triangleq \frac{2\pi}{\gamma} R_{mnp0}$$

Gaussian as stacked concentric spheres

Calculating R_{mnp0} is efficient with the recursive relations

$$R_{00pj} = z_3 R_{00p-1j+1} + (p-1)R_{00p-2j+1},$$

$$R_{0npj} = z_2 R_{0n-1pj+1} + (n-1)R_{0n-2pj+1},$$

$$R_{mnpj} = z_1 R_{m-1npj+1} + (m-1)R_{m-2npj+1},$$

$$R_{000j} = (-2\gamma)^j F_j(\alpha|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{z}|^2),$$

$$F_j(T) = \Gamma(m)\Gamma(m, T)/(2T^m), \text{ with } m = j + 1/2,$$

$$R_{mnpj} = 0 \text{ if } m < 0 \text{ or } n < 0 \text{ or } p < 0.$$

where $\Gamma(m)$ is the Gamma function and $\Gamma(m, T)$ is the upper incomplete Gamma function. $F_j(T)$ seemingly has a singularity at $T = 0$, which can be circumvented by Taylor expanding the expression around $T = 0$.

Given two isotropic Gaussians $\Lambda_{000}^{\alpha,\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r})$ and $\Lambda_{000}^{\beta,\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{r})$, the Coulomb potential in between is

$$\int d\mathbf{r}d\mathbf{r}' \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} \Lambda_{000}^{\alpha,\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \Lambda_{000}^{\beta,\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{r}')$$

This integral is performed in the two center bipolar coordinate, where the coordinate of a point is specified by its distances to \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} , which we denote p and q , and an azimuthal angle ϕ . The volume element is the shaded region, whose area is $dp dq / \sin(\theta)$ with an thickness of $h d\phi$. h can be expressed through the area of the triangle as $h = pq \sin(\theta) / a$. Therefore, the volume element turns out to be $(pq/a) dp dq d\phi$. Perform the integral over in the bipolar coordinates gives

$$J = \int d\mathbf{r} \Lambda_{000}^{\alpha,\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) V(\mathbf{r})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int (pq/a) dp dq d\phi \Lambda_{000}^{\alpha, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \frac{2\pi}{\alpha |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{y}|} \int_0^{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{y}|} \exp(-\alpha R^2) dR \\
&= \frac{(2\pi)^2}{\alpha a} \int p \exp(-\beta p^2) dp dq \int_0^q \exp(-\alpha R^2) dR \\
&= \frac{(2\pi)^2}{\alpha a} \left(\int_0^a dq \int_{a-q}^{a+q} dp + \int_a^\infty dq \int_{q-a}^{q+a} dp \right) \\
&\times p \exp(-\beta p^2) \int_0^q \exp(-\alpha R^2) dR \\
&= \frac{(2\pi)^2}{2\alpha\beta a} \left(\int_0^a dq + \int_a^\infty dq \right) \left(\exp(-\beta(a-q)^2) - \exp(-\beta(a+q)^2) \right) \\
&\times \int_0^q \exp(-\alpha R^2) dR \\
&= \frac{(2\pi)^2}{2\alpha\beta a} \int_{-\infty}^\infty dq \exp(-\beta(a-q)^2) \int_0^q \exp(-\alpha R^2) dR
\end{aligned}$$

To continue, we use one of those trick

$$\begin{aligned}
 J \frac{2\alpha\beta a}{(2\pi)^2} &= \int_{-\infty}^a da' \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dq \frac{\partial}{\partial a'} \exp\left(-\beta(a' - q)^2\right) \int_0^q \exp(-\alpha R^2) dR \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^a da' \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dq \frac{\partial}{\partial q} \exp\left(-\beta(a' - q)^2\right) \int_0^q \exp(-\alpha R^2) dR \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^a da' \left(\exp\left(-\beta(a' - q)^2\right) \int_0^q \exp(-\alpha R^2) dR \right) \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} \\
 &\quad + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dq \exp\left(-\beta(a' - q)^2\right) \exp(-\alpha q^2) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^a da' \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha + \beta}} \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha\beta a'^2}{\alpha + \beta}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Write this in terms of F_0 yields

$$J = \frac{2\pi^{5/2}}{\alpha\beta\sqrt{\alpha+\beta}} F_0 \left(\frac{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2 \alpha\beta}{\alpha + \beta} \right).$$

For general angular momentums, take the derivatives as before

$$\begin{aligned} & \int d\mathbf{r} d\mathbf{r}' \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} \Lambda_{mnp}^{\alpha, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{r}) \Lambda_{m'n'p'}^{\beta, \mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{r}') \\ &= \frac{\partial^m}{\partial x_1^m} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x_2^n} \frac{\partial^p}{\partial x_3^p} \frac{\partial^{m'}}{\partial y_1^{m'}} \frac{\partial^{n'}}{\partial y_2^{n'}} \frac{\partial^{p'}}{\partial y_3^{p'}} J \\ &= \frac{2\pi^{5/2}}{\alpha\beta\sqrt{\alpha+\beta}} (-1)^{m+n+p} R_{m+m'n+n'p+p'0}. \end{aligned}$$

Conclusion

- Cartesian Gaussian-Type Orbitals provide a versatile and powerful tool for representing atomic orbitals and molecular electronic structure in quantum chemistry.
- Their ability to capture the anisotropic behavior of atomic orbitals makes them essential for accurate computational modeling of molecular systems.

Thank you