



Part III Symmetry and Bonding

Chapter 7 Normal Modes (简正模)

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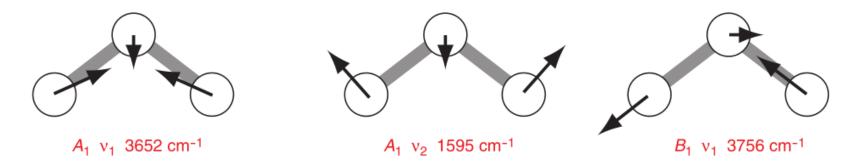
http://pcossgroup.xmu.edu.cn/old/users/xlu/group/courses/theochem/



7. Normal modes



- This section is devoted to using symmetry considerations to help understand the vibrations of molecules and spectra that arise due to transitions between the associated energy levels.
- The vibrations of a molecule: a finite number of special vibrations called normal modes. e.g., three normal modes of $\mathbf{H_2O}$ and their fundamental transitions



• Each normal mode has a set of energy levels, and the transitions between these levels give rise to infra-red spectra of the type.



7. Normal modes



Here we will show ideas about

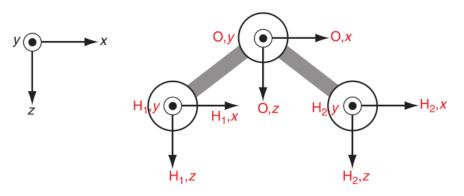
- i) how to classify normal modes according to symmetry,
- ii) how to predict which modes give rise to *infra-red spectra* and *vibrational Raman scattering*.
- We will use the symmetry arguments to explain the occurrence of *more* complex features of infra-red spectra, such as *overtones* and *combination bands*.



7.1 Normal mode analysis



- Vibrations involve the physical displacement of atoms from their equilibrium positions.
- *Example*, $H_2O(C_{2\nu})$, basis (x, y) and z displacement vectors on each atom).



Basis (9 vectors) → a 9-D rep.!

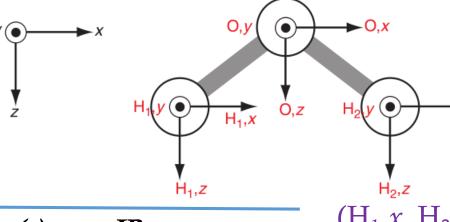
C_{2v}	E	C_2^z	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}			
A_1	1	1	1	1	z		$x^2; y^2; z^2$
A_2	1	1	-1	-1		R_z	xy
B_1	1	-1	1	-1	x	$R_{\rm y}$	xz
B_2	1	-1	-1	1	у	R_{x}	yz

- To simplify the problem, we first separate the displacement vectors into groups which are *mapped onto one another* by the operations of the point group.
- $O, x \sim ?$, $O, y \sim ?$, $O, z \sim ?$
- Other groups of vectors: (H_1, x, H_2, x) ; (H_1, z, H_2, z) ; (H_1, y, H_2, y)



7.1 Normal mode analysis





C_{2v}	E	C_2^z	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}			
A_1	1	1	1	1 -1 -1 1	z		$x^2; y^2; z^2$ xy xz
A_1 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	у	R_x	yz

Vector(s)	IR	
O,x	B_1 (from the table)	
O,y	B_2	
O,z	A_1	
(H_1, x, H_2, x)	$A_1 \oplus B_1$	
(H_1,z, H_2,z)	$A_1 \oplus B_1$	
(H_1, y, H_2, y)	$A_2 \oplus B_2$	

(H_1, x, H_2, x)	1 1	4	U	4	U	$-A_1 \cup B_1$
(H_1, y, H_2, y)	$arGamma_2$	2	0	<i>-2</i>	0	$=A_2 \oplus B_2$

C→Full set (3N)	$3A_1 \oplus 3B_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus 2B_2$
Translations (x,y,z)	$\boldsymbol{B_1}, \boldsymbol{B_2}, \boldsymbol{A_1}$ (from the table)
Rotations (R_x, R_y, R_z)	$\boldsymbol{B_2}, \boldsymbol{B_1}, \boldsymbol{A_2}$ (from the table)
Vibrations (3N-6)	$2A_1 \oplus B_1$

Total $3A_1 \oplus 3B_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus 2B_2$

• *3N-6* normal modes for non-linear molecules.



