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NMR shieldings from density functional perturbation theory: GIPAW versus all-electron calculations

G. A. de Wijjs, R. Laskowski, P. Blaha, R. W. A. Havenith, G. Kresse, and M. Marsman

1 Radboud University, Institute for Molecules and Materials, Heyendaalseweg 135, NL-6525 AJ Nijmegen, The Netherlands
2 Institute of High Performance Computing, A*STAR, 1 Fusionopolis Way, #16-16, Connexis, Singapore 138632
3 Institute of Materials Chemistry, Vienna University of Technology, Getreidemarkt 9/165-TC, A-1060 Vienna, Austria
4 Zernike Institute for Advanced Materials, Stratingh Institute for Chemistry, University of Groningen, Nijenborgh 4, NL-9747 AG Groningen, The Netherlands
5 Ghent Quantum Chemistry Group, Department of Inorganic and Physical Chemistry, Ghent University, Krijgslaan 281 (S3), B-9000 Gent, Belgium
6 University of Vienna, Faculty of Physics and Center for Computational Materials Science, Sensengasse 8/12, A-1090 Vienna, Austria

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We present a benchmark of the density functional linear response calculation of NMR shieldings within the gauge-including projector-augmented-wave method against all-electron augmented-plane-wave+local-orbital and uncontracted Gaussian basis set results for NMR shieldings in molecular and solid state systems. In general, excellent agreement between the aforementioned methods is obtained. Scalar relativistic effects are shown to be quite large for nuclei in molecules in the deshielded limit. The small component makes up a substantial part of the relativistic corrections. Published by AIP Publishing. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1063/1.4975122]

I. INTRODUCTION

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy presents a powerful and sensitive probe of the structure of molecules, liquids, and solids on the atomic scale. In general, however, the retrieval of structural information from measured NMR spectra is far from trivial process, since as yet, empirical rules that map between the NMR spectrum and the structure were found to exist only for relatively simple organic molecules. Connecting the features of measured NMR spectra unambiguously to complex structural properties therefore remains difficult (and is often impossible) without an additional input from ab initio quantum mechanical modeling.

In the case of molecular systems and finite clusters of atoms, the ab initio techniques traditionally used in quantum chemistry have been successfully applied to aid in the analysis of experimental solution-state NMR spectra for quite some time now. In the case of solid-state NMR, finite clusters of atoms were used to approximate the infinite solid. Ab initio quantum mechanical calculations of NMR shieldings in truly extended systems under periodic boundary conditions were first performed by Mauri, Pfrommer, and Louie, using a linear response approach.

Although Mauri et al. derived their expressions starting from an all-electron Hamiltonian, practical implementations thereof use norm-conserving pseudopotentials, which largely limited its applicability to the calculation of chemical shifts for light elements. Only with the introduction of the Gauge-Including Projector Augmented Wave (GIPAW) method by Pickard and Mauri, and its extension to non-norm-conserving pseudo-orbitals by Yates, Pickard, and Mauri (YPM) several years later did the calculation of NMR shieldings become routinely possible for most of the nuclei commonly studied in NMR.

The GIPAW method permits to obtain an accurate chemical shielding with a plane-wave basis set. As in the original projector-augmented-wave method of Blöchl, it recovers the shape of the all-electron Kohn-Sham orbitals near the nucleus through an augmentation procedure involving atom-centered functions. In addition, the GIPAW method solves the gauge problem arising from the incompleteness of the center of augmented functions in a way similar as that done for molecules in the Gauge Independent Atomic Orbital (GIAO) method. The GIPAW formalism of YPM has been implemented in several plane-wave codes (for instance, CASTEP, Quantum Espresso, and PARATEC) and is currently widely used in the solid-state NMR community for an extensive range of applications (see, e.g., Ref. 9 and references therein).

Recently the calculation of NMR shieldings within the augmented-plane-wave+local-orbital (APW+lo) method was implemented in WIEN2k. In this paper, we benchmark the recent implementation (by several of us) of the linear response calculation of NMR shieldings within the GIPAW formalism of YPM in the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP) against all-electron APW+lo results for NMR shieldings in molecular and solid state systems and against non-relativistic LCAO calculations using DALTON (Ref. 14) and large uncontracted Gaussian basis sets. These benchmarks serve to further validate the aforementioned implementation in VASP as well as WIEN2k, and as importantly, to establish the quality of the GIPAW approach and the parameterization of the atomic scattering properties involved.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: in Section II we reiterate the linear response expressions for the
NMR shieldings in the GIPAW formalism. The particulars of the PAW data sets we use in our GIPAW NMR benchmarks and the general setup of these calculations are discussed in Sec. III. The results of aforementioned GIPAW benchmarks are presented in Sec. IV and compared to all-electron calculations and—partly—to experimental data. Conclusions are drawn in Sec. V.

II. THEORY

The magnetic shielding tensor $\sigma(\mathbf{R})$ at a nuclear position $\mathbf{R}$ is found from the ratio of the induced magnetic field at the aforementioned position to an externally applied magnetic field $\mathbf{B}$,

$$\sigma_{\alpha\beta}(\mathbf{R}) = -\frac{\partial B^\alpha_{\beta}(\mathbf{R})}{\partial B_{\beta}}. \quad (1)$$

The induced magnetic field $\mathbf{B}_{\text{ind}}$ is given by the Biot-Savart law,

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{ind}}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mathbf{J}_{\text{ind}}(\mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{r}|^3} \, d\mathbf{r}, \quad (2)$$

where $\mathbf{J}_{\text{ind}}$ is the current induced by the external magnetic field $\mathbf{B}$. The induced current is commonly calculated from the linear response of the system to the external magnetic field.

