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Wilken Aldair Misael, André Severo Pereira Gomes. Core Excitations of Uranyl in Cs₂UO₂Cl₄ from Relativistic Embedded Damped Response Time-Dependent Density Functional Theory Calculations. *Inorganic Chemistry*, 2023, 62, pp.11589-11601. 10.1021/acs.inorgchem.3c01302 . hal-03990050

HAL Id: hal-03990050

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Submitted on 15 Jul 2024

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Core Excitations of Uranyl in $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ from Relativistic Embedded Damped Response Time-Dependent Density Functional Theory Calculations

Wilken Aldair Misael and André Severo Pereira Gomes*



Cite This: *Inorg. Chem.* 2023, 62, 11589–11601



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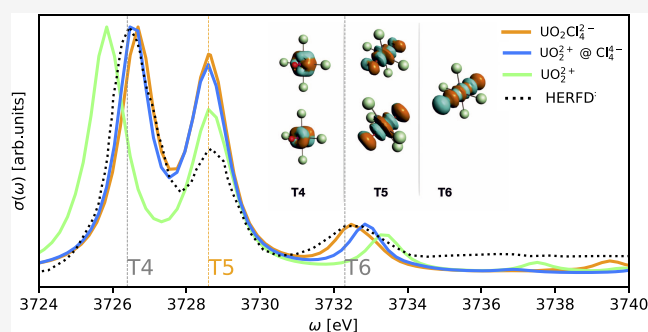
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ABSTRACT: X-ray spectroscopies, by their high selectivity and sensitivity to the chemical environment around the atoms probed, provide significant insights into the electronic structures of molecules and materials. Interpreting experimental results requires reliable theoretical models, accounting for environmental, relativistic, electron correlation, and orbital relaxation effects in a balanced manner. In this work, we present a protocol for the simulation of core excited spectra with damped response time-dependent density functional theory based on the Dirac–Coulomb Hamiltonian (4c-DR-TD-DFT), in which environmental effects are accounted for through the frozen density embedding (FDE) method. We showcase this approach for the uranium M_4 - and L_3 -edges and oxygen K-edge of the uranyl tetrachloride ($\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4^{2-}$) unit as found in a host $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ crystal. We have found that the 4c-DR-TD-DFT simulations yield excitation spectra that very closely match the experiment for the uranium M_4 -edge and the oxygen K-edge, with good agreement for the broad experimental spectra for the L_3 -edge. By decomposing the complex polarizability in terms of its components, we have been able to correlate our results with angle-resolved spectra. We have observed that for all edges, but in particular the uranium M_4 -edge, an embedded model in which the chloride ligands are replaced by an embedding potential reproduces rather well the spectral profile obtained for $\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4^{2-}$. Our results underscore the importance of the equatorial ligands to simulating core spectra at both uranium and oxygen edges.



INTRODUCTION

Actinides are relevant to modern societies, first and foremost due to their central role in the nuclear industry^{1–5} and the potentially harmful effects that can occur with their release in the biosphere in the case of industrial accidents.^{6–9} In more recent years, the peculiar properties of materials containing actinides have also spurred interest from a fundamental perspective as well as for industrial applications in catalysis,^{10–12} materials,^{11,13–16} and nanotechnology.^{17–20}

As these properties stem from subtle differences in the electronic structures of different compounds,^{21–24} a key objective in actinide science is to characterize their electronic structures under different conditions. To this end, spectroscopies involving core electrons^{25–29} are particularly interesting, since they are very sensitive to changes in the oxidation state and the local chemical environment of actinides.^{30–34}

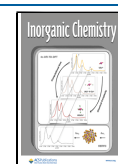
In recent years, with the development of high-energy fourth-generation synchrotron radiation facilities around the world and the availability of X-ray free electron lasers (XFELs),^{27,29,35} one has witnessed the development and applications of high-energy resolution X-ray spectroscopy (HERXS) to actinides.^{36–41}

The set of HERXS techniques includes spectroscopies such as high-energy resolution fluorescence detected X-ray absorption near edge structure (HERFD-XANES), high-energy-resolution Auger detection (HERAD-XANES), high-energy X-ray scattering (HEXS), and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS).^{10,33,38,41–43} For actinides, a particularly appealing feature of HERXS measurements is their larger penetration depth, which allows for smaller samples,^{28,36–39,44} minimizing the need for extensive radiation exposure protection measures. These experiments also offer increased sensitivity in probing processes that involve transitions to and from d and f orbitals, with the latter playing a pivotal role in actinide bonding.^{45–50}

These experimental developments, and the inherent complexities of interpreting the data generated, have stimulated the use of accurate molecular electronic structure

Received: April 21, 2023

Published: July 11, 2023



methods as a means to interpret, predict, and suggest new measurements in the X-ray range.^{51–56}

While it has long been established that in this regime, theoretical approaches must properly account for electron correlation^{53,54,57–60} and orbital relaxation^{56,61–64} in order to yield reliable results, the importance of relativistic effects,^{65–69} indispensable for heavy elements, is now also recognized for elements as light as those in the second row of the periodic table.

Since most measurements of core spectra are done for molecules in the gas phase, it may become necessary to include environmental effects in the calculations. This can be done efficiently and accurately with embedding approaches,^{70–73} whereby a sufficiently accurate fully quantum mechanical (QM) description is applied to the region of interest, and a significant portion of the system is represented via quantum (QM/QM) or classically derived (QM/MM) effective operators, without any a priori assumptions on the nature of the region of interest or the environment, which makes them potentially more flexible than other proven approaches based on, e.g., explicit and continuum (implicit) solvation models^{74–77} and ligand-field theory.^{78–80}

Among actinides, a particularly important class of complexes contains the uranyl (UO_2^{n+} , $n = 1, 2$) moiety, which is ubiquitous in the solution and solid-state chemistry of uranium. It is known to show very strong U–O triple bonds²¹ and generally presents a linear O–U–O geometry, with other ligands coordinating with uranium in the equatorial plane, via less strong interactions. The core spectroscopy of uranyl coordination complexes has been investigated with several theoretical methods, such as complete and restricted active space self-consistent field,^{50,81–85} crystal ligand-field multiplet theory and its variations,^{34,43,80,86–89} density functional theory in its different flavors,^{43,47,57,90–93} self-consistent real-space multiple scattering,^{42,43} static exchange approximation,⁵⁷ and perturbation theory.⁵⁷

For molecular-based approaches, relativistic correlated many-body approaches^{83–85,94} are among the most accurate approaches that can be used, but their relatively high computational cost makes them difficult to employ for experimentally relevant systems in the condensed phase. In the case of absorption spectroscopy, it has been found that with a suitable choice of density functional approximation (DFA)—notably the CAM-B3LYP functional⁹⁵—density functional theory (DFT) can provide reliable excitation energies of actinides in the ultraviolet–visible region,^{76,77,96–99} with a recent, very comprehensive work by Konecny et al.⁹³ employing the four-component damped response time-dependent density functional theory (4c-DR-TD-DFT) formalism, indicating that the same holds for the core excited states of uranium complexes.