7.1.1 Form of the normal modes

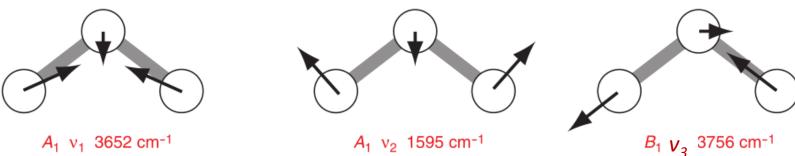




- *In a normal mode, the centre of mass has to remain fixed*. Accordingly, the atoms have to move in ways which balance one another out and in addition the amount by which each atom moves will be affected by its mass. (lower mass → larger displacement)
- However, it is rather *tedious* to *derive the form of the normal modes* in a basis of (x,y,z) displacements even for simple molecules!
- Alternatively, use *internal displacements* to derive the forms of normal modes—*two rules*
 - (i) there is 1 stretching vibration per bond
 - (ii) we must treat symmetry-related atoms together
- H₂O has **two** *stretching* modes and **one** *angle bending* mode.

Internal coordinates(内坐标):

bond lengths, bond angles, dihedral angles





7.1.1 Form of the normal modes



Using internal displacements (coordinates)!

Example: H₂O

• First use the two O-H bond stretches as a basis:

The
$$A_1$$
 stretching (z-like): $(\vec{r}_1 + \vec{r}_2)$

~Symmetric (in-phase) stretching

The B_1 stretching (x-like): $(-\vec{r}_1 + \vec{r}_2)$

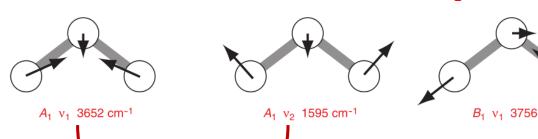
~anti-symmetric (out-of-phase) stretching

• use the H-O-H angle α bending as a basis.

The angle bending transforms as A_1 IR.

The A_1 bending & symmetric stretching mix!

		\vec{r}_1		Z	112	r_2
C_{2v}	E	C_2^z	σ^{xz}	σ^{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
$\Gamma^{(2r)}$	2	0	2	0	$=A_1$	$\mathcal{C}\mathcal{B}_1$
$\Gamma^{(\alpha)}$	1	1	1	1	$=A_{j}$	1



Neither purely bending nor stretching.

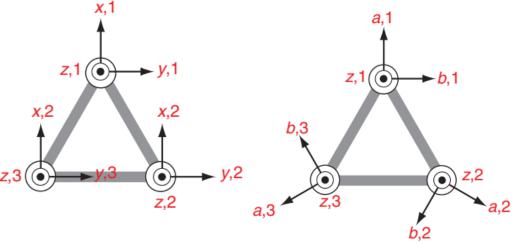


7.1.2 Normal modes of H_3^+



• Example: intersteller molecule H_3^+ (point group D_{3h}).

1
2
•
) <u> y,2</u>
<i>a</i> ,3
,



• In a general axis system: (z, 1, 2, 2, 2, 3), $(x, 1, x, 2, x, 3, y, 1, y, 2, y, 3) \rightarrow a 6-D rep.!$

• In a local axis system: (z,1,2,2,3), (a,1,a,2,a,3), and $(b,1,b,2,b,3) \rightarrow all 3-D$ reps.!

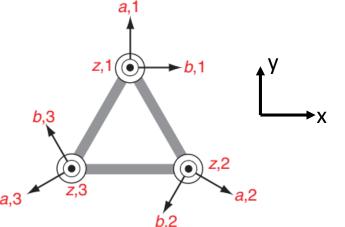
Radial displacements

Tangential displacements



7.1.2 Normal modes of H_3^+





D_{3h}	Е	$2C_3$	$3C_2$	σ_h	2S ₃	$3\sigma_v$			
A_1'	1	1	1	1	1	1			$x^2 + y^2; z^2$
$A_2^{'}$	1	1	-1	1	1	-1		R_z	
$A_2' \ E'$	2	-1	0	2	-1	0	(x,y)		$(x^2 - y^2, 2xy)$
$A_1^{\prime\prime}$	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1			
$A_2^{\prime\prime}$	1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	z		
$E^{\tilde{i}'}$	2	-1	0	-2	1	0		(R_x, R_y)	(xz, yz)

Q: How does its three normal modes look like?