To first-order in the external magnetic field, $\mathbf{J}_{\text{ind}}$ is given by

$$\mathbf{J}_{\text{ind}}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{i \in \text{occ}} \left( \langle \psi_i^{(1)} | \mathbf{J}^i(\mathbf{r}) | \psi_i^{(0)} \rangle + \langle \psi_i^{(0)} | \mathbf{J}^i(\mathbf{r}) | \psi_i^{(1)} \rangle \right), \quad (3)$$

where

$$\mathbf{J}^i(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{\mathbf{p} |\mathbf{r}|(\mathbf{r} + |\mathbf{r}|) \times \mathbf{p}}{2c} \quad (4)$$

and

$$\mathbf{J}_d^i(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{\mathbf{B} \times |\mathbf{r}|(\mathbf{r} + |\mathbf{r}|)}{2c} \quad (5)$$

are the paramagnetic and diamagnetic current operators, respectively. In Eq. (3), $\psi_0$ denote ground state orbitals, i.e., the solutions to

$${H}^{(0)}|\psi_0^{(0)}\rangle = \epsilon_0|\psi_0^{(0)}\rangle, \quad (6)$$

and $\psi_1$ the first-order response of the orbitals to the external magnetic field. The sum in Eq. (3) goes over all occupied states.

In the symmetric gauge, the perturbation of the Hamiltonian to first-order in the external magnetic field is given by

$${H}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{2c} \mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{B}. \quad (7)$$

With the above definition, the first-order change in the orbitals is straightforwardly found to be

$$|\psi_1^{(1)}\rangle = \mathcal{G}(\epsilon_0)|\psi_0^{(0)}\rangle H^{(1)}|\psi_0^{(0)}\rangle, \quad (8)$$

where $\mathcal{G}$ is the Green’s function

$$\mathcal{G}(\epsilon) = \sum_{j \in \text{evir}} \frac{|\psi_j^{(0)} \rangle (\psi_j^{(0)} \rangle}{\epsilon_0 - \epsilon_j^{(0)}} \quad (9)$$

and the sum is over all empty (virtual) orbitals. Commonly, the sum over empty orbitals is avoided by recasting Eq. (8) as a Sternheimer equation,

$$\left( \epsilon_0^{(0)} - H^{(0)} \right) |\psi_1^{(1)}\rangle = P_c H^{(1)}|\psi_0^{(0)}\rangle, \quad (10)$$

to be solved for $\psi_1^{(1)}$. In the above, $P_c = 1 - \sum_{i \in \text{occ}} |\psi_i^{(0)} \rangle (\psi_i^{(0)} \rangle$ represents a projection onto the virtual subspace.

In plane wave based implementations, Eq. (2) is most conveniently evaluated in the reciprocal space,

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{ind}}(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{4 \pi i}{c} \sum \mathbf{G} \times \mathbf{j}_{\text{ind}}(\mathbf{G}) e^{i\mathbf{G} \cdot \mathbf{R}}, \quad (11)$$

where $\mathbf{G}$ are the reciprocal space vectors. In solid state systems, there is an additional contribution at $\mathbf{G} = 0$, i.e., a uniform field, that is determined by the shape of the sample and the macroscopic magnetic susceptibility tensor $\chi$. For a spherical sample, this contribution is given by

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{ind}}(\mathbf{G} = 0) = \frac{8 \pi \gamma}{3} \chi \mathbf{B}. \quad (12)$$

The magnetic susceptibility tensor may be numerically calculated as proposed by Mauri and Louie,\textsuperscript{15}

$$\chi = \lim_{q \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{F}(q) - 2 \mathbf{F}(0) + \mathbf{F}(-q)}{q^2}, \quad (13)$$

where $\mathbf{F}_{\alpha\beta}(q) = (2 - \delta_{\alpha\beta}) Q_{\alpha\beta}(q)$, $\alpha = x, y, z$ are the Cartesian directions, and the tensor $Q(q)$ can be written as

$$Q(q) = \frac{1}{N_k \Omega c^2} \sum_{n \in \text{occ}} \sum_{\gamma x,y,z} \text{Re} \langle \psi_n^{(0)} | \mathbf{A}_\gamma \mathcal{G}_k(\gamma \mathbf{q}) \epsilon_{\gamma n}^{(0)} | \psi_n^{(0)} \rangle \rangle, \quad (14)$$

with

$$\mathcal{A}_\gamma = \mathbf{u}_\gamma \times ( \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{k}). \quad (15)$$

In Eq. (14), the functions $u_{nk}^{(0)}$ denote the cell periodic part of the ground state Bloch orbitals, $N_k$ is the number of $k$-points chosen to sample the first Brillouin zone, $\Omega$ the volume of the unit cell, and the sum over $n$ and $k$ includes all occupied Bloch orbitals. The Green’s function in Eq. (14) is given by

$$\mathcal{G}_k(\epsilon) = \sum_{n \in \text{evir}} \frac{|u_{nk}^{(0)} \rangle (u_{nk}^{(0)} \rangle}{\epsilon - \epsilon_{nk}^{(0)}}. \quad (16)$$

In practice, we have implemented Eqs. (1)–(16) within the Gauge-Including Projector-Augmented-Wave (GIPAW) method of Yates, Pickard, and Mauri (YPM).\textsuperscript{4} The GIPAW deals with several numerical issues that plague the PAW method (in a uniform magnetic field): (a) it re-establishes the translational symmetry that is broken by the PAW method (see Sec. II A),\textsuperscript{2} (b) it balances the different rates of convergence of the para- and dia-magnetic contributions to the induced current—which also affects translational symmetry—via the generalized $f$-sum rule,\textsuperscript{2} and (c) it solves the position operator problem with the help of a reciprocal space modulation vector $\mathbf{q}$ (cf. Eq. (13)).