One aspect that, in our view, was not sufficiently addressed in the work by Konecny and co-workers, is the extent to which the environment can play a role in the spectral features. While Konecny et al.⁹³ provided a comparison between theory and the experiment for the uranium M_4 -edge of uranium nitrate oxide ($\text{UO}_2(\text{NO}_3)_2$), there are other systems such as the $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ crystal, for which there are HERFD-XANES spectra for the uranium M_4 -edge as well as XANES spectra for the uranium L_3 -edge⁴⁷ and the oxygen K-edge,¹⁰⁰ which could provide more comprehensive comparisons to the experiment.

The present work, therefore, aims to employ embedding approaches and the 4c-DR-TD-DFT formalism to investigate the effect of the chloride ligands bound to the equatorial plane of uranyl in the $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ crystal on the oxygen K-edge and uranium M_4 - and L_3 -edge excited states, with a detailed comparison to experimental results available in the literature for this system.

The structure of this article is as follows. We start by presenting the computational details from our calculations, followed by our results for the simulated X-ray absorption spectra. Finally, we present our conclusions and some future perspectives.

■ COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

DR-TD-DFT and the corresponding 4c-DR-TD-DFT-in-DFT calculations were performed in the DIRAC22¹⁰¹ version of the DIRAC electronic structure code,¹⁰² as well as development snapshots (34fbd49, 4b35e48, d70bbe283, e061718, e0617189f6, e7e2094). We employed Dyall's all-electron basis sets of double- and triple- ζ quality^{103,104} for uranium and Dunning's cc-pVTZ basis set¹⁰⁵ for all other atoms. These basis sets were left uncontracted. We employed a Gaussian nuclear model in all calculations.¹⁰⁶

For all DFT calculations with DIRAC, we employed the Dirac–Coulomb (⁴DC) Hamiltonian and the long-range corrected CAM-B3LYP⁹⁵ functional.

In all of our calculations, the structures employed were based on the experimental crystal structure of $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ reported by Watkin et al.,¹⁰⁷ whose U–O and U–Cl bond lengths are 1.774 and 2.673 Å, respectively. For the embedding calculations, we employed the same structural models and subsystem partitioning as outlined by Gomes et al.⁹⁷ All calculations on bare uranyl and uranyl tetrachloride were carried out in $D_{\infty h}$ and D_{2h} symmetries, respectively, while for embedded uranyl simulations, the crystalline site symmetry (C_{2h}) was used.

The embedding potentials employed here were obtained from freeze–thaw calculations employing the scalar relativistic ZORA Hamiltonian,¹⁰⁸ TZ2P basis sets, the PW91k kinetic energy functional¹⁰⁹ and the PBE exchange–correlation functional¹¹⁰ for the nonadditive terms, and subsystem energies. These calculations were carried out via the PYADF scripting framework¹¹¹ and the embedding potentials were subsequently imported into the DIRAC calculations.

For the 4c-DR-TD-DFT calculations, we selected a frequency range that covered the energy ranges bracketing the main features in the oxygen K-edge (around 510–540 eV) and the uranium M_4 - and L_3 -edges (around 3680–3710 and 17 070–17 100 eV, respectively). Given the expected shift in these simulations, the first frequency for each interval was obtained through TD-DFT simulations using the restricted-energy window scheme (REW-TD-DFT)¹¹² implementation on DIRAC.

In addition to the calculations with DIRAC, for the uranyl tetrachloride dianion species, we carried out standard (without embedding) TD-DFT calculations with the X2C Hamiltonian (including spin–orbit coupling, 2c-TD-DFT), triple- ζ basis functions with two polarization functions (TZ2P),¹¹³ and the CAM-B3LYP functional with the Amsterdam Density Functional (ADF) software package.¹¹⁴ As 4c-DR-TD-DFT calculations including spin–orbit coupling are not currently

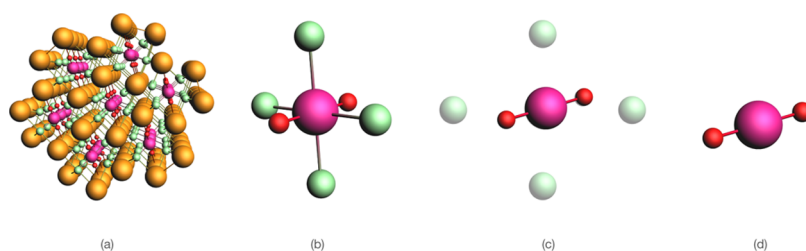


Figure 1. Reference system for this study: (a) dicesium uranyl(VI) tetrachloride crystal ($\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$). Models here investigated: (b) uranyl(VI) tetrachloride dianion, $\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4^{2-}$, (c) uranyl(VI) ion in the FDE embedding potential of four chloride atoms, $\text{UO}_2^{2+}@\text{Cl}_4^{4-}$, and (d) bare uranyl(VI) ion, UO_2^{2+} (cesium: orange; uranium: pink; oxygen: red; chlorine: green). See Gomes et al.⁹⁷ for further details on the structural models.

