# Topic I

# Symmetry and Group Theory in Chemistry

### I.1 Module 3: Symmetry Elements and Operations

- 1/13: He will upload lecture slides in advance in the future.
  - An object is symmetric if one part is the same as other parts.
  - The symmetry of discrete objects is described using **Point Symmetry**.
  - Point groups ( $\sim 32$  for molecules) provide us with a way to indicate the symmetry unambiguously.
  - Point groups have symmetry about a single point at the center of mass of the system.
  - Extended objects (e.g., crystals) have **translational symmetry** described by **Space groups**<sup>[1]</sup> (230 total).
  - Reading: Miessler et al. (2014) Chapter 4 and https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Molecular\_symmetry.
  - Symmetry elements: Geometric entities about which a symmetry operation can be performed. In a point group, all symmetry elements must pass through the center of mass (the point).
  - Symmetry operation: The action that produces an object identical to the initial object.

Element	Operation		
Identity, $E$	nothing		
Rotation axis, $C_n$	<i>n</i> -fold rotation		
Improper rotation axis, $S_n$	<i>n</i> -fold improper rotation		
Plane of symmetry, $\sigma$	Reflection		
Center of symmetry, $i$	Inversion		

- Identity: Does nothing to the object, but is necessary for mathematical completeness.
- **n-fold rotation**: A rotation of  $360^{\circ}/n$  about the  $C_n$  axis  $(n \in [1, \infty))$ .
  - In  $H_2O$ , there is a  $C_2$  axis, so we can perform a 2-fold (180°) rotation to get the same molecule.
    - Remember, because of quantum mechanical properties, the hydrogens are indistinguishable so when we rotate it 180°, we cannot tell it apart from the unrotated molecule.
  - Rotations are considered positive in the counterclockwise direction.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Not covered in this course.

- Each possible rotation operation is assigned using a superscript integer m of the form  $C_n^m$ . m is the number of sequential applications.
- The rotation  $C_n^n = E$  is equivalent to the identity operation (nothing is moved).
- Linear molecules have an infinite number of rotational options  $C_{\infty}$  because any rotation on the molecular axis will give the same arrangement.
- Principal axis: The highest order rotation axis.
  - By convention, the principal axis is assigned to the z-axis if we are using Cartesian coordinates.
- Reflection: Exchanges one half of the object with the reflection of the other half.
- Vertical mirror plane: A mirror plane that contains the principal axis. Also known as  $\sigma_v$ .
- Horizontal mirror plane: A mirror plane that is perpendicular to the principal axis. Also known as  $\sigma_h$ .
- Dihedral mirror planes: A special type of  $\sigma_v$  that is between sides or planes. Also known as  $\sigma_d$ .
  - For example, we might have vertical mirror planes in the xz- or yz-planes. In this case, the dihedral planes would contain the lines  $y=\pm x$ .
- Two successive reflections are equivalent to the identity operation.
- **Inversion**: Every part of the object is reflected through the inversion center, which must be at the center of mass of the object.

$$-(x,y,z) \xrightarrow{i} (-x,-y,-z).$$

• *n*-fold improper rotation: This operation involves a rotation of  $360^{\circ}/n$  followed by a reflection perpendicular to the axis. It is a single operation and is labeled in the same manner as "proper" rotations. Also known as  $S_n^m$ .

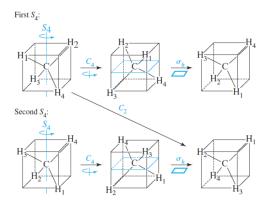


Figure I.1: Methane's  $S_4$  symmetry.

- Methane has  $S_4$  symmetry.
- Note that  $S_1 = \sigma_h$ ,  $S_2 = i$ , and sometimes  $S_{2n} = C_n$ . In methane, for example,  $S_4^2 = C_2$ .
- Applied to a triangular prism, is a good example.
- If n is even, we have n unique operations. There should be  $C_{n/2}$ .
- If n is odd, we have 2n unique operations. There should be  $C_n$  and  $\sigma_h$ .
- The absence of an  $S_n$  axis is the defining symmetry property of **chiral** molecules.
  - Formerly, we learned that chiral molecules should not have mirror planes and inversion centers.
  - Rigorously, chiral molecules must not have any improper rotation axes.

#### I.2 Module 4: Symmetry Point Groups

- Identifying the point groups:
  - 1. Determine if the symmetry is special (e.g., octahedral).
  - 2. Determine if there is a principal rotation axis.
  - 3. Determine if there are rotation axes perpendicular to the principal axis.
  - 4. Determine if there are mirror planes.
  - 5. Assign point groups.
- High symmetry and low symmetry groups are the most difficult to identify.
- High symmetry:
  - Perfect tetrahedral  $(T_d)$ , e.g.,  $P_4$  and  $CH_4$ .
  - Perfect octahedral  $(O_h)$ , e.g., SF<sub>6</sub>.
  - Perfect icosahedral  $(I_h)$ , e.g.,  $C_{60}$ .
- Low symmetry:

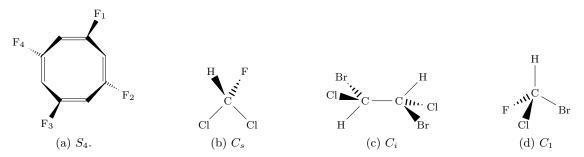


Figure I.2: Low symmetry point groups.