A. GIPAW

In the Projector-Augmented-Wave (PAW) method of Blöchl the one-electron orbitals $\psi_n$ are derived from pseudo-orbitals (PS orbitals) $\tilde{\psi}_n$ by means of a linear transformation,\textsuperscript{5}

$$|\psi_n\rangle = T |\tilde{\psi}_n\rangle \quad (17)$$
with
\begin{equation}
\mathcal{T} = 1 + \sum_{j} \left( |\phi_j\rangle - |\tilde{\phi}_j\rangle \right) \langle \tilde{\phi}_j |.
\end{equation}

The PS orbitals $\tilde{\psi}_n$ are the variational quantities of the PAW method and are expanded in plane waves. The additional local basis functions, $\phi_j$ and $\tilde{\phi}_j$, are non-zero only within non-overlapping spheres centered at the atomic sites $R_j$, the so-called PAW spheres. In the interstitial region between the PAW spheres, therefore, the true one-electron orbitals $\psi_n$ are identical to the PS orbitals $\tilde{\psi}_n$. Inside the spheres, the PS orbitals are only a computational tool and a bad approximation to the true orbitals, since not even the norm of the true orbital is reproduced. In all practical implementations of the PAW method, the all-electron (AE) partial-waves $\phi_j$ are chosen to be solutions of the spherical (scalar relativistic) Schrödinger equation for a non-spinpolarized atom at a specific energy $e_j$ and for a specific angular momentum $l_j$. The pseudo-partial waves $\tilde{\phi}_j$ are equivalent to their AE counterparts outside a core radius $r_c$ and match continuously onto $\phi_j$ inside this radius. In the PAW data sets distributed with VASP, they are constructed in accordance with a revised Rappe, Rabe, Kaxiras, and Joannopoulos (RRKJ) scheme.\(^{16,17}\)

The projector functions $\tilde{\phi}_j$ are constructed to be dual to the PS partial waves, i.e.,
\begin{equation}
\langle \tilde{\phi}_j | \phi_i \rangle = \delta_{ji}.
\end{equation}

A detailed construction recipe for the projector functions can be found in Ref. 17. For a comprehensive introduction to the PAW method, we refer the reader to the seminal paper of Blöchl (Ref. 5) and the work of Kresse and Joubert.\(^{18}\)

In a uniform magnetic field $B$, there is an additional complication as the ground state orbitals acquire an additional phase factor upon translation over a vector $t$ in accordance with
\begin{equation}
\langle r | \psi_n^{(1)} \rangle = e^{e^{-t \times B} r - i t | \psi_n \rangle}.
\end{equation}

Using the transformation of Eq. (21), it is straightforward to show that with any local operator $O$ acting on $\psi_n$, the GIPAW associates a PS operator $\hat{O}$ on the PS orbitals $\tilde{\psi}_n$.
\begin{equation}
\hat{O} = O + \sum_{\tilde{\psi}_j} |\tilde{\psi}_j\rangle \left( \langle \phi_j | O | \phi_j \rangle - \langle \tilde{\phi}_j | O | \tilde{\phi}_j \rangle \right) \langle \tilde{\phi}_j |,
\end{equation}

where
\begin{align}
|\tilde{\psi}_j\rangle &= e^{\varepsilon_j r \times B} |\tilde{\phi}_j\rangle, \\
|\phi_j\rangle &= e^{\varepsilon_j r \times B} |\phi_j\rangle, \\
|\tilde{\phi}_j\rangle &= e^{\varepsilon_j r \times B} |\tilde{\phi}_j\rangle.
\end{align}

As shown by YPM, to first-order in the magnetic field $B$, the GIPAW transformation of the induced current is given by
\begin{equation}
\hat{j}^{(1)}_{\text{ind}}(r) = \sum_{\ell} \left( 2 \text{Re}(\langle \tilde{\psi}_j^{(1)} | \hat{J}^{(0)}(r) | \tilde{\psi}_j^{(0)} \rangle) - \sum_j \langle \tilde{\psi}_j^{(1)} | \hat{J}^{(0)}(r) | \tilde{\psi}_j^{(0)} \rangle \langle \tilde{\psi}_j^{(0)} | \hat{S}^{(1)} | \tilde{\psi}_j^{(1)} \rangle \right)
\end{equation}
\begin{equation}
+ \langle \tilde{\psi}_j^{(1)} | \hat{J}^{(1)}(r) | \tilde{\psi}_j^{(0)} \rangle \right)
\end{equation}

In the above, $\tilde{\psi}_n^{(0)}$ are the ground state orbitals, i.e., the solutions to
\begin{equation}
\hat{H}^{(0)} | \tilde{\psi}_n^{(0)} \rangle = \epsilon_n^{(0)} | \tilde{\psi}_n^{(0)} \rangle.
\end{equation}

This equation is the GIPAW transform of the Kohn-Sham equations (see Eq. (6)) to zeroth-order in the magnetic field, so it is just the usual PAW generalized Kohn-Sham eigenvalue equation (i.e., $\hat{H}^{(0)}$ and $\tilde{S}^{(0)}$ are equal to the PAW Hamiltonian and overlap operators of Refs. 5 and 18, and consequently $\tilde{\psi}_n^{(0)} = \psi_n$ and $\epsilon_n^{(0)} = \epsilon_n$).

The current operators, to zeroth- and first-order in the magnetic field, are given by
\begin{equation}
\hat{j}^{(0)} = \hat{J}^{(0)}(r) + \sum_R \Delta J_R^{(0)}(r)
\end{equation}
\begin{equation}
\hat{j}^{(1)} = \hat{J}^{(1)}(r) + \sum_R \left( \Delta J_R^{(0)}(r) + \frac{1}{2 e_i} \left[ B \times R \cdot \Delta J_R(r) \right] \right)
\end{equation}
respectively. These are easily recognized as the paramagnetic and diamagnetic current operators of Eqs. (4) and (5), plus additional one-center correction terms (the terms involving $\Delta J_R^{(0)}$ and $\Delta J_R^{(0)}$, see Ref. 4).

