CHM 673 Lecture 9: Molecular symmetry

Suggested reading:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Molecular_symmetry

http://www.huntresearchgroup.org.uk/teaching/year2_mos.html

Group theory in chemistry

Application of group theory in chemistry:

- predicting molecular properties (dipole moment, polarity, chirality)
- predicting allowed/forbidden electronic transitions
- predicting active modes in IR and Raman spectra
- construction and labelling of molecular orbitals
- ligand-field theory
- crystal symmetry of solids

Group theory in computations:

- as molecular Hamiltonian commutes with symmetry operators, eigenstates of the Hamiltonian will preserve symmetry of the molecule
- only symmetry-unique information (integrals etc) need to be computed -->
 calculations for symmetric molecules can be times faster
- symmetry can be used in performing geometry optimizations --> only symmetryallowed steps will be performed (effectively decreasing number of degrees of freedom)

Symmetry analysis

Symmetry operation: an action that leaves the molecule in a state indistinguishable from the starting state

Symmetry element: location of a symmetry operation (point, line, plane)

Operation leaves at least one point in the molecule unchanged

Symmetry operations of an object form a symmetry group.

The successive application of one or more symmetry operations of a molecule has an effect equivalent to that of some single symmetry operation of the molecule. Such groups are called point groups. They leave at least one point of a molecule unchanged.

Differently, symmetry of a crystal is described by space groups because symmetry operations include transitions in space.

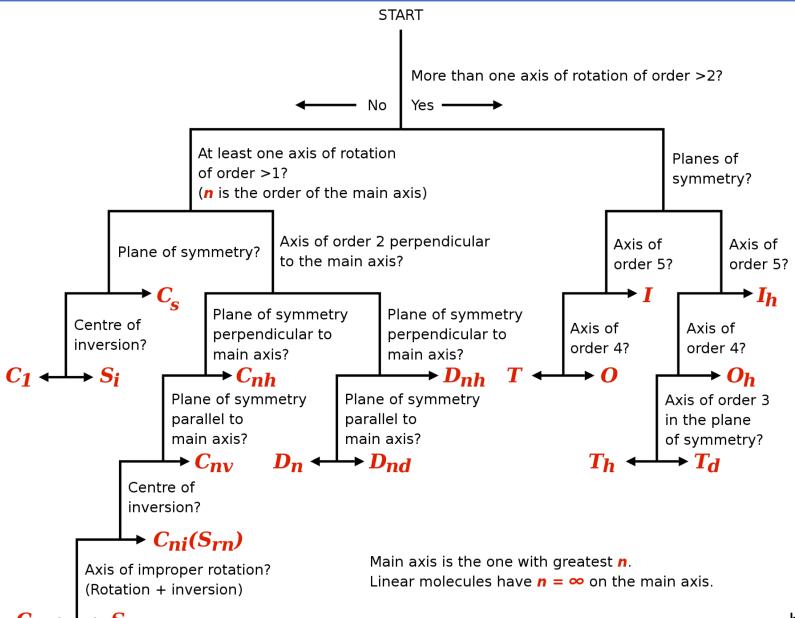
Symmetry operations

Symmetry element	Symmetry operation	Symbol
	Identity	E
n-fold symmetry axis	Rotation by $2\pi/n$	C_n
Mirror plane	Reflection	σ
Center of inversion	Inversion	i
n-fold axis of improper rotation	Rotation by $2\pi/n$ followed by reflection perpendicular to rotation axis	S _n

Common symmetry groups

Point group	Symmetry operations	Typical geometry	examples
C_1	E	No symmetry, chiral	
C_s	Ε, σ	mirror plane	ClOH, CH ₂ BrCl
C _i	E, i	Inversion center	meso-tartaric acid
$C_{\infty v}$	E, 2 C_{∞} , $\infty \sigma_v$	linear	HCl, N ₂ O
$D_{\infty h}$	$E,2C_{\infty},\infty\sigma_i,i,2S_{\infty},2C_i$	Linear with inversion center	CO ₂ , O ₂ , C ₂ H ₂
C _{2h}	E, C_2 , i , σ_h	Planar with inversion center, no vertical plane	Trans-1,2- dichloroethylene
C_{2v}	E, C_2 , σ_v , ${\sigma_v}'$	Angular, or see-saw, or T-shape	Water, CIF ₃
D _{3h}	E,2 C_3 , 3 C_2 , σ_h , 2 S_3 , 3 σ_v	trigonal planar or trigonal bipyramidal	BF ₃ , cyclopropane
D _{2d}	$E, 2S_4, C_2, 2C_2', 2\sigma_d$	90% twist	allene
T_d		tetrahedral	methane
O _h		Octahedral or cubic	SF ₆