1st approx.:

 $A_1': a_1+a_2+a_3$

 E'_{v} $2a_{1}-a_{2}-a_{3}$

 E'_x a_2 - a_3

$$(z, 1 z, 2 z, 3)$$
 (3 0 -1 -3 0 1) $A_2'' \oplus E''$

$$(a, 1 \ a, 2 \ a, 3)$$
 (3 0 1 3 0 1) $(a_1) \oplus E$

$$(b, 1 \ b, 2 \ b, 3)$$
 (3 0 -1 3 0 -1) $A_2' \oplus E'$

Total
$$A_1' \oplus A_2' \oplus 2E' \oplus A_2'' \oplus E''$$

-translations (x,y,z)
$$E' \oplus A_2''$$

-rotations
$$(R_x, R_y, R_z)$$
 $E'' \oplus A_2'$

Vibrations

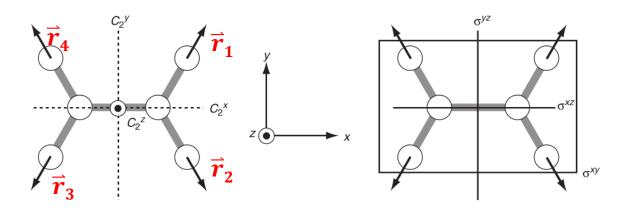
$$A_{1}) \oplus E'$$



7.1.3 X–H stretching analysis



- On account of the low mass of the hydrogen atom, it is often the case that particular normal modes are *dominated* by *X–H stretching motions*.
- Therefore it is practically useful to make a symmetry analysis *using a basis consisting of only X–H stretches*, but not a general set of (x,y,z) displacements on each atom.
- Of course, such an approach will only reveal the *symmetries of those normal modes* involving the X–H stretches.
- Example: the C-H stretches of ethene (point group D_{2h}).

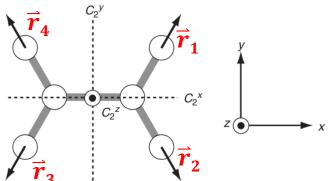


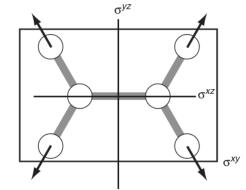


7.1.3 X–H stretching analysis

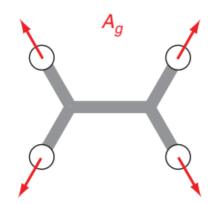


D_{2h}	E	C_2^z	C_2^y	C_2^x	i	σ^{xy}	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}		
A_g	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		$x^2; y^2; z^2$
B_{1g}°	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	R_z	xy
B_{2g}	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1	$R_{\rm y}$	XZ
B_{3g}	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	R_x	yz
A_u	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1		
B_{1u}	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	z	
B_{2u}	1	-1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	у	
B_{3u}	1	- 1	-1	1	-1	1	1	-1	X	
$\overline{\Gamma}$	4	0	0	0	0	4	0	0		



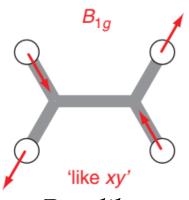


$$\rightarrow \Gamma = A_g \oplus B_{1g} \oplus B_{2u} \oplus B_{3u}$$



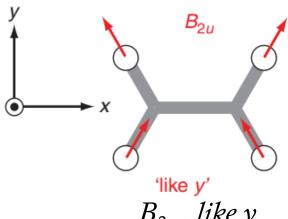
 A_{φ} , Totally symmetric

$$(\vec{r}_1 + \vec{r}_2 + \vec{r}_3 + \vec{r}_4)$$



 B_{lg} , like xy

$$(\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2 + \vec{r}_3 - \vec{r}_4)$$



 B_{2u} , like y

$$(\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_3 + \vec{r}_4)$$



 B_{3u} , like x

$$(\vec{r}_1 + \vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_3 - \vec{r}_4)$$





- These pictures arising from combination of internal displacements are *only approximations* to the real normal modes. (In reality, the carbon atoms would also need to move by small amounts in order to ensure that the centre of mass remain fixed.)
- In the next two sections, we will see how *a symmetry analysis* helps us to determine whether or not a particular normal mode will give rise to absorptions in the infra-red or vibrational Raman scattering (i.e. whether or not a mode is '*infra-red* or *Raman active*').
- We will start out by looking at *the symmetry of the harmonic oscillator wavefunctions*, which are a first approximation to the vibrational wavefunctions of the molecule, and then move on to discuss the selection rules for transitions between them.