For non-normconserving PAW data sets, the induced current contribution to the first-order change of the GIPAW orbital overlap operator with respect to the magnetic field,
\begin{equation}
\tilde{S}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{2 e_i} \sum_R \left[ R \times \frac{1}{i} \left[ R, Q_R \right] \cdot B \right].
\end{equation}

The first-order change in the GIPAW wave functions $\tilde{\psi}_i^{(1)}$ is found by solving a generalized Sternheimer equation,
\begin{equation}
\left( \epsilon_i^{(0)} \tilde{S}^{(0)} - \hat{H}^{(0)} \right) | \tilde{\psi}_i^{(1)} \rangle = P_c \left( \hat{H}^{(1)} - \epsilon_i^{(0)} \tilde{S}^{(1)} \right) | \tilde{\psi}_i^{(0)} \rangle,
\end{equation}
where
\begin{equation}
P_c = 1 - \sum_{\ell \in \text{occ}} \tilde{S}^{(0)} | \tilde{\psi}_i^{(0)} \rangle \langle \tilde{\psi}_i^{(0)} |,
\end{equation}
and
\begin{equation}
\hat{H}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{2 e_i} \left( L + \sum_R R \times \frac{1}{i} \left[ R, V_{\text{nl}}^R \right] + \sum_R L_R Q_R \right) \cdot B
\end{equation}
is the first-order contribution to the GIPAW Hamiltonian.

The macroscopic magnetic susceptibility is calculated in accordance with the ansatz of YPM [see Eqs. (47) and (48) of Ref. 4], which equals Eqs. (13)–(16) for $\mathcal{T} = 1$ but represents an approximation otherwise. We will not repeat the expressions here.
B. Core contributions

As was shown by Gregor, Mauri, and Car\textsuperscript{19} the contribution of the core electrons to the NMR shieldings is essentially rigid and can be calculated from the atomic orbitals of the core electrons,

$$\sigma_{\alpha\beta}^{\text{core}}(R) = \frac{1}{2e} \sum_{i} \langle \psi_{i}\rvert \frac{1}{r}\lvert \psi_{i}\rangle \delta_{\alpha\beta},$$  \hspace{1cm} (32)

where the sum is understood to be taken over the core electronic states at the atomic site $R$, and the delta function expresses the fact that the core electrons only contribute isotropically. Of course, in the PAW formalism, we use frozen core states.

As is usual in the GIPAW, the excitations from the valence to the core states are not included in the Green’s function (the pseudo-equivalent of Eq. (16)). In principle, these should be included in the proper decoupling of the valence and core contributions to the chemical shieldings, however, in IGAIM (Individual Gauges for Atoms In Molecules) and similar methods their neglect give rise to errors much smaller than 1 ppm.\textsuperscript{18} Moreover, such inaccuracies, should they play a role, can be minimized by unfreezing the shallowest core shell(s).

The contribution of the core electrons to the macroscopic magnetic susceptibility is only approximately rigid.\textsuperscript{15} It is commonly assumed to be rigid, though, and included as

$$\chi_{\alpha\beta}^{\text{core}} = -\frac{1}{\Omega c^{2}} \sum_{i} \langle \psi_{i}\rvert r^{2}\lvert \psi_{i}\rangle \delta_{\alpha\beta},$$  \hspace{1cm} (33)

where the sum is now taken over all core electronic states of the system.

III. COMPUTATIONAL SETUP

All calculations employed the Perdew, Burke, and Ernzerhof generalized gradient expansion.\textsuperscript{20,21}

A. GIPAW

We carried out two series of GIPAW calculations: one with the standard data sets that are designed for general use\textsuperscript{22} and one where we selected data sets to aim for the high accuracy of the shieldings. The former, referred to as “standard” or “stand” below, are a compromise between many demands and should yield good performance for a reasonable plane wave cutoff energy. They are not expected to be optimal for calculating shieldings. Accurate shieldings require an accurate PAW reconstruction of states in the immediate vicinity of the nuclear, as currents in this region have a high impact on the field at the nucleus. Such accuracy is only needed in the calculation of few properties, that are typically related to spectroscopic techniques probing the nucleus, e.g., for electric field gradients and NMR. The latter series, referred to as “optimal,” is intended to give high accuracy for the shieldings. Details of the data sets are compiled in Table I. Completeness in the projectors and partial waves is easier to realize when the pseudo-partial waves are norm-conserving and have an extra (radial) node for each additional projector (within the same angular momentum channel). Logically this results in harder projector functions. This is the case for the *s_v*GW(nc data sets (see Ref. 23). Typically these also have a substantial part of the core states unfrozen, which helps in keeping the PAW matching radii small. Alternatively, for some elements we used just very hard data sets (*s_h*). For the “standard” and “optimal” series, we used kinetic energy cutoffs of 700 and 900 eV, respectively.

Inside the muffin tin spheres, WIEN2k uses a basis that consists of solutions to the scalar-relativistic Schrödinger equation for the spherical atom: these atomic orbitals have so-called “large” (A) and “small” (B) components. The A partial waves of the VASP PAW data sets are solutions to the same scalar-relativistic equation. However, in the VASP PAW data sets, the “small”-component $B$ is not retained. Instead, the large component $A$ is rescaled to have the correct norm ($\sqrt{\langle A|A\rangle} + \langle B|B\rangle$). Since the B-component becomes appreciably close to the nuclei, such a treatment causes non-negligible errors in the NMR shielding. This turns out to be problematic for some of the molecular systems.