Determining point group of a molecule



Irreducible representations (irrep)

Symmetry operations can be represented by matrices Left-multiplying any vector (representing a point in Cartesian space) by the matrix of a symmetry operation results in a new vector (i.e. a new location of the point)

Composition of symmetry operations = matrix multiplication Within a symmetry group, composition of two symmetry operations (a multiplication of two matrices) leads to another symmetry operation in the same group

$$egin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & -1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} imes egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & -1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \ egin{bmatrix} \sigma_v' \ \sigma_v' \ \end{array}$$

Example for C_{2v} group

Typically, irreducible representations (or irreps) of the group are used.
Other representations can be obtained as linear combinations of irreps.

Character tables

Character table summarizes information on symmetry operations of the group and on its irreducible representations

Character tables are square, as the numbers of irreducible representations is equal to the number of classes of symmetry operations

Conventions for irreducible representation labels:

A: rotation around the principal axis is symmetrical

B: rotation around the principal axis is asymmetrical

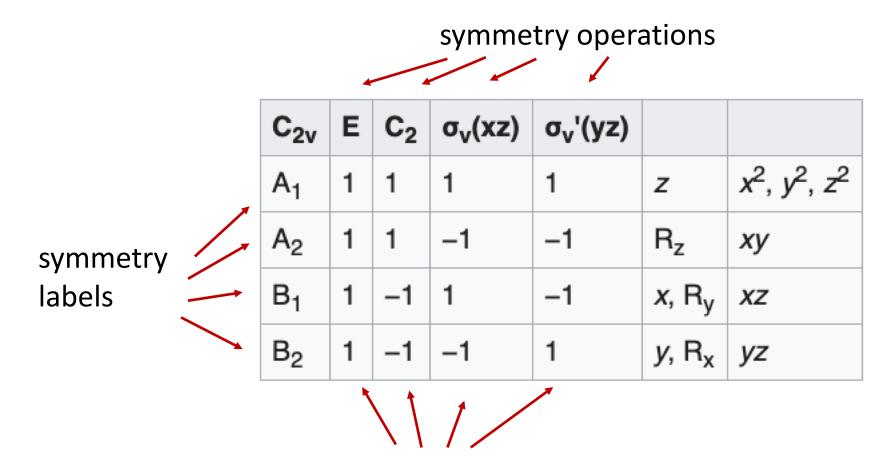
E: doubly degenerate representation

T: triply degenerate representation

Subscripts g (gerade) and u (ungerade): designate no change in sign (g) and a change in sign (u) for the groups with inversion center

 Σ , Π , Δ (aka notations of the angular momentum) for point groups $C_{\infty v}$ and $D_{\infty h}$

Character tables



Characters show how irrep transforms when a symmetry operation is applied -1 (antisymmetric): vector changes sign (direction), orbital changes phase 1 (symmetric): no change in vector or orbital

Character tables

C _{2v}	Ε	C ₂	σ _v (xz)	σ _v '(yz)		
A ₁	1	1	1	1	z	x^2 , y^2 , z^2
A ₂	1	1	-1	-1	R _z	xy
B ₁	1	-1	1	-1	x, R _y	XZ
B ₂	1	-1	-1	1	y, R _x	yz
					1	1

irreducible representation

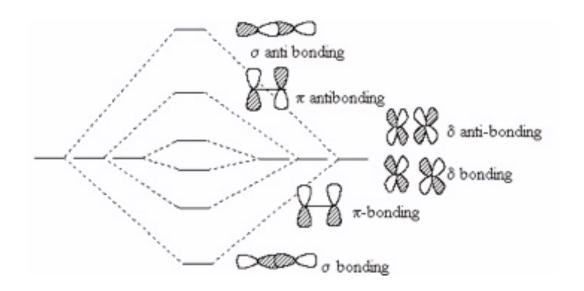
show how Cartesian vectors (x,y,z), rotations (Rx, Ry, Rz) and quadratic functions (components of the second-order tensors, xy, xz, yz, x2, y2, z2) transform

applicable for p and d orbitals, and IR and Raman intensities

Molecular orbitals: definitions

σ orbitals: no node along the bond \rightarrow no sign change with rotation around the bond π orbitals: one node along the bond \rightarrow sign change with C_2 rotation around the bond δ orbitals: two nodes along the bond \rightarrow sign change with C_4 rotation around the bond