前一节回顾: 简正(振动)模的对称性分析及其形式



- ◆ 多原子分子的振动指的是分子中原子间周期性运动(不包括分子整体的平动和转动),振动过程中存在原子偏离平衡位置的物理位移。通常由一定数量的简正振动(模)来描述,直线形分子有3N-6个。
- ◆每个简正振动均有一系列能级,对称性许可时,其振动能级的跃迁可在红外光谱(或振动拉曼散射光谱)中产生特征峰(信号);
- ◆简正(振动)模的对称性分析----基于所使用的基,有两类方法:
- i) 基于每个原子偏离平衡位置的位移矢量,可以是直角坐标系下的(x,y,z),也可以是便于对称性分类处理而设置的局域坐标系下的(a,b,c); (缺点:不便于想象振动模式)
 - ii) 基于分子的内(坐标)位移 ,甚至是部分内坐标如X-H键伸缩位移。 (缺点:近似图像)
- ◆简正振动(模)对称性分析时须注意两个一致性: 1) 自由度数量一致性; 2) 对称性一致性



7.2 Symmetry of the vibrational wavefunctions

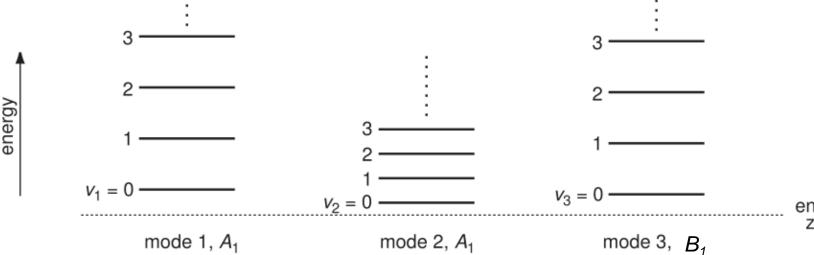


• If we assume that the vibrations are harmonic, each normal mode has associated with a set of energy levels: (ω_i is the *vibrational frequency* of the *i*th normal mode).

$$\boldsymbol{E}_{\boldsymbol{v}_i} = \left(\boldsymbol{v}_i + \frac{1}{2}\right)\hbar\boldsymbol{\omega}_i \qquad \boldsymbol{v}_i = \boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{1}, \boldsymbol{2} \dots$$

• The normal modes can be excited independently of one another so, for example, we can have the first normal mode in the v_1 = 1 level, the second in the ground state (v_2 =0), the third in the v_3 = 3 level and so on.

The set of energy levels available for H_2O .





7.2 Symmetry of the vibrational wavefunctions



• For a diatomic, the harmonic oscillator wavefunctions depend only on the *displacement x*, where $x=(r-r_e)$.

In terms of the scaled coordinate q = x $(km/\hbar^2)^{1/4}$, the form of the first few wavefunctions and their energies are:

Hermite polynomials

ν	$\psi_{\nu} = H_{\nu}(q) \exp(-q^2/2)$	E_{ν}
0	$\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}q^2\right)$	$\frac{1}{2}$
1	$2q \exp(-\frac{1}{2}q^2)$	$\frac{3}{2}$
2	$(4q^2 - 2) \exp(-\frac{1}{2}q^2)$	$\frac{5}{2}$
3	$(8q^3 - 12q) \exp(-\frac{1}{2}q^2)$	$\frac{7}{2}$

Normal coordinate Q_i in the place of q for complex molecules!

- In more complex molecules, a normal mode involves several atoms changing their positions, but we can define a single normal coordinate Q_i to describe the motion (of *i*th normal mode).
- Key point: $\Gamma^{(Q_i)} = \Gamma^{(i)}$



7.2.1 Symmetry of the ground state vibrational wavefunction



• For a non-degenerate normal mode, its ground-state wavefunction is $\psi_0 = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}Q_i^2\right)$.

$$\widehat{R}Q_i = +/-Q_i$$
 (effect of symmetry operation on Q_i)

$$\rightarrow \widehat{R}_{Q_i}^2 = (+1) Q_i^2$$

i.e. Q_i^2 transforms as the totally symmetric IR, so does $\psi_0 = exp(-\frac{1}{2}Q_i^2)$.

- → The ground state wavefunction always transforms as the totally symmetric IR.
- For degenerate normal modes, *the conclusion remains the same* and the statement above therefore applies to all normal modes.