To solve this issue, we recompute the B-component on-the-fly, but use it only to evaluate the AE one-centre contributions to the shielding: the B AE-partial wave is reconstructed as the radial derivative of the A AE-partial wave, rescaled with a ZORA-like expression for the relativistic mass.\textsuperscript{24} Equation (22) is modified and becomes

$$\bar{O} = O + \sum_{jB} \langle \bar{p}_{j}\lvert (\bar{O}\lvert \bar{\phi}_{j}^{A}) + (\bar{O}\lvert \bar{\phi}_{j}^{B}) - \langle \bar{\phi}_{j}^{A}\lvert O\lvert \bar{\phi}_{j}^{B}\rangle \rangle \langle \bar{p}_{j}\lvert,$$  \hspace{1cm} (34)

The $A$ and $B$ AE-partial waves are renormalized such that the electron count in each channel inside the sphere is unaffected.

Note that the aforementioned issue only applies to the contributions to the chemical shielding stemming from the valence electronic states. The core contributions to the chemical shieldings always include the contributions of the “small” component explicitly in both VASP as well as WIEN2k.

B. APW

The WIEN2k calculations performed in this work apply the formalism described in Refs. 10 and 12. The standard APW basis set is extended with eight additional local orbitals (NMR-LOs) at higher expansion energies for all “chemical” $l + 1$ angular momenta using a procedure described in Ref. 10. The Green’s function used to represent the perturbation of the ground state is augmented with additional $r_{\text{eff}}^{2}$ terms in order to accelerate convergence with respect to the number of NMR-LOs.\textsuperscript{12} The separation of the valence and core states substantially affects the absolute values of the shielding,\textsuperscript{12} thus in the current work we apply the corresponding core-correction. All molecular calculations are done with only the 1s state as core for all atoms (except H) because of the short bond-lengths in these molecules, while for the bulk calculations we applied the usual WIEN2k criterion defining valence states as states with atomic eigenvalues above $-6$ Ry. Core-states are treated fully relativistically but in the self-consistent spherical potential only and the corresponding NMR-shielding is calculated via Eq. (32). The numerical parameters are set to standard WIEN2k values. The convergence with respect to the basis set size (RKMAX) has been tested and the presented values of the shielding for the molecular systems (in Table II) are extrapolated to infinite RKMAX (typically extrapolation
TABLE I. Frozen core configurations and matching core radii $r_c$ for $s$, $p$, $d$, and $f$ partial waves in atomic units for the optimal PAW data sets. The number of projectors for each quantum number $f$ is given in parentheses. An “$f$” indicates that this is taken as local potential.

<table>
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<th>$p$</th>
<th>$d$</th>
<th>$f$</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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shifting the shielding by 1-3 ppm compared to the largest applied RKMAX).

C. GIAO

For molecules, calculations were carried out with the quantum chemical code DALTON (Refs. 14 and 25) using uncontracted aug-cc-pCVXX (XX = DZ, TZ, QZ, 5Z) basis sets (unless stated otherwise). Uncontracting the basis sets is crucial to observe a convergence of the shieldings (and a lowering of the total energy) with increasing basis set quality. These calculations were non-relativistic.

IV. RESULTS

A. Molecules

Table II compares chemical shieldings from VASP calculations (with “standard” and with “optimal” PAW potentials) with all-electron WIEN2k results and DALTON all-electron quantum chemical calculations. Here the VASP calculations were carried out in large boxes ($16 \times 16 \times 16$ to $17 \times 17 \times 17$ Å$^3$), in order to remove artificial fields from currents induced in the periodic images and thus allow for comparison with the vacuum results from DALTON. The WIEN2k results used boxes of $16 \times 16 \times 16$ Å$^3$ only.

To avoid possible confusion with respect to differences in the implementation of relativistic effects, we excluded these in the comparison to DALTON results, i.e., all DALTON results are non-relativistic, and we have re-done the VASP calculations with PAW data sets generated from non-relativistic atomic calculations. The non-relativistic results are labelled with NR in Table II.

Table II lists scalar-relativistic VASP and WIEN2k calculations of the chemical shielding, as well. As mentioned at the end of Sec. III A, VASP calculations normally do not explicitly take contributions from the “small” component into account (the ninth and tenth columns in Table II), whereas WIEN2k does. To elucidate the effect of this approximation, we have reconstructed the $B$-component of the scalar-relativistic atomic orbitals in VASP as well and included their contribution to the chemical shieldings in the column labelled “$B$”.

In Fig. 1 we compare WIEN2k and VASP scalar-relativistic shieldings (“$B$”) for all compounds. Overall the correlation is nearly perfect. Below we discuss the differences in detail with the help of Table II.

We start with the seemingly unambiguous cases, Al and Si. Agreement for non-relativistic results (columns “NR”) between VASP (optimal PAW data sets), WIEN2k, and best (aug-ccPCV5Z) DALTON shieldings is in general excellent. Specifically for Al, the maximum difference between non-relativistic “optimal” VASP and the best DALTON shieldings is just 0.8 ppm (and the WIEN2k values are very close, as well).

For Si, the maximum deviation between non-relativistic “optimal” VASP and the best DALTON results increases to 4 ppm for the strongly deshielded limit (SiH$_2$), which is still
 TABLE II. Calculated absolute isotropic chemical shieldings (in ppm). VASP calculations were carried out in large boxes (see text). VASP “optimal” results were obtained with Al\textsubscript{sv} nc, Si\textsubscript{sv} nc, P\textsubscript{sv} nc, and F\textsubscript{h} PAW data sets. “NR” denotes non-relativistic calculations. “\( ^{+}B \)” denotes scalar relativistic calculations with two-component KS-orbitals in the atomic/PAW spheres. The DALTON calculations are non-relativistic using GIAOs and have uncontracted basis sets. Identical molecular geometries were used in the WIEN2k, VASP, and DALTON calculations. Four slightly differently deformed tetrahedral geometries were used for \([\text{AlH}_4]^-\). “MAD” denotes “mean absolute deviation” for the set of molecules that have WIEN2k results.