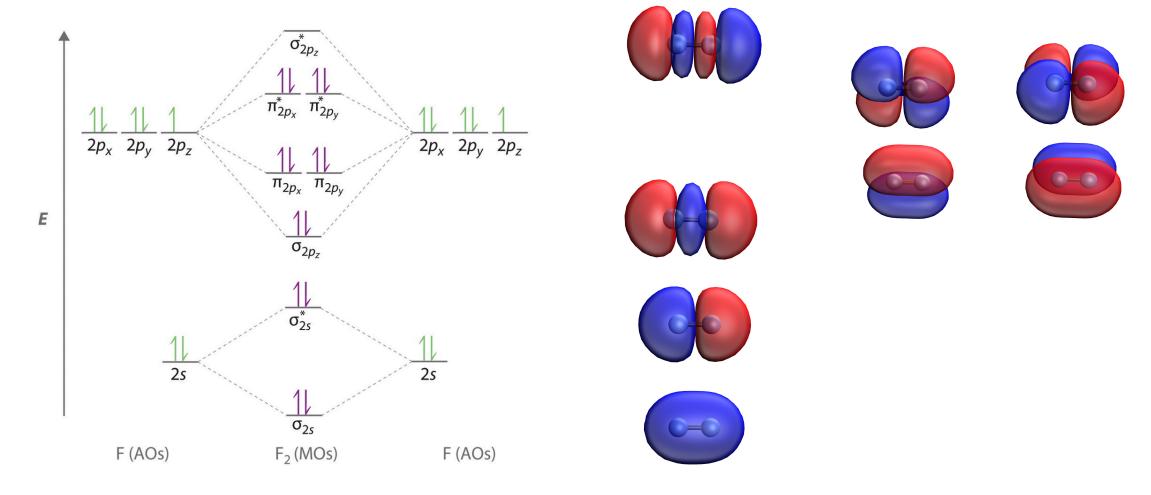
Orbitals with a node perpendicular to the bond are antibonding



Molecular orbitals and symmetry

Molecular (or canonical) orbitals are combinations of atomic orbitals with imposed symmetry constraints

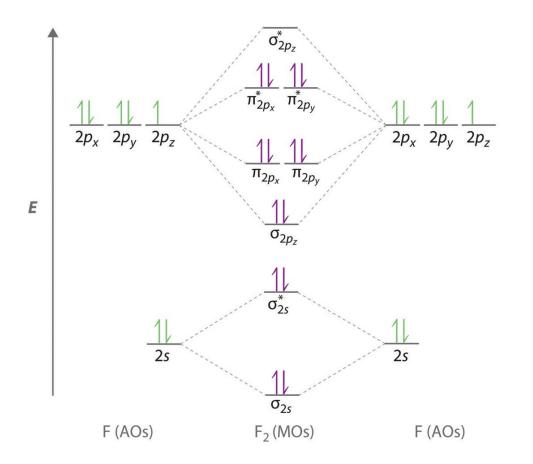
Only orbitals of the same irreps can interact (mix)



Molecular orbitals: diatomic molecules

Molecular (or canonical) orbitals are combinations of atomic orbitals with imposed symmetry constraints

Only orbitals of the same irreps can interact (mix)

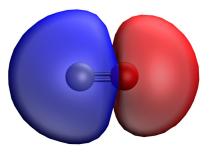


- Orbitals with larger number of nodes are higher in energy
- Sigma orbitals typically have higher overlap and split more than pi orbitals, resulting in:
 - bonding sigma orbitals are more bonding (lower in energy) than corresponding pi orbitals
 - antibonding sigma orbitals are typically more antibonding than antibonding pi orbitals