7.2.2 Symmetry of excited states: non-degenerate normal modes



State Wavefunction

$$v_i = 0$$
 $\psi_0 = exp(-\frac{1}{2}Q_i^2)$

Ttot. sym.

The first excited state transforms as the same **IR** as the normal mode.

$$v_i = 1$$
 $\psi_1 = Q_i \exp(-\frac{1}{2}Q_i^2)$

$$\Gamma^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma^{tot. sym.} = \Gamma^{(i)}$$

$$v_i = 2$$
 $\psi_2 = (4Q_i^2 - 2) \exp(-\frac{1}{2}Q_i^2)$

$$\Gamma^{tot. \ sym.} \otimes \Gamma^{tot. \ sym.} = \Gamma^{tot. \ sym.}$$

$$v_i = 3$$
 $\psi_3 = (8Q_i^3 - 12Q_i) \exp(-\frac{1}{2}Q_i^2)$ $\Gamma^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma^{tot. sym.} = \Gamma^{(i)}$

Key point: $\Gamma^{(Qi)} = \Gamma^{(i)}$

For *non-degenerate normal modes*, vibrational wavefunctions with v = 0, 2, 4, ... (even v) transform as *the totally symmetric IR*, and those with *odd v have the same IR* as does the normal mode.

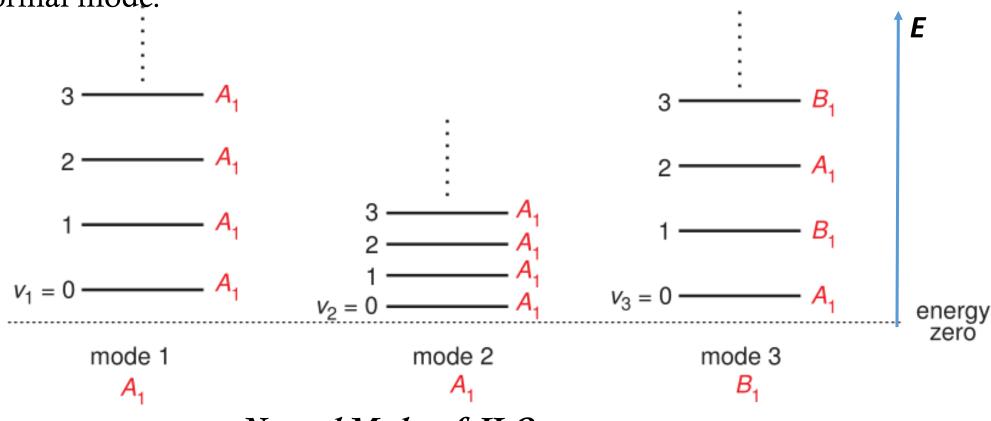


7.2.2 Symmetry of excited states: non-degenerate normal modes



For non-degenerate normal modes, vibrational wavefunctions with $v = 0, 2, 4, \dots$

(even v) transform as the totally symmetric IR, and those with odd v have the same IR as does the normal mode.



Normal Modes of H₂O



Symmetry of excited states: degenerate normal modes



For degenerate normal modes,

- As for non-degenerate modes, the ground state (v = 0) transforms as the totally symmetric IR, and the first excited state (v = 1) transforms as the same IR as the normal mode.
- The symmetry properties of higher excited states follow a more complex pattern which is beyond the scope of this course but is considered in detail *in Perturbation Theory*.



7.2.3 Overall symmetry of the vibrational wavefunction



• The symmetry of *the overall vibrational wavefunction* for a molecule is given by the product

$$\Gamma_{tot} = \Gamma_{v_1}^{(1)} \otimes \Gamma_{v_2}^{(2)} \otimes \cdots$$

 $\Gamma_{v_1}^{(1)}$ ~ the *IR* of the wavefunction for the 1st normal mode with quantum number v_1 ;

 $\Gamma_{v_2}^{(2)}$ ~ the *IR* of the wavefunction for the 2nd normal mode with quantum number v_2

. . .

- In H₂O, suppose that for the three normal modes $v_1=0$, $v_2=1$ and $v_3=1$, the *IR*s for each of these wavefunctions are A_1 , A_1 and B_1 , respectively.
 - \rightarrow The IR of the overall vibrational wavefunction is therefore $A_1 \otimes A_1 \otimes B_1 = B_1$.