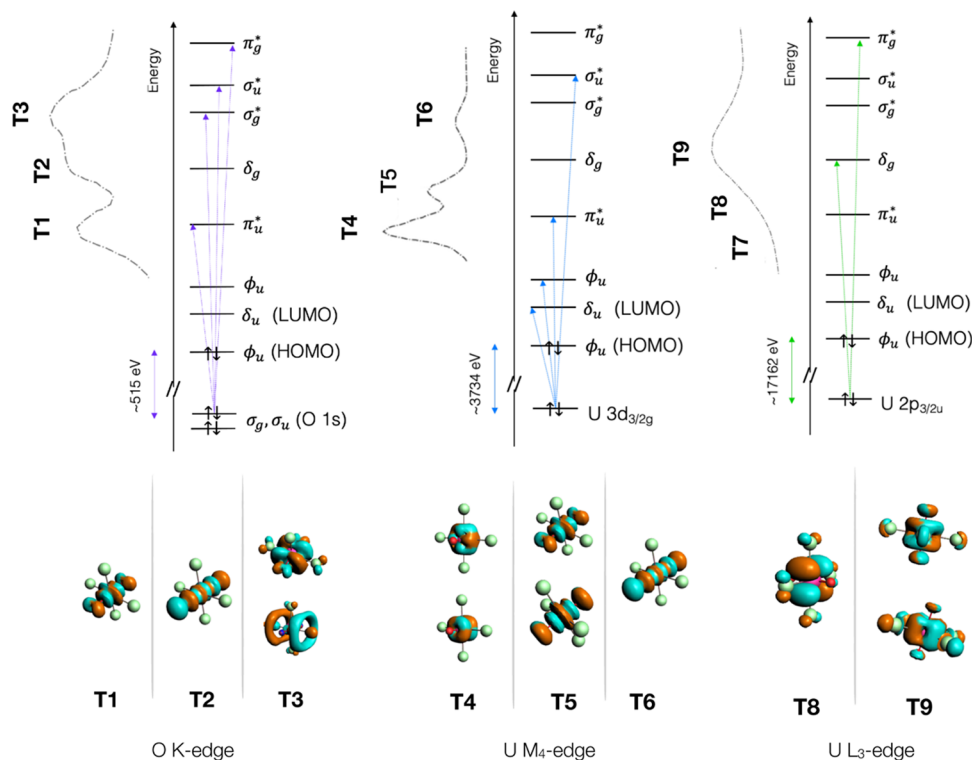


Figure 2. Top: qualitative MO diagram for the relevant orbitals of uranyl being accessed in this work. Bottom: dominant 2c-TD natural transition orbitals (NTOs) for the peaks pertaining to the oxygen K-edge and uranium M_4 - and L_3 -edges. Plots have employed 0.03 as the isosurface value. See the text for the nature of the transitions (labeled T1–T9). We do not display NTOs for T7, as the associated transition does not have intensity within the dipole approximation and is therefore not discussed.

supported by ADF, we employed 2c-REW-TD-DFT calculations to target the core excited states of interest and employed the Tamm–Dancoff approximation (TDA),¹¹⁵ as it yielded spectra of the same quality as standard TD-DFT calculations at a lower computational cost. A comparison of TD-DFT and TDA can be found in Figures S1 and S2 in the Supporting Information.

Due to a lack of equivalent functionality in DIRAC, from the ADF 2c-REW-TD-DFT calculations, we obtained natural transition orbitals (NTOs),¹¹⁶ which we used to provide a qualitative analysis of the changes to the electronic structure involved in the core excitations of uranyl tetrachloride.

For simplicity, in the following, we shall refer to our 4c-DR-TD-CAM-B3LYP calculations as 4c-DR and to our 2c-REW-TD-DFT and 2c-REW-TD-DFT-TDA CAM-B3LYP calculations as 2c-TD and 2c-TDA, respectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the following section, we present the theoretical absorption spectra at the oxygen K-edge and uranium M_4 - and L_3 -edges of the uranyl tetrachloride dianion ($\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4^{2-}$), a model in which the chloride ions bound to the equatorial plane of the uranyl ion (UO_2^{2+}) are represented by a frozen density embedding (FDE) embedding potential ($\text{UO}_2^{2+}@\text{Cl}_4^{4-}$) and the uranyl ion without any chloride ligands (structures b, c, and d, respectively, in Figure 1).

Before discussing the relative performance of these different models, we focus on a comparison between our results for $\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4^{2-}$ and the available experimental spectra recorded for the $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ crystal. Our results will be interpreted on the basis of the dominant NTOs for each peak, depicted in Figure 2, whereas the simulated spectra are depicted in Figure 3.

Features in the X-ray Absorption Spectra. The absorption spectrum of the $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ crystal has been utilized in multiple studies as a tool to examine the electric