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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NR</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Al shieldings(^a)</td>
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<tr>
<td>([\text{AlH}_4]^-)</td>
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<tr>
<td>( \text{Al}_2\text{H}_6 )</td>
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<td>( \text{AlH}_3 )</td>
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\(^a\)See supplementary material for molecular geometries.
\(^b\)QE shieldings from Ref. 13.
\(^c\)Molecular geometries and CASTEP shieldings from Ref. 33 (except for PF\(_3\)).

The relativistic corrections to the shielding, calculated as the difference between the two-component scalar-relativistic and non-relativistic shieldings, are quite similar for VASP and WIEN2k: they differ by ~1 ppm. This supports the validity of our two-component implementation.

Phosphorous is a more critical case. Creating accurate PAW data sets for phosphorous, that include 2\( s \) and 2\( p \) states as valence orbitals, is challenging. The “optimal” P data set is created with 2\( p \) core radii of 1.95 a.u., where the 2\( p \) core orbitals have almost negligible amplitudes (see Table I). Nevertheless the results are excellent, with maximal differences between quite good. We observe a progressive increase of the difference between VASP and DALTON results with decreasing shielding. The non-relativistic WIEN2k shieldings are 3–7 ppm lower than the results obtained with VASP and 2–3 ppm lower than the best DALTON results.

In the scalar-relativistic case, the inclusion of the small component (\( ^{+}B \)) has a noticeable effect (compare the column eight [VASP, optimal, \( ^{+}B \)] and column nine [VASP, optimal] in Table II): in the high shielding limit, the shieldings differ by just 2-3 ppm, whereas in the low shielding limit of the inclusion of the \( B \)-component reduces the shielding by 10 ppm (SiH\(_2\)).
VASP and DALTON of 1 ppm. Even for the difficult case of P$_2$, which is strongly deshielded, the agreement is very good. The WIEN2k shieldings are 2-4 ppm lower than the corresponding VASP and DALTON results.

Relativistic effects are increasingly more important towards the deshielded limit. For P$_4$ relativistic effects amount to only a 0-1 ppm increase of the shielding, whereas for P$_2$ the reduction is 22 ppm (with VASP as well as with WIEN2k). Here again, the inclusion of the small component (\(\approx B\)) has a significant effect. Neglecting explicit contributions from the small component of the scalar-relativistic orbitals yields an increase of the P$_2$ shieldings of 10 ppm. Including the contributions of the small component, the VASP and WIEN2k relativistic corrections (difference between “NR” and “\(\approx B\)”) are identical to within \(\pm 1\) ppm.

The agreement between VASP (“optimal”) and QE shieldings is good for high shieldings but becomes worse towards the low shielding limit. We attribute this to the fact that in the QE calculations, the \(2s\) and \(2p\) electrons were treated as part of the core. However, using the “standard” PAW data sets, the VASP shieldings still significantly differ from the QE results. This illustrates to what extent the results depend on the particulars (matching radii, etc.) of the “standard” PAW data sets.

The last molecular test systems are fluorine compounds. Again agreement between VASP and DALTON is very good, but, as for the silicon compounds, discrepancies with increasing deshielding are observed. In general, VASP calculations tend to predict smaller shieldings (and stronger deshielding), with differences of up to 4 ppm for PF$_3$, CFCl$_3$, NF$_3$, and F$_2$. Here, carefully scrutinizing the convergence of the DALTON calculations for F$_2$ and NF$_3$ shows that the basis set convergence using Gaussian basis sets is slow, and differences between QZ and SZ can be as large as 1.5 ppm (F$_2$). In view of this, it is not unlikely that the DALTON results might still be inaccurate for these strongly deshielded cases (F$_2$ and NF$_3$), despite the use of uncontracted SZ basis sets. It has been suggested that relaxation of the F 1s core states might play a role (see Ref. 33), i.e., the frozen core approximation in the GIPAW calculations may also explain part of the difference between the VASP and DALTON results: the close agreement between VASP (frozen core) and WIEN2k (all-electron) results for F$_2$ and NF$_3$, however, does not support this. In fact, calculations with WIEN2k show the F 1s contribution to be constant within the series (305.8/306.4 ppm for non-/scalar-relativistic calculations). In these calculations, the F 1s state self-consistently adapts to the spherical part of the potential. Admixture of \(p\) and higher angular momentum states into the F 1s is not possible, but this should not really matter for a localized 1s core state at \(\approx 48\) Ry. The WIEN2k and VASP fluorine shieldings agree very well, with (NR) differences less than 1 ppm, except for PF$_3$ where the (NR) difference is a bit larger (3 ppm). Finally, agreement with the CASTEP GIPAW results of Sadoc et al. is quite good as well (our DALTON molecular quantum chemical shieldings are also very close to their Gaussian basis set results).

For the aug-cc-pCVXX series, a two-point extrapolation formula is available:

\[
\sigma_{\text{iso}}(X) = \sigma_{\text{iso}}(Y) + \frac{X - Y}{\alpha - \beta} \sigma_{\text{iso}}(Y) + \frac{Y - X}{\alpha - \beta} \sigma_{\text{iso}}(X).
\]

Here \(\sigma_{\text{iso}}(X)\) is the shielding calculated using an aug-cc-pCVXZ basis. For the exponent, two values are used in the literature. \(\alpha = 1.63\) is based on the scaling observed for the (Hartree-Fock) total energy in Ref. 37. As the shielding can be calculated as a second-order energy derivative, the same extrapolation has also been used for shieldings. Here again, the inclusion of the small component (\(\approx B\)) has a significant effect. Neglecting explicit contributions from the small component of the scalar-relativistic orbitals yields an increase of the P$_2$ shieldings of 10 ppm. Including the contributions of the small component, the VASP and WIEN2k relativistic corrections (difference between “NR” and “\(\approx B\)”) are identical to within \(\pm 1\) ppm.

