## Topic III

1/27:

## Introduction to Structure and Bonding

## III.1 Module 11: Quantum chemistry 101

- We will have a normal class on Friday and hold review sessions at different times where we can ask questions.
- Suggested readings: Nocera Lecture 6, Nocera Lecture 7, MIT OCW quantum mechanics<sup>[1]</sup>.
- In chemistry, most problems are solved with the time-independent Schrödinger equation  $\hat{H}\Psi = E\Psi$ .
  - $\Psi$  is the wavefunction; it contains information on movement of the electron and its position.
  - $|\Psi(x, y, z)|^2 \propto P(x, y, z).$
  - -E is an eigenvalue of  $\hat{H}$ .
- If we are working with the time-dependent Schrödinger equation, we have another variable besides x, y, z, namely t. This allows us to calculate the probability that an electron is in a certain position at a given time.
- The Hamiltonian operator  $\hat{H} = \hat{T} + \hat{V}$  describes the total energy.
  - $-\hat{T}$  is the kinetic energy operator.  $\hat{T} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m}$ , where  $\hat{p}_x = -i\hbar \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}$  is the momentum operator.
  - $\hat{V}$  is the potential energy operator. It typically describes the Coulombic attraction between the nucleus and the electron, which is approximately  $\frac{1}{r}$  where r is the distance from the nucleus to the electron.
- For a free electron in one dimension, the Schrödinger equation reduces to

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\Psi}{\mathrm{d}x^2} = E\Psi$$
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\Psi}{\mathrm{d}x^2} = -\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}\Psi$$

- Dirac's bra-ket notation  $\langle \Psi | A | \Psi \rangle \equiv \int_V \Psi^* \hat{H} \Psi \, dx \, dy \, dz$ .
  - The **bra vector** (the first term inside the brackets) and **ket vector** (the last term inside the brackets) correspond to complex conjugates of the wave function.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Many chemistry courses go too deep into the math and physics of quantum mechanics, which obfuscates the chemistry and confuses us in Dr. Talapin's opinion.

• LCAO method: A way of finding the wavefunction of a molecule; of solving the Schrödinger equation after applying simplifications. Short for linear combination of atomic wavefunctions, i.e., the atomic orbitals  $\phi$ .

$$\Psi = \sum_{i} c_i \phi_i$$

- Each  $c_i$  is a coefficient, and the atomic orbitals form the basis set.
- Basically, we think of the wave function of a molecule as a linear combination of its atomic orbitals.
- $-\phi$  is normalized, thus  $\int \phi_i^2 d\tau = 1$  where  $d\tau = \partial x \partial y \partial z$ .
- Continuing, we can calculate the expected value of  $\hat{H}$ :

$$E = \frac{\int \Psi \hat{H} \Psi \, \mathrm{d}\tau}{\int \Psi^2 \, \mathrm{d}\tau}$$

- Shortcomings: Does not count for electron correlation and a few other things.
- Electronic structure of H<sub>2</sub> molecule.
  - H<sub>2</sub>'s structure is H-H.
  - $-\Psi = a\phi_1 + b\phi_2$ , where  $\phi_{1,2}$  are two atomic hydrogen 1s orbitals.
  - The electron density function is:  $\phi^2 = a^2 \phi_1^2 + b^2 \phi_2^2 + 2ab\phi_1 \phi_2$ .
  - By symmetry of H-H molecule,  $a = \pm b$ .
    - Symmetry of the coefficients should reflect symmetry of the atoms.
    - Hydrogen atoms are indistinguishable, so since the electron can't identify which atom it corresponds to, the math shouldn't either.
  - If  $S = \int_{\tau} \phi_1 \phi_2 d\tau$  or  $\langle \phi_1 | \phi_2 \rangle$  is the overlap integral between two hydrogen 1s orbitals, we have bonding and antibonding orbitals:

$$\Psi_b = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(1+s)}}(\phi_1 + \phi_2) \qquad \qquad \Psi_a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(1-s)}}(\phi_1 - \phi_2)$$

- The first orbital is  $\sigma_g$  bonding.
- The second orbital is  $\sigma_u^*$  antibonding.
- Introducing the normalizing requirement gives us the above coefficients.
- In the Hückel theory:

$$\alpha = \langle \phi_1 | \hat{H}_{\text{eff}} | \phi_1 \rangle = \langle \phi_2 | \hat{H}_{\text{eff}} | \phi_2 \rangle \qquad \beta = \langle \phi_1 | \hat{H}_{\text{eff}} | \phi_2 \rangle$$

- If we calculate the expectation integrals, we will arrive at the above.
- $\blacksquare$   $\hat{H}_{\text{eff}}$  is some effective Hamiltonian.
- The  $\alpha$  integral is the Coulomb integral.
- The  $\beta$  integral is the interaction integral.
- In the **Hückel approximation** (the simplest approximation of quantum mechanics), we define integrals as parameters that we can extract from empirical data:
  - $\blacksquare H_{ii} = \alpha.$
  - $\blacksquare$   $H_{ij} = 0$  for  $\phi_i$  not adjacent to  $\phi_j$ .
  - $\blacksquare$   $H_{ij} = \beta$  for  $\phi_i$  adjacent to  $\phi_j$ .
  - $S_{ii} = 1.$
  - $\blacksquare S_{ij} = 0.$