7.2.3 Overall symmetry of the vibrational wavefunction



- For a molecule in which none of the vibrational modes are excited (all the v_i are zero), the overall vibrational wavefunction transforms as *the totally symmetric IR*.
- Also, if just one normal mode is excited to the v = 1 state, and all of the other normal modes have v = 0, the overall vibrational wavefunction has *the same IR* as the normal mode which is excited.



7.3 Using symmetry to determine which transitions are allowed



- The wavefunctions for a normal mode are the same as those for a harmonic oscillator (but replacing the displacement x by the normal coordinate Q_i). The usual selection rules apply. That is, for a transition to be allowed
 - (1) The dipole must change as the normal coordinate changes about equilibrium.
 - $(2) \Delta v_i = \pm 1.$
- The (2) implies that the quantum number of only one mode is allowed to change by ± 1 .
- Due to anharmonicity, transitions with *higher values of* Δv are weakly allowed (overtones), as are transitions in which more than one mode changes quantum number (combination lines).
- A symmetry analysis gives us a systematic way of determining which particular transitions associated with particular normal modes are going to give rise to absorptions in the infra-red or vibrational Raman scattering.



7.3.1 Transitions between the energy levels of a single normal mode



- Since all of the ground states transform as *the totally symmetric IR*, the symmetry of the overall vibrational wavefunction is just determined by *that of the one normal mode* which is being excited.
- The intensity I of a transition between two vibrational levels, $v_i \rightarrow v_i'$, is proportional to the square of *the transition moment* $R_{v_iv_i'}$ between those levels, i.e., $I_{v_iv_i'} \propto R_{v_iv_i'}^2$
- This transition moment between states v_i and v'_i of the ith normal mode is given by

$$R_{v_iv_i'} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi_{v_i'} \widehat{\mu} \psi_{v_i} \, dQ_i$$

 $\hat{\mu}$ is the *dipole moment operator* which just depends on the coordinates x, y and z, since it simply describes the distribution of charge in space.



7.3.1 Transitions between the energy levels of a single normal mode



• The IR of the integrand can be found by first determining the IRs of ψ_{v_i} , $\widehat{\mu}$ and ψ_{v_i}

and then taking the direct product,

function/operator
$$\psi_{\nu_i'}$$
 $\hat{\mu}$ ψ_{ν_i}

$$\Gamma_{\nu_i'}^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma_{\mu} \otimes \Gamma_{\nu_i}^{(i)} =$$
irreducible representation $\Gamma_{\nu_i'}^{(i)} \Gamma_{\mu} \Gamma_{\nu_i}^{(i)}$

- The dipole moment operator $\hat{\mu}$ ~ a function of x, y and z,
- $\rightarrow \Gamma_{\mu}$: either the IR of x, or of y, or of z, all three possibilities should be considered.



The fundamental transition



• The fundamental transition $(v=0 \rightarrow v'=1)$ of ith normal mode.

$$v = 0$$
 state $(\Gamma_{v=0}^{(i)} = \Gamma^{tot.sym.}) \rightarrow v = 1$ state $(\Gamma_{v'=1}^{(i)} = \Gamma_{nm}^{(i)})$

The triple direct product for the transition moment is:

$$\Gamma_{v'=1}^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma_{\mu} \otimes \Gamma_{v=0}^{(i)} = \Gamma_{nm}^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma_{\mu} \otimes \Gamma^{tot.sym.}$$

$$= \Gamma_{nm}^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma_{\mu}$$

The *IR* of the *i*th normal mode.

The fundamental transition is allowed in the infra-red when the IR of the normal mode is the same as that of x, y or z.

• A normal mode whose fundamental transition is allowed in the infra-red is said to be *infra-red active*.