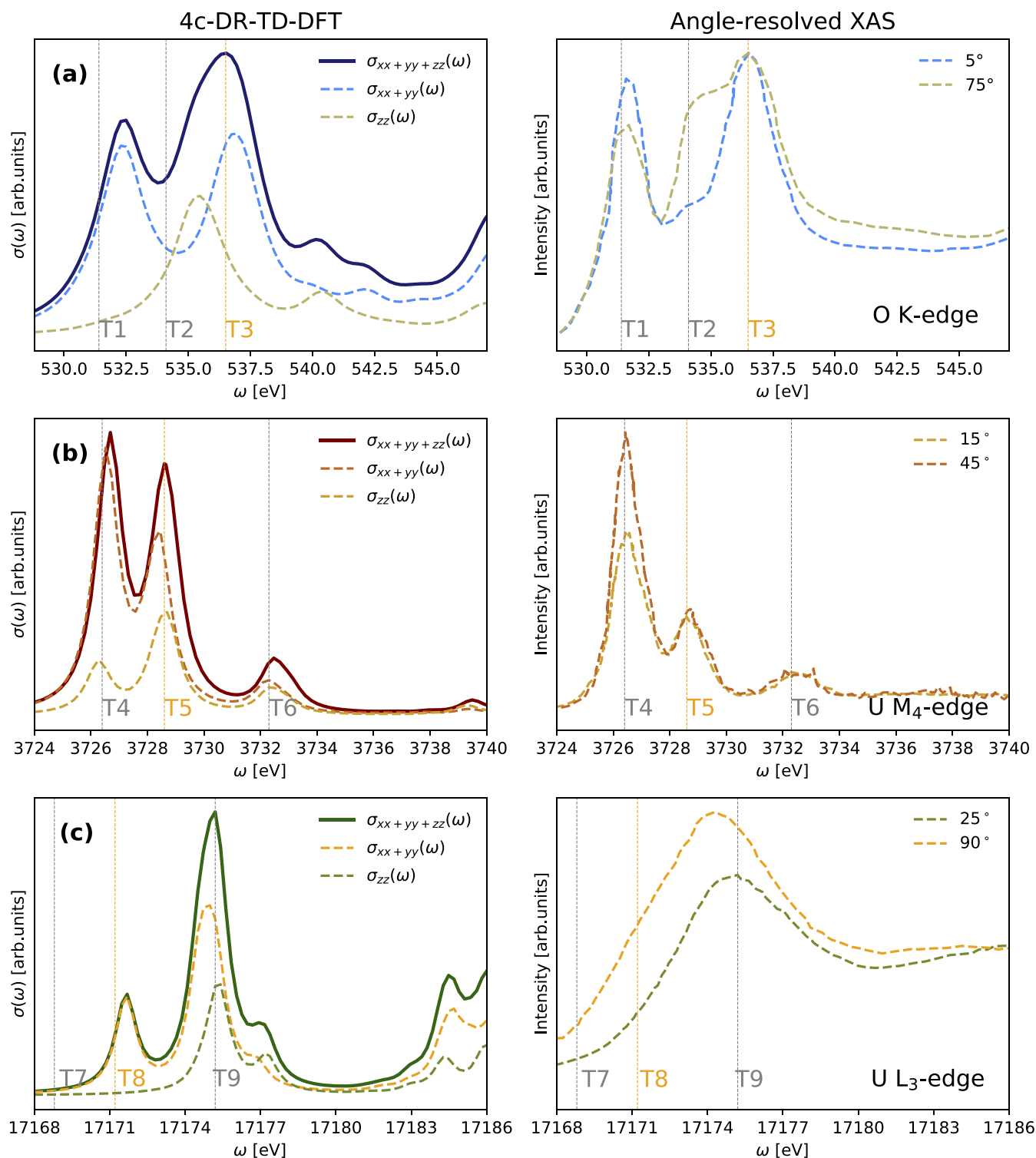


Figure 3. Left: partial (dashed) and total (solid) contributions to total oscillator strengths in the 4c-DR XAS spectra at (a) oxygen K-edge and uranium (b) M_{4-} and (c) U L_{3-} edges of $UO_2Cl_4^{2-}$. Right: experimental data ($Cs_2UO_2Cl_4$) at the O K-edge (digitized with permission from Denning et al.¹⁰⁰ Copyright 2002 AIP Publishing) and U M_{4-} and L_{3-} edges (digitized from Vitova et al.⁴⁷ Copyright 2015 American Chemical Society). The angle indicated in the figures corresponds to the angle between the incident light beam and the O–U–O axis.

properties of the uranyl(VI) ion in diverse environments, including one- and two-photon absorption at visible light.^{105,117} The X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectrum at the oxygen K-edge of $Cs_2UO_2Cl_4$ was first reported by Denning et al.¹⁰⁰ in the early 2000s, and the high-energy-resolution fluorescence detection (HERFD) spec-

tra at the uranium M_{4-} and L_{3-} edges of $Cs_2UO_2Cl_4$ were reported by Vitova et al.⁴⁷ in the past decade.

As previously reported by Denning et al.,¹⁰⁰ the O K-edge absorption spectrum (Figure 3a) exhibits three prominent features identified as (T1) a low-intensity pre-edge feature at 531.4 eV corresponding to an O $1s \rightarrow \pi_u^*$ transition, followed

by (T2) an intermediate-intensity pre-edge feature at around 534.1 eV, arising from an O 1s $\rightarrow \sigma_u^*$ transition, and (T3) the white-line feature at 536.5 eV, where an O 1s $\rightarrow \pi_g^*$ transition is observed.

Using the HERFD mode for the evaluation of the U M₄-edge spectra, it is possible to achieve experimental spectral widths below the natural core-hole lifetime broadening of approximately 4 eV. As a result, the high-resolution U M₄-edge spectra in Cs₂UO₂Cl₄ exhibit three well-defined features (Figure 3b), which were reported in previous studies:^{33,47} (T4) U 3d_{5/2g} \rightarrow 5fδ_u and U 3d_{5/2g} \rightarrow 5fφ_u excitation observed at 3726.4 eV, (T5) U 3d_{5/2g} \rightarrow 5fπ_u^{*} resonance at 3728.6 eV, and a satellite peak (T6) U 3d_{5/2g} \rightarrow 5fσ_u^{*} at 3732.3 eV.

Interpreting the spectra at the U L₃-edge (Figure 3c) remains challenging due to the significant core-hole lifetime width spanned in this absorption edge, which extends between 7.4 and 8.4 eV.^{118,119} This results in a significant portion of the spectral content being obscured.

The first transition in this spectra is a 2p_{3/2u} \rightarrow 5f quadrupolar transition (T7) at 17168.8 eV, which is absent in our simulations. This is due to our use of the dipole approximation, so that by symmetry, the associated transition does not carry any intensity. Beyond that, the experimental white line is observed at 17175.2 eV, and our simulations predict that this feature is mainly composed of (T8, T9) two 2p_{3/2u} \rightarrow (6dδ_g, 6dπ_g) contributions, with a separation of 3.5 eV.

From the NTO analysis, we see that the dominant contributions involve low-lying virtual orbitals centered around the uranyl moiety, and as discussed below, the associated excited states will be rather well described. That said, one should be careful if highly diffuse orbitals such as Rydberg orbitals^{120,121} are found to be involved in the transitions, since apart from the general difficulty of describing such orbitals with standard Gaussian basis sets,¹²² not all density functional approximations can describe long-range interactions as accurately as CAM-B3LYP.⁹⁶

Theoretical versus Experimental Peak Positions. All of our calculated transition energies shown in Table 1 were considered for the analysis. We observe that these are shifted in a very systematic manner to higher energies with respect to the experiment, with these differences of energy becoming increasingly pronounced at higher absorption edges. For instance, at the O K-edge, the energy shift values for the 2c-TDA and 4c-DR simulations are, respectively, 13.3 and 13.8 eV, whereas for the U L₃-edge, these values are 95.2 and 86.3 eV. Therefore, in order to compare the theoretical and experimental results, we have aligned these based on specific transitions, identified by orange vertical lines in Figure 3.

The increasing discrepancy between experimental and theoretical peak positions (and hence the increase in the value of the shift to be applied to theoretical results) for deeper cores is related to the difficulty of TD-DFT to properly account for the orbital relaxation that should accompany the creation of a core hole, which will be increasingly important, as the core orbitals under consideration become closer to the nucleus.