The agreement between VASP (“optimal”) and QE shieldings is good for high shieldings but becomes worse towards the low shielding limit. We attribute this to the fact that in the QE calculations, the \(2s\) and \(2p\) electrons were treated as part of the core. However, using the “standard” PAW data sets, the VASP shieldings still significantly differ from the QE results. This illustrates to what extent the results depend on the particulars (matching radii, etc.) of the “standard” PAW data sets.
TABLE III. Calculated isotropic F and O NMR shieldings $\sigma_{iso}$ (in ppm), calculated magnetic susceptibilities $\chi_m$ (in $10^{-6}$ cm$^3$/mol$^{-1}$), and experimental chemical shifts $\delta_{exp}$ (in ppm), GIPAW F and O shieldings calculated with other codes (column “other GIPAW”) were taken from Refs. 33 (O), 38 (F), and 39 (F), respectively. Susceptibilities are per mole f.u. Experimental susceptibilities are from Refs. 40 and 41. Structures are from Ref. 33 and the inorganic crystal structure database.$^{11,42}$ All calculations are scalar relativistic with, inside the atomic spheres, one (VASP) and two (WIEN2k) component KS orbitals. VASP numbers calculated with a 900 eV (700 eV) kinetic energy cutoff in column optimal (standard). “MAD” denotes “mean absolute deviation.”

<table>
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O shieldings

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DALTON calculations is excellent. The shieldings obtained with WIEN2k are generally a few ppm smaller than those obtained with VASP. This might relate to the numerically virtually exact basis sets close to the nucleus in the WIEN2k calculations. For strongly deshielded cases (SiH$_2$, P$_2$, F$_2$), the deviations between DALTON, WIEN2k, and VASP calculations are larger (up to 7 ppm). For these three cases, the deviations between DALTON, WIEN2k, and VASP calculations is excellent. The shieldings obtained with WIEN2k are generally a few ppm smaller than those obtained with VASP. This might relate to the numerically virtually exact basis sets close to the nucleus in the WIEN2k calculations. For strongly deshielded cases (SiH$_2$, P$_2$, F$_2$), the deviations between DALTON, WIEN2k, and VASP calculations are larger (up to 7 ppm). For these three cases, the deviations considered here. However, often they appear to increase (in size) with the reduced shielding. So for calculating differences, which in practice is most important, we think they can often be safely neglected.

In general, we observe that it is more difficult to predict and converge shieldings in the deshielded limit. This is not unusual: in quantum chemical calculations, the diamagnetic contribution, which depends only on the charge density, converges rapidly. The paramagnetic contribution, which involves the Green’s function and a sum over empty states, converges slower. For fluorine, the diamagnetic contribution is approximately 500 ppm (DALTON number) and only weakly dependent on the molecular composition. The paramagnetic contribution goes from approximately -50 ppm for CH$_3$F in the shielded limit to approximately -800 ppm for F$_2$ in the deshielded limit. The latter exhibits a substantial variation with basis set size, and the variation of these contributions with the basis set size is substantial as can be the contribution of the small-component, even for the light elements considered here. However, often they appear to increase (in size) with the reduced shielding. So for calculating differences, which in practice is most important, we think they can often be safely neglected.

Scalar relativistic effects can be substantial as can be the contribution of the small-component, even for the light elements considered here. However, often they appear to increase (in size) with the reduced shielding. So for calculating differences, which in practice is most important, we think they can often be safely neglected.
basis set size is an order of magnitude larger than the variation of the diamagnetic contribution.

We finish with a final look at the difference between standard and optimal VASP PAW potentials. For fluorine, the agreement is excellent (except for the difficult strongly deshielded cases). This is not unexpected, since the same number of electrons is treated as valence. For Al(Si), the “optimal” PAW data sets give ~7(4) ppm smaller shieldings than the standard PAW potentials. For P the optimal data sets give smaller shieldings in the high shielding limit and higher shieldings in the deshielded limit. Since small systematic offsets matter little for comparison with the experiment, standard potentials will often give the right trends. Indeed, for [AlH₄]⁻ small deformations of the poly-anion result in very similar changes in the shielding for all PAW data sets and all quantum chemical basis sets. However, in critical cases we advise to check against the optimal potentials because occasionally the trends can be broken. This is illustrated by H₃PO₄, where the standard data set gives an overestimation of the shielding by ~10 ppm.

B. Solids

Table III lists the isotropic F and O NMR shieldings and magnetic susceptibilities for a range of fluoride and oxide systems, calculated using VASP and WIEN2k. As in the case of the molecular shieldings, using the high quality “optimal” PAW data sets, the VASP and WIEN2k results are in very good agreement. The largest deviations occur for KF, GaF₃, and SrO. For GaF₃, this can be traced back to a difference in calculated susceptibilities. Deviations are acceptable though, especially considering the shielding range of F and O. This is illustrated in Fig. 2, by means of a plot of VASP shieldings versus shieldings obtained with WIEN2k.

Figure 2 furthermore shows that on the scale of the F and O shielding range in these compounds, using “standard” PAW data sets does not affect the results appreciably, except for the Ba and Cs compounds. For some of the other compounds, there appear even to be slight improvements (e.g., for NaF). All Cs and Ba data sets have unfrozen 5s and 5p semi-core states, i.e., the shallow core states are allowed to be polarized in the crystal field. This, apparently, is not sufficient to get accurate shieldings. The standard Ba data set has PAW matching radii of 2.8 (2.7) bohrs for the s (p) channel, with 2 projectors per channel. The “optimal” set has much smaller radii of 1.3-1.4 (2.2) and norm-conserving pseudo-partial waves for the p channel. Evidently this substantially reduces inaccuracies due to incompleteness in the PAW sphere, which results in more accurate current densities that are “felt” in the induced field at the neighboring nuclei. With the “optimal” data sets, agreement with WIEN2k is very good.