- Only an improper axis:  $S_n$ .
- Only a mirror plane:  $C_s$ .
- Only an inversion center:  $C_i$ .
- No symmetry:  $C_1$ .
- $C_n$  groups:
  - Only a  $C_n$  axis. Note that conformation is important.
- $C_{nh}$  groups have a  $C_n$  axis and a  $\sigma_h$  reflection plane (such as B(OH)<sub>3</sub>).
  - $H_2O_2$  has  $C_{2h}$  symmetry.
- All symmetry elements are listed in the top row of the corresponding characters table (Appendix C in Miessler et al. (2014)).
- $C_{nv}$  groups have a  $C_n$  axis and a  $\sigma_v$  reflection plane.
  - NH<sub>3</sub> has  $C_{3v}$  symmetry.
  - CO has  $C_{\infty v}$  symmetry since there are an infinite number of both  $C_n$  axes and  $\sigma_v$  mirror planes.
- $D_{nh}$  groups: A  $C_n$  axis, n perpendicular  $C_2$  axes, and a  $\sigma_h$  reflection plane.
  - $BH_3$  has  $D_{3h}$  symmetry.

- A square prism has  $D_{4h}$  symmetry.
- $CO_2$  has  $D_{\infty h}$  symmetry.
- $D_n$  groups: A  $C_n$  axis, n perpendicular  $C_2$  axes, and no mirror planes.
  - A 3-bladed propeller has  $D_3$  symmetry.
- $D_{nd}$  groups: A  $C_n$  axis, n perpendicular  $C_2$  axes, and a  $\sigma_d$ .
  - Ethane in the staggered conformation has  $D_{3d}$  symmetry.
- Local symmetry:
  - Sometimes, rigorous math analysis needs to be adjusted to physical reality.
  - If a cyclopentane ring is bonded through the center to  $Mn(CO)_3$ , this molecule has only  $C_s$  symmetry.
  - However, spectroscopically, there is fast rotation about the Mn–Cp bond. This means that the Mn(CO)<sub>3</sub> fragment exhibits pseudo- $C_{3v}$  symmetry while the C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub> ligand exhibits pseudo- $C_{5v}$  symmetry.
  - Often, the absolute symmetry of a molecule is very low, but the interactions are far away from the centers of interest, and do not perturb them significantly.
  - If we have platinum as a central atom bonded to two chlorines and two P(Et)<sub>3</sub> groups, this molecule technically has  $C_1$  symmetry due to the orientations of atoms within R groups (staggered), but IR spectroscopy is characteristic of highly symmetric species  $(D_{2h})$ .

#### I.3 Module 5: Group Theory 101

- **Group**: A set of elements together with an operation that combines any two of its elements to form a third element satisfying four conditions called the group axioms.
  - Closure: All binary products must be members of the group.
  - Associativity: Associative law of multiplication must hold.
  - **Identity**: A group must contain the identity operator.
  - Inverse: Every operator must have an inverse.
  - The integers with the addition operation form a group, for example.
  - History:

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- Early group theory was driven by the quest for solutions of polynomial equations of degree 5 and above.
- Early 1800s: Évariste Galois realized that the algebraic solution to a polynomial equation is related to the structure of a group of permutations associated with the roots off the polynomial, the Galois group of the polynomial.
  - Link to Galois video here.
- 1920s: Group theory was applied to physics and chemistry.
- 1931: It is often hard or even impossible to obtain a solution of the Schrödinger equation —
  however, a large part of qualitative results can be obtained by group theory. Almost all the rules
  of spectroscopy follow from the symmetry of a problem.
- We will use group theory for describing symmetry of molecules. We will use group theory to understand the bonding and spectroscopic features of molecules.

- For us, a group consists of a set of symmetry elements (and associated symmetry operations) that completely describes the symmetry of a molecule.
- Order (of a group): The total number of elements (i.e., symmetry operations) in the group. Also known as h.
- Rule 1: Closure.



Figure I.3: Symmetry elements for  $H_2O$ .

- $H_2O$  is of the  $C_{2v}$  point group (refer to Figure I.3).
  - Symmetry operations:  $E, C_2, \sigma_{v(xz)}, \text{ and } \sigma'_{v(yz)}.$

  - The above property (order does not matter) shows that  $C_{2v}$  is an **Abelian group**.
- NH<sub>3</sub> is of the  $C_{2v}$  point group.
  - Symmetry operations:  $E, C_3^+, C_3^-, \sigma_v, \sigma_v'$ , and  $\sigma_v''$ .
  - $\sigma_v'' \cdot C_3 = \sigma_v$ , but  $C_3 \cdot \sigma_v'' = C_3^- = C_3^2$ .
  - The above property (order does matter) shows that  $C_{3v}$  is a non-Abelian group.
- Rule 2: Associativity.
  - $H_2O$  is of the  $C_{2v}$  point group (refer to Figure I.3).