The magnitude of orbital relaxation effects for the deeper core in heavy elements is clearly illustrated for ionization energies, obtained for small actinide species⁵⁷ with state-specific correlated methods (ΔMP2) or for heavy halogenated species^{94,123,124} employing the equation of motion coupled-cluster approaches (CVS-EOM-IP-CCSD), with the results by

Table 1. Transition Energies (in eV) Calculated Using 2c-TDA and 4c-DR Compared to Experimental Values for the O K-Edge, U M₄-Edge, and U L₃-Edge^a

	O K-edge		
	T1 O 1s $\rightarrow \pi_u^*$	T2 O 1s $\rightarrow \sigma_u^*$	T3 O 1s $\rightarrow \pi_g^*$
2c-TDA	518.6 (−12.8)	521.4 (−12.7)	523.2 (−13.3)
4c-DR	518.5 (−12.9)	521.4 (−12.7)	522.7 (−13.8)
exp. ¹⁰⁰	531.4	534.1	536.5
	U M ₄ -edge		
	T4 U 3d _{5/2g} \rightarrow 5fδ _u	T5 U 3d _{5/2g} $\rightarrow \pi_u^*$	T6 U 3d _{5/2g} \rightarrow 5fσ _u [*]
2c-TDA	3686.6 (−40.8)	3688.4 (−40.2)	3692.5 (−39.8)
4c-DR	3689.5 (−36.9)	3691.4 (−37.2)	3695.3 (−37.0)
exp. ⁴⁷	3726.4	3728.6	3732.3
	U L ₃ -edge		
	T7 U 2p _{3/2u} \rightarrow 5f	T8 U 2p _{3/2u} \rightarrow 6dδ _g	T9 U 2p _{3/2u} \rightarrow 6dπ _g
2c-TDA		17 076.5 (−95.2)	17 080.0 (−95.2)
4c-DR		17 085.4 (−86.3)	17 088.9 (−86.3)
exp. ⁴⁷	17 168.8	17 171.7	17 175.2

^aShifts with respect to the experiment (in eV) are shown in parenthesis.

Halbert et al.⁹⁴ and Knecht et al.,¹²⁴ illustrating that (small) differences between two- and four-component Hamiltonians as seen here may arise, depending on which a two-component approach is used. More recently, orbital relaxation has also been investigated for excitation energies at the U M₄-edge of bare uranyl using multiconfigurational approaches.^{81,83,84}

In the latter case, Polly et al.⁸³ evaluated the performance of various active spaces in SO-RASSCF and SO-RASPT2 simulations. Their results to excitation energies at the U M₄-edge were found to overestimate experimental values by 12.9 and 17.4 eV at RASSCF and RASPT2 theory levels, respectively. This corresponds to about half of the overestimation found for our 4c-DR and 2c-TDA results (37.2 and 39.8 eV, respectively).

The relatively modest changes upon including dynamical electron correlation (about 5 eV) are consistent with the findings of South et al.⁵⁷ on the contribution from electron correlation (at the MP2 level) to the binding energies in uranyl, as most of the core-hole relaxation is coming from the orbital optimization enabled by the RASSCF approach. It is nevertheless interesting to note that the RASSCF calculations are closer to the experiment than RASPT2, suggesting a possible cancellation of errors when comparing bare uranyl to the experimental system. We will return to this point when discussing the performance of embedding.

As final remarks, we note that the damping factors employed for determining the 4c-DR absorption spectra shown in Figure 3 are not arbitrary but selected to best reflect the profile observed in the experimental data for the Cs₂UO₂Cl₄ crystal, after exploring different values for each edge. For the oxygen K-edge, the value is somewhat larger ($\gamma = 1.0$ eV) than that for the uranium M₄- and L₃-edges ($\gamma = 0.5$ eV), but, nevertheless, our results show that with these choices, the key features of both conventional and high-resolution spectra can be clearly identified.

Furthermore, the broadening profile presented in Figure 3 was chosen to better fit the experimental data: for the O K-edge and U L₃-edge spectra, we employed a Voigt profile, and for the U M₄-edge, a Gaussian function. In the Supporting Information, Figure S3 presents the effect of the damping factors, and Figures S4–S6 show the effect of the broadening profiles on the simulated spectra.

Polarization Dependence of Calculated Intensities. Synchrotron-based experiments can also handle dichroism in the X-ray regime. Linear dichroism is studied using angle-resolved and polarization-dependent X-ray absorption spectroscopy,^{47,100,125} while magnetic circular dichroism has been extensively studied through X-ray magnetic circular dichroism (XMCD).^{126,127}

By utilizing the damped response theory, linear dichroism can be explored through the analysis of the components of the complex polarizability tensor ($\alpha_{xx}(\omega)$, $\alpha_{yy}(\omega)$, and $\alpha_{zz}(\omega)$). As we shall see in the following, the breakdown into individual components—or here, due to the symmetry of the system into parallel (σ_{zz}) and perpendicular ($\sigma_{xx+yy} = \sigma_{xx} + \sigma_{yy}$) components with respect to the uranyl bond axis—is helpful to understand the origin of the asymmetries observed experimentally.

In Figure 3, we show the parallel and perpendicular contributions to the total absorption cross section ($\sigma_{xx+yy+zz} = \sigma_{zz} + \sigma_{xx+yy}$) for the edges under investigation, alongside the experimental polarization-dependent spectra,^{47,100} in which the angle indicated is the one between the incident light beam and the O–U–O axis in the Cs₂UO₂Cl₄ crystal.

The effects of polarization dependence are particularly prominent in the experimental spectra at the O K-edge by Denning et al.¹⁰⁰ and the U L₃-edge by Vitova et al.⁴⁷ (Figure 3a–c), which were recorded at greater incidence angles than the ones for the U M₄-edge. For clarity, here, we will compare our results to the experiments under grazing and nearly perpendicular light incidence conditions.

For the O K-edge, our analysis finds that transitions T1 and T3 are dominated by perpendicularly polarized components with respect to the O–U–O axis, whereas T2 was found to exhibit parallel polarization, in agreement with the experiment. For the L₃-edge, we observe that T8 is completely dominated by perpendicularly polarized components. For T9, the spectrum shows non-negligible contributions from the parallel component, which we consider to be consistent with the observation by Vitova et al.⁴⁷ that angle dependence shifts the U L₃-edge absorption edge to the right when incoming light is parallel to the O–U–O axis.