In general, the magnetic susceptibilities obtained with VASP using the “optimal” PAW data sets are in fair agreement with the susceptibilities obtained with WIEN2k, with some exceptions for compounds with heavier nuclei (TlF being the most dramatic). The susceptibilities calculated using the “standard” PAW data sets in many cases are in quite poor agreement with the all-electron WIEN2k results (e.g., SrTiO₃ and BaZrO₃). This makes sense, as the YPM expression for the magnetic susceptibility lacks one-centre corrections (Eqs. (47) and (48) of Ref. 4) and is expected to become more accurate when PAW data sets become harder (smaller core radii and/or norm-conserving). Shieldings calculated discarding the susceptibility contribution of Eq. (12) are listed in the supplementary material.

FIG. 2. Comparison of shieldings calculated with WIEN2k and VASP with optimal (black circles) and standard (red diamonds) PAW data sets. Left: fluorine shieldings, right: oxygen shieldings.

FIG. 3. Experimental shifts compared to calculated shieldings, for WIEN2k (black circles) and VASP (red diamonds). The lines are linear fits, with parameters according to Table IV: black solid line corresponds to WIEN2k and dashed red line corresponds to VASP. Left: fluorine shieldings, right: oxygen shieldings.
TABLE IV. Fit parameters according to Eq. (36) with standard errors in brackets and Pearson correlation coefficient $r$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\sigma_{\text{ref}}$</th>
<th>$m$</th>
<th>$\rho$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WIEN2k</td>
<td>86.47(7.08)</td>
<td>-0.7964(0.0250)</td>
<td>-0.9946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VASP (optimal)</td>
<td>87.76(7.22)</td>
<td>-0.8056(0.0257)</td>
<td>-0.9945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VASP (standard)</td>
<td>101.64(9.54)</td>
<td>-0.8429(0.0337)</td>
<td>-0.9914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIEN2k</td>
<td>217.23(6.77)</td>
<td>-0.8546(0.0247)</td>
<td>-0.9963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VASP (optimal)</td>
<td>216.67(7.00)</td>
<td>-0.8558(0.0256)</td>
<td>-0.9960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VASP (standard)</td>
<td>220.65(7.79)</td>
<td>-0.8724(0.0292)</td>
<td>-0.9950</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Fig. 3 we compare WIEN2k and VASP shieldings (“optimal” PAW data sets) to chemical shifts from experiment. A fit is done, according to

$$
\delta_{\text{iso}}^{\text{exp}} = \sigma_{\text{ref}} - m \sigma_{\text{iso}}^{\text{calc}},
$$

(36)

Fit results are in Table IV. Note that the Ca compounds are well besides the fitted straight lines. Indeed, it is known that the empty Ca 3$d$-states are too close to the valence band maximum in density functional theory (DFT), resulting in a deviation of the O shift.\textsuperscript{39}

The fit of Eq. (36) relates the calculated shieldings to chemical shifts from experiment. Table IV shows that the slope $m$ and reference shielding $\sigma_{\text{ref}}$ from VASP calculations with optimal PAW data sets and as obtained with WIEN2k are in excellent agreement.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In the calculation of NMR shieldings for the molecular systems considered in this paper, we have pushed the convergence of the results of the DALTON (Gaussian basis set), WIEN2k (APW+lo), and VASP (GIPAW) calculations with respect to their basis sets as far as practicably possible. If this is done, generally excellent agreement can be obtained for very different codes and implementations. Specifically, for Si, Al, and P agreement of GIPAW calculations (VASP) with the all-electron Gaussian basis set results (DALTON) is excellent, with inaccuracies of several ppm in the extreme deshielded limit for SiH$_2$. For F, in the deshielded range, differences of up to 4 ppm occur, but in this case the DALTON calculations are probably still not fully converged with respect to the basis set size, and the VASP results are validated by the comparison to WIEN2k. Generally, the all-electron APW+lo WIEN2k shieldings agree very well with those obtained from DALTON and VASP calculations, although the WIEN2k shieldings are consistently slightly lower than the DALTON (and most of the VASP) results. This might be due to the superior quality of the APW+lo basis sets of WIEN2k close to the nuclei.

Scalar relativistic effects, even for light nuclei, can be substantial. They increase towards the deshielded limit, where the inclusion of the small-component of the wave function can considerably affect the shielding.

In general, the agreement between VASP and WIEN2k shieldings is very good for the molecular and the solid state systems considered here. We consider this to be a validation of our norm-conserving and hard GW PAW data sets. Completeness of the projector functions/partial waves inside the PAW spheres is crucially important, not only for the elements for which the shielding is calculated but for other atomic constituents as well: This is especially true for Cs and Ba that have very shallow semi-core states. Large matching radii in the pseudization of Cs and Ba (as regularly used) yield wrong oxygen and fluorine shifts. Reducing these radii and the use of norm-conserving partial waves yields a more accurate description of the current density already on the plane wave grid, i.e., the results are less affected by the undercompleteness of the PAW one-center basis. This, however, generally comes at the price of an increase in the cutoff energy of the plane wave basis set. Standard VASP PAW data sets, although being less accurate, describe trends and chemical differences quite well. Hence, they can be used in shielding calculations, although for small differences double checks with more accurate PAW data sets are in order. In general, it is more difficult to predict and converge shieldings in the deshielded limit, where the paramagnetic contribution, that involves the Green’s function, is larger.

Harder data sets give, in general, better values for the susceptibilities, since one-centre corrections are presently missing for the susceptibilities. In most cases, reasonable susceptibilities can often be obtained with standard data sets already, and the contribution of the susceptibility to the shielding is, in general, modest anyway. This is crucial, since our, as well as other implementations use only one-centre corrections for the current density.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

See supplementary material for the structure of the Al, Si, and P containing molecules, basis set extrapolations for aug-cc-pCVXZ shieldings, and solid state shieldings calculated without the $G = 0$ contribution.

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31. See http://icsd.fiz-karlsruhe.de/icsd for crystal structures.