- Expectation values for energy are

$$E_{a,b} = \frac{\langle \Psi_{a,b} | \hat{H}_{\text{eff}} | \Psi_{a,b} \rangle}{\langle \Psi_{a,b} | \Psi_{a,b} \rangle}$$

so

$$E_a = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{1 - s} \qquad \qquad E_b = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{1 + s}$$

- Note that  $\beta < 0$  for atomic s-orbitals and  $\beta > 0$  for p-orbitals for  $\sigma$ -bonds.
- Also, in the Hückel one-electron model, the integrals  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  remain unsolved.
- Note: As always, the bonding orbitals are less stabilized than the antibonding orbitals are destabilized.
  - This is a consequence of overlap, e.g., for a dimer, the  $1 \pm S$  term in  $E_{+/-} = \frac{\alpha \pm \beta}{1+S}$ .
  - This is why  $He_2$  does not exist.
- Overlap integral: An integral proportional to the degree of spatial overlap between two orbitals. It is the product of wave functions centered on different lattice sites. Varies from 0 (no overlap) to 1 (perfect overlap). Also known as S.
- Coulomb integral: An integral giving the kinetic and potential energy of an electron in an atomic orbital experiencing interactions with all the other electrons and all the positive nuclei. Also known as  $\alpha$ .
- Interaction integral (on two orbitals 1,2): An integral giving the energy of an electron in the region of space where orbitals 1 and 2 overlap. The value is finite for orbitals on adjacent atoms, and assumed to be zero otherwise. Also known as  $\beta_{12}$ , resonance integral, exchange integral.
- Symmetry and quantum mechanics:
  - Say we have  $\hat{H}\Psi = E\Psi$  where  $\hat{H}$  is the Hamiltonian and R is a symmetry operator (e.g.,  $C_2$  or  $\sigma_v$ ).
  - Note that the Hamiltonian commutes with the symmetry operator:  $R\hat{H} = \hat{H}R$ .
  - Since a symmetry operation does not change the energy of a molecule (it just moves it),  $\hat{H}R\Psi_i = E_i R\Psi_i$ .
  - It follows that R does not change the form of the wave function, i.e.,  $R\Psi_i = \pm 1\Psi_i$ . This reflects the fact that R cannot change the probability  $P[e(x,y,z)] = |\Psi(x,y,z)|^2$  of finding an electron somewhere.
  - Thus, the eigenfunctions of the Schrödinger equation generate a representation of the group.
  - Non-degenerate wave functions are A or B type.
  - Double-degenerate wave functions are E type.
  - Triple-degenerate wave functions are T type.
- Back to the LCAO method:

$$E_i = \frac{\int \Psi_i^* H \Psi_i \, dV}{\int \Psi_i^* \Psi_i \, dV} \qquad \qquad \Psi_i = \sum_i c_i \phi_i$$

- If we have a sizeable molecule with a couple dozen atoms, every molecular orbital (wave function) will be the sum of a couple dozen atomic orbitals.
- This generates a set of i linear homogenous equations, numbering in the hundreds or thousands that need to be solved.
- This is clearly too computationally expensive, so we need a trick.

- An example where symmetry arguments help a lot:
  - If f is odd (f(x) = -f(-x)), then we know that  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 0$ .
- Group theory allows us to generalize this method to broader symmetry operations.
- Three important theorems:
  - 1. The characters of the representation of a direct product are equal to the products of the characters of the representations based on the individual sets of functions.
    - For example, in the  $T_d$  point group,  $T_1 = (3, 0, -1, 1, -1)$ , and  $T_2 = (3, 0, -1, -1, 1)$ . By the theorem,  $T_1 \times T_2 = (9, 0, 1, -1, -1)$ .
  - 2. A representation of a direct product,  $\Gamma_c = \Gamma_a \times \Gamma_b$ , will contain the totally symmetric representation only if the irreducible representations of a and b contain at least one common irreducible representation.
    - Continuing with the above example,  $T_1 \times T_2$  can be decomposed into  $A_2 + E + T_1 + T_2$ . Thus, by this theorem, if we take the product  $\Gamma_c = E \times T_1 \times T_2$ , the representation will contain the totally symmetric representation  $A_1$  (since  $\Gamma_b = E$  and  $\Gamma_a = T_1 \times T_2$  both contain E). Indeed,  $E \times T_1 \times T_2 = (18, 0, 2, 0, 0)$ .
  - 3. The value of any integral relating to a molecule  $\int_V \Psi \, d\tau$  will be zero unless the integrand is invariant under all operations of the symmetry point group to which the molecule belongs. That is  $\Gamma_{\Psi}$  must contain the totally symmetric irreducible representation.
    - This example will concern the  $D_{4d}$  point group. We want to evaluate the integral  $\int_V \Psi_a \mu_z \Psi_b d\tau$  where  $\Gamma_{\Psi_a} = A_1$ ,  $\Gamma_{\mu_z} = B_2$ , and  $\Gamma_{\Psi_b} = E_1$ .
    - By Theorem 1, we can easily determine the representation  $\Psi_a \times \mu_z$ . We can then decompose it.
    - Noting that it does not contain the  $E_1$  irreducible representation (the only representation in  $\Psi_b$ ), we can learn from Theorem 2 that  $\Psi_a\mu_z\Psi_b$  does not contain the  $A_1$  irreducible representation.
    - Therefore, by Theorem 3,  $\int_V \Psi d\tau = \int_V \Psi_a \mu_z \Psi_b d\tau = 0$ .
- We use these three theorems to tell us what integrals will be zero in a much less computationally intensive fashion. We can then evaluate the remaining nonzero integrals.
- We can take direct products by hand, but there are also tables of direct products of irreducible representations.