$$\begin{split} \sigma'_v C_2 \sigma_v(1,2) &= \sigma'_v C_2(2,1) & \sigma'_v(C_2 \sigma_v)(1,2) = \sigma'_v E(1,2) & (\sigma'_v C_2) \sigma_v(1,2) = \sigma_v \sigma_v(1,2) \\ &= \sigma'_v(1,2) &= \sigma_v(1,2) &= \sigma_v(2,1) \\ &= (1,2) &= (1,2) &= (1,2) \end{split}$$

- Rule 3: Identity.
- Rule 4: Inverse.
  - For a  $C_{2v}$  point group:

$$E \cdot E = E$$
  $C_2 \cdot C_2 = E$   $\sigma_v \cdot \sigma_v = E$   $\sigma_v' \cdot \sigma_v' = E$ 

• Group multiplication tables.

$C_{2h}$	$\boldsymbol{E}$	$C_2$	$\sigma_h$	$m{i}$
E	E	$C_2$	$\sigma_h$	i
$C_2$	$C_2$	E	i	$\sigma_h$
$\sigma_h$	$\sigma_h$	i	E	$C_2$
$m{i}$	i	$\sigma_h$	$C_2$	E

Table I.1: Group multiplication table for the  $C_{2h}$  point group.

- Table I.1 corresponds to the  $C_{2h}$  point group, which has  $E, C_2, \sigma_h$ , and i operations.
- Note that the operation in the top row is the one that's applied first, while the one in the left column will be applied second.
- Subgroup: Fractional parts of groups that are groups, too.

$C_{2v}$	E	$C_3$	$C_3^2$	$\sigma_v$	$\sigma_v'$	$\sigma_v^{\prime\prime}$
$E$ $C_3$ $C_3^2$	E	$C_3$	$C_3^2$	$\sigma_v$	$\sigma_v'$	$\sigma_v^{\prime\prime}$
$C_3$	$C_3$	$C_3^2$	E	$\sigma_v^{\prime\prime}$	$\sigma_v$	$\sigma'_v$
$C_3{}^2$	$C_3^2$	E	$C_3$	$\sigma_v'$	$\sigma_v^{\prime\prime}$	$\sigma_v$
$\sigma_v$	$\sigma_v$	$\sigma'_v$	$\sigma_v^{\prime\prime} \ \sigma_v^{\prime} \ \sigma_v$	E	$C_3$	$C_3^2$
$\sigma_v'$	$\sigma_v^{\prime\prime}$	$\sigma_v$	$\sigma_v'$	$C_3$	$C_3^2$	E
$\sigma_v^{\prime\prime}$	$\sigma'_v$	$\sigma_v^{\prime\prime}$	$\sigma_v$	$C_3^2$	E	$C_3$

Table I.2: Group multiplication table for the  $C_{2v}$  point group.

- If h = 6 (as in the  $C_{3v}$  group), subgroup order can be h = 3, 2, 1. Why only these?
- The order 1 and 3 charts are subgroups.
- The order 2 chart is not a subgroup because  $C_3^2$  is not an operation in the group (therefore, the "subgroup" is not closed).
- We use subgroups because they can make complex problems simpler.
  - For example, calculating the vibrational modes of  $CO_2$ .
  - As another example,  $D_{2h}$  is a subgroup of  $D_{\infty h}$ .

## I.4 Module 6: Representations

- Items of the same point group have the same vibration modes.
- Representation (of a group): Any collection of quantities (or symbols) which obey the multiplication tabble of a group. Also known as  $\Gamma$ .
- For our purposes, these quantities are the matrices that show how certain characteristic of a molecule behave under the symmetry operations of the group.
- Operations (on a point (x, y, z) in Cartesian coordinates):
  - E(x, y, z) = (x, y, z).
  - $\sigma_{xz}(x, y, z) = (x, -y, z).$
  - -i(x, y, z) = (-x, -y, -z).
  - $C_n$ : Convention is a counterclockwise rotation of the point by  $\theta = \frac{2\pi}{n}$  radians.
  - $S_n$ : Convention is a clockwise rotation of the point  $C_n$  followed by a  $\sigma$  through a plane perpendicular to C.

• Matrix forms of operations:

$$- \text{ Identity: } E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

– One example of a reflection (there are two more): 
$$\sigma_{xy} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

- Inversion: 
$$i = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

- Rotation: Counterclockwise is 
$$C_n(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and clockwise is  $C_n(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

- A derivation of this matrix can be found in the slides
- Improper rotation:  $S_n(\theta) = \sigma_h C_n(\theta)$ .

#### • Reducible representations:

- A representation of a symmetry operation of a group.
- Can be expressed in terms of a representation of lower dimension.
- Can be broken down into a simpler form.
- Characters can be further diagonalized.
- Are composed of the direct sum of irreducible representations.
- Infinite possibilities.

#### • Irreducible representations:

- A fundamental representation of a symmetry operation of a group.
- Cannot be expressed in terms of a representation of lower dimension.
- Cannot be broken down into a simpler form.
- Characters cannot be further diagonalized.
- Small finite number dictated by point group.
- Good example of reducible/irreducible representations?