Finally, for the U M₄-edge (Figure 3b), a strong angular dependence in the white line (T4) is observed, and as for the other edges, the perpendicular components are the major contributors to the intensity. For T5, we see that the parallel component contributes proportionally more to the total signal, and this trend is accentuated for T6, for which we see nearly equal contributions from both components to the total intensity.

Closer Look on the Role of the Equatorial Ligands. Having established that 4c-DR and 2c-TDA can faithfully describe the spectra for the edges under consideration, we can turn to a comparison of the different structural models described in Figure 1 (UO₂Cl₄²⁻, the bare uranyl ion and the uranyl ion embedded onto the equatorial chloride ligands) in order to gain further understanding of the role of the equatorial ligands.

As mentioned above, the core spectra of the bare uranyl ion were not only investigated by Polly et al.⁸³ but also by Sergentu et al.⁸¹ The embedded uranyl model (UO₂²⁺@Cl₄⁴⁻), on the other hand, has only been previously investigated for the valence excited state⁹⁷ and shown to yield a rather good description of the low-lying states of UO₂Cl₄²⁻ in Cs₂UO₂Cl₄.

Given the high sensitivity of core excited states to the description of the environment around the absorbing sites, it remains to be seen to which extent the embedded model can faithfully reproduce the reference (UO₂Cl₄²⁻) calculations. In this respect, an interesting feature to track is the relative positions of the different peak maxima as well as their relative intensities and how these compare to the experimental ones.

At the O K-edge (Figure 4, top), there are rather small differences between the energy shifts (less than 1 eV) with

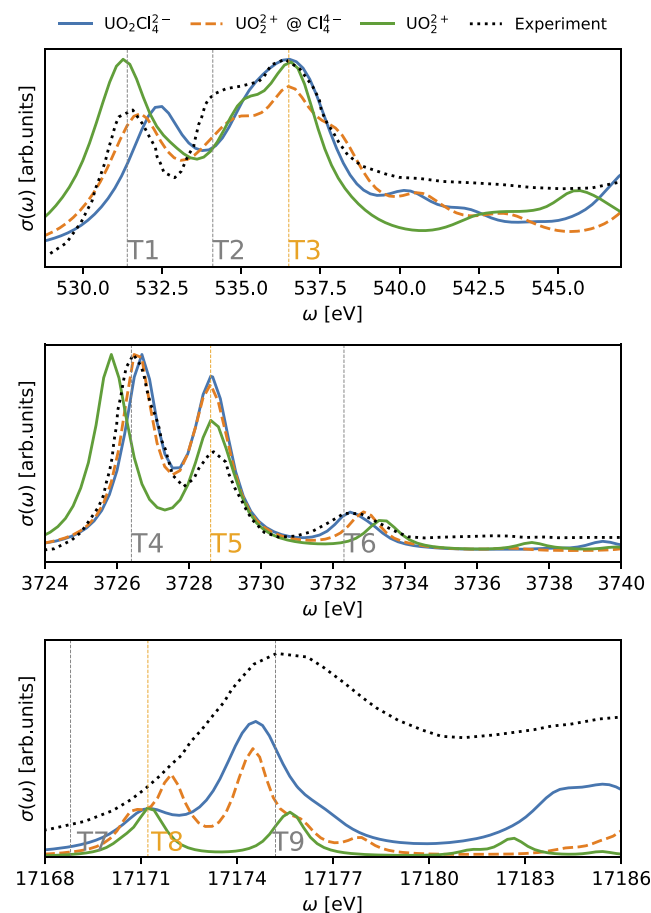


Figure 4. From top to bottom: comparison of the 4c-DR XAS spectra at the oxygen K-edge and uranium M₄- and L₃-edges of UO₂²⁺, UO₂²⁺@Cl₄⁴⁻, and UO₂Cl₄²⁻. Experimental data at the O K-edge in Cs₂UO₂Cl₄ (digitized with permission from Denning et al.¹⁰⁰ Copyright 2002 AIP Publishing) and for the U M₄- and L₃-edges (digitized from Vitova et al.⁴⁷ Copyright 2015 American Chemical Society).

respect to the experiment among the three simulations. This is in line with a systematic error in the calculations due to the shortcomings in describing relaxation due to the creation of the core hole, mentioned in the previous section.

For the intensities, on the other hand, we observe for T1 that the bare uranyl model shows a significant overestimation. Intensities for the reference and embedded models on the

Table 2. U M_4 -Edge Peak Positions and Differences (in eV) from Theoretical Molecular (4c-DR, RASPT2, and RASSCF) and Finite-Difference (FDMNES) Calculations and the Experiment (HERFD)

method	system	peak positions			differences		
		T4	T5	T6	T5 – T4	T6 – T4	T6 – T5
4c-DR	UO ₂ ²⁺	3689.0	3691.8	3696.5	2.8	7.5	4.7
RASSCF ⁸¹	UO ₂ ²⁺	3750.1	3752.4	3758.0	2.3	7.9	5.6
RASSCF ^{a,83}	UO ₂ ²⁺	3748.0	3750.1	3755.7	2.1	7.7	5.6
RASSCF ^{b,83}	UO ₂ ²⁺	3750.6	3753.1	3759.4	2.5	8.8	6.3
RASPT2 ^{b,83}	UO ₂ ²⁺	3746.1	3748.8	3755.1	2.7	9.0	6.3
4c-DR	UO ₂ ²⁺ @Cl ₄ ⁴⁻	3690.1	3692.0	3696.2	1.9	6.1	4.2
4c-DR	UO ₂ Cl ₄ ²⁻	3689.5	3691.4	3695.3	1.9	5.8	3.9
FDMNES ¹²⁸	C ₈ UO ₂ Cl ₄	3726.9	3729.3	3732.9	2.4	6.0	3.6
HERFD ⁴⁷	C ₈ UO ₂ Cl ₄	3726.4	3728.6	3732.3	2.2	5.9	3.7

^aActive space: 3d (σ_u, π_u)/5f. ^b3d/5f.

other hand are very similar to one another, though the maximum for the embedded model is slightly shifted to lower energies. For T2 and T3, the different models show an overall good agreement with each other, and a finer comparison is more difficult than that for T1 in view of the overlapping contributions from different transitions to the final spectrum. We note, however, that for the bare and embedded uranyl, the feature corresponding to the parallel component (T2, see Figure 3a) appears slightly more shifted to the lower energies than that for uranyl tetrachloride, resulting in the asymmetry in the region between T2 and T3. We note that experimentally, the intensity of absorption between T2 and T3 is rather sensitive to polarization¹⁰⁰ (see Figure 3a).