## III.2 Module 12: IR and Raman active vibrations (part 2)

• Fermi's golden rule: The rate of an optical transition from a single initial state to a final state is given by the transition rate for a single state.

$$\Gamma_{i \to f} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} E_0^2 |\langle f|H'|i\rangle|^2 \delta(E_f - E_i - h\nu)$$

- By state, we typically mean energy level.
- The transition rate is the probability of a transition happening.
- If it's an optical transition, conservation of energy implies that the energy difference between the initial and final state will equal the energy of the photon that the molecule absorbs or emits.
- $-E_0^2$  is the light intensity.
- $-h\nu$  is the photon energy.
- $-\langle f|H'|i\rangle = \int \Psi_f^* H' \Psi_i \,d\tau$  is the square of the matrix element (the strength of the coupling between the states).

- $-\delta(E_f-E_i-h\nu)$  is the resonance condition (energy conservation).
- In the dipole approximation,  $H' = -e\vec{r} \cdot \vec{E}$ .
- This is derived with time-dependent perturbation theory.
  - The matrix element  $M = \langle f|H'|i\rangle = \int \Psi_f^*(\vec{r})H'\Psi_i(\vec{r}) d^3\vec{r}$ .
  - Perturbation:  $H' = -\vec{p_e} \cdot \vec{E}_{photon}$ . Dipole moment:  $\vec{p_e} = -e\vec{r}$ . Light wave:  $\vec{E}_{photon}(r) = \vec{E_0} e^{\pm i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}}$ ,  $H'(\vec{r}) = e\vec{E_0} \cdot \vec{r} e^{\pm i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}}$ .
  - This implies that in one dimension,  $|M| \propto \int \Psi_f^*(\vec{r}) x \Psi_i(\vec{r}) d^3 \vec{r}$ .
  - We include other variables in higher dimensions.
- For IR absorption, the intensity I satisfies  $I \propto \int \Psi_{\text{e.s.}} \hat{\mu}_e \Psi_{\text{g.s.}} d\tau$ .
  - $\Psi_{\rm e.s.}$  is the excited state wavefunction,  $\Psi_{\rm g.s.}$  is the ground state wavefunction, and  $\hat{\mu}_e$  is the dipole operator.
  - We now apply the three theorems:
  - It is always true in vibration spectroscopy that  $\Gamma_{g.s.} = A_1$ . This is because in the ground state, the molecule is completely relaxed (nothing is perturbed).
  - Thus, we can already reduce to  $\Gamma_{\text{e.s.}} \cdot \Gamma_{\mu} \cdot \Gamma_{\text{g.s.}} = \Gamma_{\text{e.s.}} \cdot \Gamma_{\mu} \cdot 1$ .
  - Now  $\Gamma_{\mu}$  transforms as x, y, z unit vectors. In  $D_{3h}$ , this implies that  $\Gamma_{\mu} = E' + A''_2$ .
  - Therefore,  $I \propto \Gamma_{\text{vibs}} \cdot (E' + A_2'')$ .
  - For PF<sub>5</sub>, since  $\Gamma_{\text{vibs}} = 2A_1' + 3E' + 2A_2'' + E''$  has E' and  $A_2''$  in common with  $\Gamma_{\mu}$ , only 3E' and  $2A_2''$  are IR active.
    - Additionally, with elements in common,  $\Gamma_{\text{vibs}} \cdot \Gamma_{\mu}$  will contain  $A_1$  by Theorem 2, and thus, the integrals  $\int \Psi_{\text{e.s.}} x \Psi_{\text{g.s.}} d\tau$ ,  $\int \Psi_{\text{e.s.}} y \Psi_{\text{g.s.}} d\tau$ , and  $\int \Psi_{\text{e.s.}} z \Psi_{\text{g.s.}} d\tau$  are all nonzero. Some linear combination of them will be proportional to I.
- The exam will include material from today's class, but not Friday's class.
- PSets 1 and 2 will cover all material on the exam?