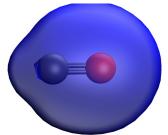
Molecular orbitals: diatomic molecules

Atomic orbitals of more electronegative atom are lower in energy

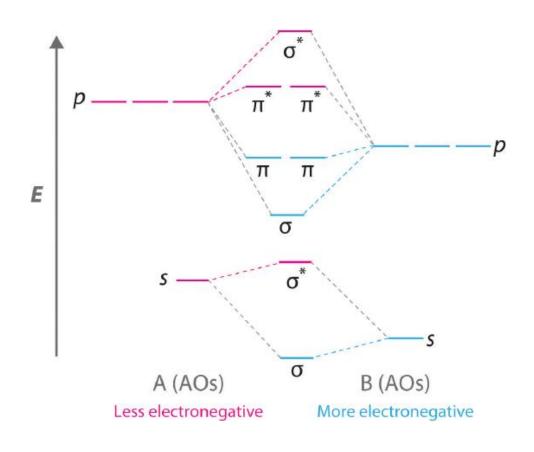
Molecular orbital that are energetically closer to a corresponding atomic orbital inherits more of its shape and properties, e.g., in CO molecule:



σ* antibonding:located mainly on C



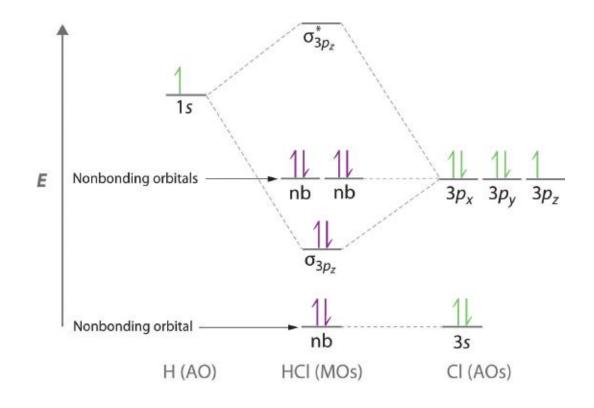
σ bonding: located mainly on O



Molecular orbitals in a heterogeneous diatomic molecule

Molecular orbitals: diatomic molecules

Non-bonding orbitals do not delocalize between two centers, do not change energy (compared to corresponding orbitals) and do not contribute to bonding.



Molecular orbitals in a heterogeneous diatomic molecule

Molecular orbitals: polyatomic molecules

C _{2v}	Ε	C ₂	σ _v (xz)	σ _v '(yz)	
A ₁	1	1	1	1	z
A ₂	1	1	-1	-1	R _z
B ₁	1	-1	1	-1	x, R _y
B ₂	1	-1	-1	1	y, R _x
0					
1 s					
2 s					
2p _x					

 $2p_y$

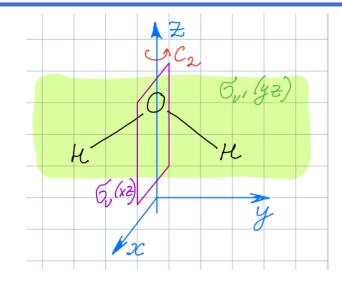
 $2p_{z}$

2H

 $1s_A + 1s_B$

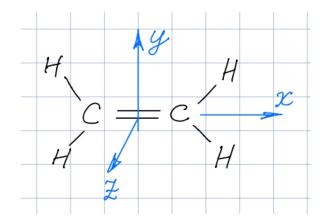
1s_A - 1s_B

Water H₂O C_{2v} symmetry



Molecular orbitals. Example: C₂H₄

	D _{2h}	E	C ₂ (z)	C ₂ (y)	C ₂ (x)	i	σ (xy)	σ (xz)	σ (yz)	linear functions, rotations	quadratic functions
	Ag	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-	x^2, y^2, z^2
	B _{1g}	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-1	R _z	xy
	B _{2g}	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	R _y	xz
	B _{3g}	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	R _x	yz
	A _u	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-	-
	B _{1u}	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	+1	+1	z	-
	B _{2u}	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1	+1	у	-
	B _{3u}	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	x	-
4S ((H)	4	0	0	0	0	4	0	0		
2S ((C)										
2pz	(C)										
2рх	(C)										
2py	(C)					_					



- 1. determine "stationary" atoms (or rather stationary orbitals) atoms/orbitals not moved by the symmetry operation
- 2. Decompose stationary orbitals into unique linear combinations of irreps, e.g. $(4S(H) \times A_g)/\#$ oper = (4+4)/8 = 1