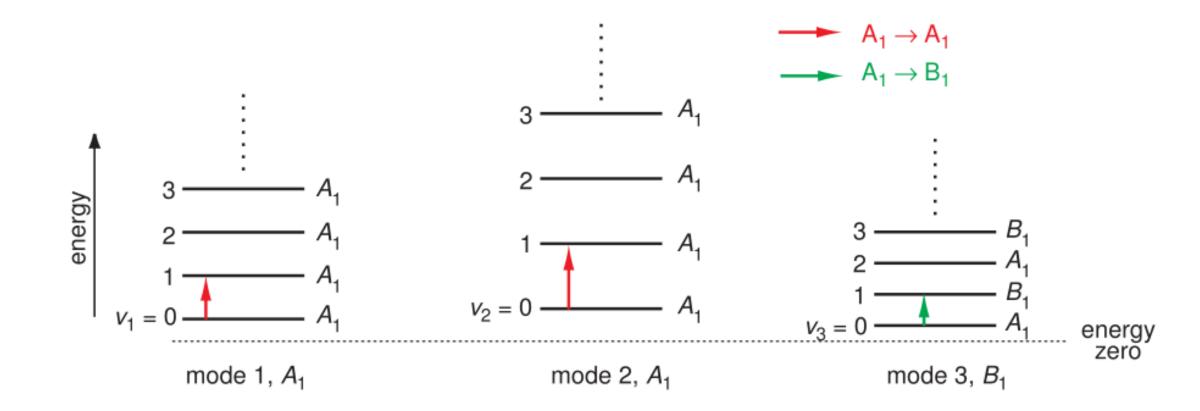
The fundamental transition

C_{2v}	Е	C_2^z	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}			
A_1	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	у	R_x	yz



Example: H₂O

- The fundamentals of the A_1 normal modes are allowed since z transforms like A_1 ;
- The fundamental of the B_1 normal mode is allowed since x transforms like B_1 .





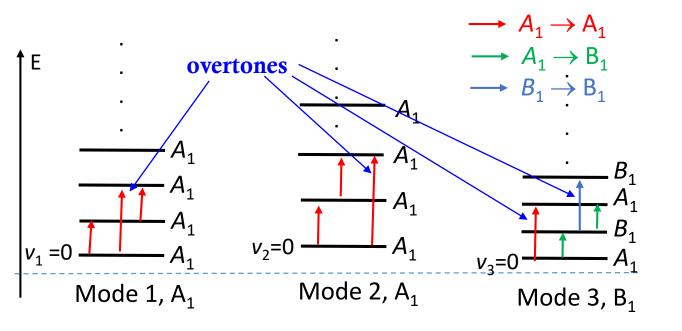
Other symmetry allowed transitions within the same normal mode



• For *transitions other than the fundamental*, we would, in principle, need to work out the triple direct product in each case.

Example: H₂O,

- i) A_1 modes: all transitions are due to $A_1 \rightarrow A_1$ and symmetry-allowed.
- ii) B_1 mode: allowed transitions are $A_1 \rightarrow A_1$, $A_1 \rightarrow B_1$, $B_1 \rightarrow A_1$, and $B_1 \rightarrow B_1$.



For a $B_1 \rightarrow B_1$ transition, the triple product is

$$B_1 \otimes \Gamma_u \otimes B_1 = A_1$$

Thus it is *IR-active*.



A note of caution



- *The symmetry argument* is powerful:
 - I. All it does is to predict whether or not a transition is allowed.
 - II. It does not predict how strong a transition will be in the spectrum.
 - III. In *harmonic oscillator* model, the selection rule is $\Delta v = \pm 1$.
- For a polyatomic molecule, the only allowed transitions are those in which the quantum number for a particular normal mode changes by one.
- Furthermore, a transition will only have significant intensity if the lower level is appreciably occupied. In practice, for small molecules, easily observable transitions will come from the ground vibration states, i.e., the symmetry allowed fundamental transitions are visible!
- \succ **H**₂**O**: The fundamentals of the A_1 , B_1 normal modes are observable.



A note of caution: anharmonicity & overtones



- However, the vibrations of real molecules are *not harmonic* and so the $\Delta v = \pm 1$ rule does not always apply strictly.
- *Anharmonicity*-induced visible transitions with $|\Delta v| > 1$:
 - i) symmetry allowed!
 - ii) transition from a significantly populated lower level.
- For example, in H_2O the $0 \rightarrow 2$ transitions in each normal mode satisfy these criteria (they are all $A_1 \rightarrow A_1$), and these *first overtone bands* are often seen.