The simulations at the U M_4 -edge spectra (Figure 4, middle) show an even better agreement between the embedding calculations and the reference ones than those at the O K-edge spectra, with both simulations reproducing the experiment rather well for all peaks. However, if the splitting between T4 and T5 is very well reproduced, we see that for the embedding calculation of T6, there is a slight shift in the peak maximum to higher energies compared both to the experiment and to the reference model, while the latter two show again very good agreement. For bare uranyl, on the other hand, we see a fairly significant overestimation of both T4–T5 and T5–T6 peak shifts compared to the reference model.

The ability of a theoretical model to accurately characterize peak splittings is of importance for the U M_4 -edge, since the solid-state community commonly attributes variations in peak splitting between the main feature and the satellite 5f_g^{*} in actinyl spectra to changes in overlap-driven covalency from variations in the An–O bond length, as suggested in the works of Kvashnina and Butorin³³ and Vitova and collaborators.^{47,48} This is somewhat at odds with the analysis based on ab initio simulations, such as those by Sergentu et al.⁸¹ and also Polly et al.,⁸³ which claim that there is not a clear correlation between those and the observed splitting in this spectrum. The natural localized molecular orbital (NLMO) analysis by Sergentu et al.⁸¹ found a significant decrease in the σ covalency in the excited states of the actinyl absorption spectra at the M_4 -edges of PuO₂²⁺, NpO₂²⁺, and UO₂²⁺, in a trend that opposes the one observed in their ground states. Therefore, they were able to highlight the limitations of the previous interpretations of these spectra, by showing that the orbitals of the ground state should not be used as the sole guide in interpreting these actinyl spectra.

In Table 2, we present the peak positions and splitting of the U M_4 -edge spectra obtained from experiments by Vitova et

al.⁴⁷ and predicted by molecular ab initio calculations (Sergentu et al.,⁸¹ Polly et al.,⁸³ and this work) as well as ab initio finite-difference calculations by Amidani et al.¹²⁸ using the FDMNES code.^{129,130}

As previously discussed, the shortcomings of 4c-DR calculations in including relaxation result in excitation energies that are too low compared to the experiment or RASSCF/RASPT2. The peak splitting values, on the other hand, indicate that despite better accounting for orbital relaxation, RASSCF and RASPT2 calculations do not compare more favorably to the experiment than 4c-DR calculations relying on TD-DFT/CAM-B3LYP, and changing the size of the active space changes peak positions by a few electronvolts but peak splittings by a few tenths of electronvolts. Relaxation aside, the comparable performance of CAM-B3LYP with respect to RASSCF/RASPT2 is in line with previous benchmark studies^{131,132} and has been explained in terms of its good ability to minimize self-interaction errors that plague other functionals, so that excitation energies can be reliably obtained with it, including for charge-transfer excitations.^{96,133}

Taken as a whole, we attribute the overestimation of peak splittings shown for all of these calculations to the lack of equatorial ligands, since when these are included (embedding or supermolecular 4c-DR calculations), we achieve very good agreement with the experiment, especially for the T6–T4 and T6–T5 splittings. It is interesting to note that the RASPT2 approach, which one could expect to improve upon RASSCF, ends up further overestimating peak splittings. This could be due to a poor balance between orbital relaxation and the amount of dynamic correlation recovered with second-order perturbation theory, possibly coupled with the lack of equatorial ligands in the calculations.

Coming back to the T6–T4 and T6–T5 splittings, we observe slight differences between the embedding and supermolecule calculations, which would suggest that orbital interactions are somewhat more important for T6 than that for T4 or T5, since the T5–T4 splitting for both models is essentially the same, whereas it increases slightly for T6–T5.

In the embedding calculation, apart from the symmetry breaking with respect to linear symmetry that allows for some mixing of the ϕ , δ spinors,¹³⁴ the chloride ligands are included only through the embedding potential, which represents an effective interaction. As a result, by construction, the electrostatic interaction component of the embedding potential remains the dominant contribution. Therefore, the differences between the two models can be traced back to the lack of such interaction in the bare uranyl case.

The importance of electrostatic interactions, as well as the sensitivity of the actinyl electronic structure to these, has been addressed in more detail in our previous investigations of actinyl chlorides. First, for the valence states of uranyl,⁹⁷ we also considered a simple model with negative point charges placed in the positions of the chlorides and found that the valence excited states were in better agreement with uranyl tetrachloride than bare uranyl, though this point-charge embedding model still showed a poorer performance than the FDE ($\text{UO}_2^{2+}@\text{Cl}_4^{4-}$) model. Second, in the investigation¹³⁴ of *f*–*f* transitions in $\text{NpO}_2\text{Cl}_4^{2-}$, we considered an embedding model equivalent to the one used here ($\text{NpO}_2^{2+}@\text{Cl}_4^{4-}$), as well as a variant in which the density of the chlorides was not relaxed in the presence of the neptunyl ion, and a point-charge embedding model. We showed that the embedded model without relaxation of the chloride ligands' density yielded results that were comparable to the point-charge one and did not reproduce the spectra of neptunyl chloride as well as $\text{NpO}_2^{2+}@\text{Cl}_4^{4-}$.

From the above considerations and our current results, we argue that substantial contributions to the shifts in the U M_4 -edge peak position in Table 2 can be attributed to electrostatic interactions with the equatorial ligands. It would be interesting to investigate to which extent that would hold for the core spectra of other actinyls and that for ligands other than halides, but such a study is beyond the scope of this work. In the case of other actinyls, which may present a multireference ground state, it will be in general necessary to replace the DFT treatment of the active subsystem by a wavefunction-based method, but as we have shown for neptunyl,¹³⁴ that does not pose particular issues for the FDE calculations.

At the U L_3 -edge (Figure 4), we have obtained the same results as South et al.⁵⁷ for the uranyl ion, which presents a second feature (T9) quite shifted to the right, therefore not being compatible with any spectra recorded at this absorption edge for uranium-containing species. The embedding calculation presents a broader and more intense T8 feature, with T9 resembling rather well that of the reference model.

We note that here, we have not considered more sophisticated models in which the crystal environment in $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ beyond the equatorial chloride ligands (structure a in Figure 1) is included in the embedding potential. This is due to the fact that in our previous investigation of valence excited states,⁹⁷ we have compared the results for the embedded uranyl tetrachloride model employed here ($\text{UO}_2^{2+}@\text{Cl}_4^{4-}$) with others in which the effect of the rest of the crystal is taken into account by embedding potentials. In these potentials, we defined a frozen density region, consisting of equatorial chlorides plus 20 uranyl tetrachloride and 90 cesium atoms surrounding the central uranyl unit; beyond this quantum mechanical region, an array of point charges was used to simulate the long-range electrostatics in the crystal.

For a first model, in which all subsystem densities but that of the chloride equatorial ligands were kept frozen, we observed for the 12 lowest valence excited states changes in excitation energies that differed at most by 0.015 eV (with discrepancies being on average of about 0.0075 eV, in absolute value) from the $\text{UO}_2^{2+}@\text{Cl}_4^{4-}$ model. Furthermore, when the density of the nearest cesium atoms was also relaxed, the excitation energies only changed by around 0.002–0.004 eV.

As discussed by Gomes et al.,⁹⁷ the physical process behind these changes is that the effect of the crystal environment lowers the energies of both occupied and virtual orbitals by

roughly the same amounts. In addition to that, the energies of occupied valence^{97,134,135} and core levels¹³⁶ are shifted by essentially the same amount as by the environment. With that, relative measures such as excitation energies turn out to be weakly affected by the environment.

Apart from the arguments above, we consider the suitability of our uranyl tetrachloride models to be further supported by the good agreement between all of our peak splittings for the uranyl tetrachloride models and those from Amidani et al.,¹²⁸ obtained with the FDMNES method.

In the latter calculation, all atoms within a 6 Å radius around the absorbing uranium atom in the $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ crystal are taken into account, which is in between our models without and with accounting for the rest of the crystal. We note that the FDMNES calculations are also based on DFT and account for scalar and spin–orbit relativistic effects but differ qualitatively from ours in that they include the effect of core-hole creation through a screening parameter. With that, their absolute peak positions are also in good agreement with the experiment, while ours require a shift in energy to be compared to the experiment.

For ionizations, on the other hand, long-range interactions with the environment are important^{97,135,136} and require the use of more sophisticated structural models. We shall address the ionizations of uranyl in $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ in a separate publication.

CONCLUSIONS

We have carried out an evaluation of relativistic quantum chemistry approaches for the calculation of excitation energies at the oxygen K-edge and uranium M_4 - and L_3 -edges for the $\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4^{2-}$ system, which makes up the $\text{Cs}_2\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4$ crystal. Besides calculating on this system, we have also investigated the performance of two other structural models, the bare uranyl ion and the uranyl ion embedded (via the frozen density embedding (FDE) method) in an environment made up of chloride equatorial ligands.

For these excitation energies, the use of the Coulomb-attenuating functional CAM-B3LYP in four-component damped response simulations produced results that were consistent with the features observed in both conventional XANES and HERFD experiments. Additionally, through the analysis of natural transition orbitals (NTOs) obtained from equivalent two-component time-dependent DFT calculations, we showed that the O K-edge spectra primarily provided insights into the low-lying antibonding states of π_u^* , σ_u^* , and π_g^* symmetries centered in the uranyl unit. In contrast, the lowest energy orbitals accessed at the U M_4 and U L_3 absorption edges are the uranium $5f\phi_u/\delta_u$ and $6d\delta_g/\pi_g$ nonbonding orbitals. These observations are in line with previous investigations.

We have determined that the bare uranyl model shows significant changes in spectral profiles in comparison to structural models containing equatorial ligands, notably in terms of relative intensities but also to some extent with respect to relative peak positions. This is seen not only for the uranium edges, to which the equatorial ligands are attached, but also for the oxygen K-edge.

In the soft and tender X-ray regime (O K-edge and U M_4 -edge), we have observed that our simulations for the embedded model yield both excitation energies and intensities in very good agreement with those obtained for the $\text{UO}_2\text{Cl}_4^{2-}$ ion, though in the hard X-ray regime (U L_3 -edge), this

approximate model still performs well but deviates more significantly from the results obtained for the anion.

In conclusion, our study has provided valuable insights into the impact of equatorial ligands on the X-ray absorption spectra of the uranyl ion. Our findings emphasize the limitations of relying solely on a structural model consisting of either the bare uranyl ion or the ground-state structure of the uranyl site, as these models do not accurately account for the influence of the equatorial ligands on peak positions.

Furthermore, our work demonstrates the potential of using accurate embedded models, such as those that can be constructed with frozen density embedding, to semiquantitatively simulate actinyl core spectra. FDE-based embedding models have already been employed with multireference wavefunction-based treatment for the active subsystem, to treat systems that are challenging for DFT or other single-reference methods, though not yet for the core spectra of actinides employing accurate *ab initio* relativistic quantum chemistry methods.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The data corresponding to the calculations of this paper are available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7632750>. The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.3c01302>.

Further theoretical background on damped response theory and frozen density embedding; comparison of two- and four-component calculations for uranyl tetrachloride; assessment of the effect of the damping parameter used in the damped response theory calculations; comparison of the effect of different broadening functions on spectral shapes; and comparison of the differences in energy shifts with respect to the experiment for the bare and embedded uranyl models and uranyl tetrachloride (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge discussions with Dr. Valérie Vallet (Université de Lille) on carrying out the analysis of natural transition orbitals and on the manuscript. W.A.M. acknowledges helpful discussions with Dr. Patrick Norman (KTH) on general aspects of response theory. The authors acknowledge support from the Franco-German project ComprIXS (Agence nationale de la recherche ANR-19-CE29-0019, Deutsche

Forschungsgemeinschaft JA 2329/6-1), PIA ANR project CaPPA (ANR-11-LABX-0005-01), I-SITE ULNE projects OVERSEE and MESONM International Associated Laboratory (LAI) (ANR-16-IDEX-0004), the French Ministry of Higher Education and Research, region Hauts de France council and European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) project CPER CLIMIBIO, and the French national supercomputing facilities (grants DARI A0090801859, A0110801859, and A0130801859).

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