7.3.2 Raman scattering

• For *Raman scattering*, the *transition moment* depends on the polarizability operator $\hat{\alpha}$

$$R_{v_i v_i'} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi_{v_i'} \widehat{\alpha} \psi_{v_i} dQ_i$$
with $\widehat{\alpha} \propto pq (p, q \sim x, y, z)$

function/operator	$\psi_{ u_i'}$	\hat{lpha}	$\psi_{ u_i}$
irreducible representation	$\Gamma^{(i)}_{ u'_i}$	Γ_{lpha}	$\Gamma^{(i)}_{ u_i}$

The IR of the integrand is thus given by the triple product, $\Gamma_{v_i'}^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma_{\alpha} \otimes \Gamma_{v_i}^{(i)}$

- \rightarrow Vibrational Raman scattering occurs when this direct product contains the totally symmetric IR.
 - For the *fundamental transition* of *i*th normal mode, the triple product is

$$\Gamma_{nm}^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma_{\alpha} \otimes \Gamma^{Tot.sym} = \Gamma^{Tot.sym} \text{ if } \Gamma_{nm}^{(i)} = \Gamma_{\alpha} \quad (::\Gamma_{v=1}^{(i)} = \Gamma_{nm}^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma_{v=0}^{(i)} = \Gamma^{Tot.sym})$$

The fundamental transition will be Raman allowed when the symmetry of the normal mode matches that of pq. (p, $q \sim x$, y or z)



7.3.2 Raman Scattering

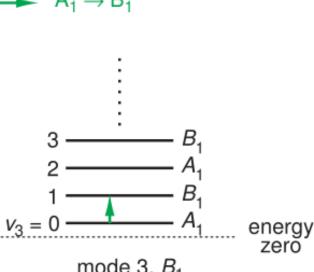


Example: $H_2O(\mathbb{C}_{2v})$, three normal modes.

C_{2v}	E	C_2^z	σ^{xz}	σ^{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 x	R_{y}	xz
B_2	1	-1	-1	1	y	R_x	yz
	l .				<u> </u>		

 $V_2 = 0$

- Normal modes 1&2: *A*₁ *IR*,
- Normal mode 3: $B_1 IR$,
- All three modes Raman active!



mode 1, A_1 mode 2, A_1 mode 3, B_1



7.3.3 Features and coincidences



- If we concentrate on just the fundamental transitions (which are likely to be the strongest), each normal mode which is *infra-red active* will give rise to a band or 'feature' in the *infra-red* spectrum.
- Similarly, each normal mode which is *Raman active* will *give rise to a feature* in the *Raman scattering* spectrum.

e.g, H₂O:

three normal modes are both infra-red and Raman active,

→ three features in both IR and Raman scattering spectrum



》7.3.3 Features (特征峰) and coincidences



• Three normal modes of H_3^+

A'₁ Raman active E' IR active Raman active

→ Raman spectrum ~ two features
infra-red spectrum ~ one feature

• *Coincidence*: The same normal mode is active in both the infra-red and Raman, exhibiting a feature of the same frequency.

H₂O: Three coincidences

 H_3^+ : One coincidence (from the E' mode).



7.3.4 Combination lines



- A *combination line* is a transition in which the quantum numbers associated with two or more normal modes change.
- $(v_1, v_2, v_3...)$: a notation gathering the vibrational quantum number for each normal mode describes the overall vibrational state of a molecule.
- The symmetry of the overall state can be found by taking the direct product of the *IR*s of the individual vibrational wavefunctions:

$$\Gamma_{v_1}^{(1)} \otimes \Gamma_{v_2}^{(2)} \otimes \Gamma_{v_3}^{(3)} \otimes \cdots$$

- For a vibrational state (1,0,1) in H_2O , the overall symmetry is $A_1 \otimes A_1 \otimes B_1 = B_1$.
- Q: Is the double-excitation transition, $(0,0,0) \rightarrow (1,0,1)$, in H₂O symmetry-allowed? The overall symmetry of the ground state (0,0,0) is $A_1 \otimes A_1 \otimes A_1 = A_1$.
 - We have shown that $A_1 \rightarrow B_1$ transition is allowed.



7.3.5 Rule of mutual exclusion



Molecules having a centre of symmetry (i) have two distinct classes of IRs:

IRs labelled with a subscript g

~symmetric with respect to *i*

~anti-symmetric with respect to i

IRs labelled with a subscript u

Functions pq $(p,q \sim x,y,z)$ $\hat{\iota}(pq) = (+1)pq \rightarrow g\text{-}class IR$ Functions x, y, z. $\hat{i}q = (-1)q \rightarrow u\text{-}class IR$

Raman scattering active normal modes match functions pq in **IR**.

Infra-red active normal modes match the functions x, y, z in IR.

Fundamental $transition(v=0 \rightarrow 1)$

The rule of mutual exclusion: for a molecule with a centre of inversion, the fundamental of a particular normal mode cannot both give rise to an absorption in the *infra-red* and vibrational Raman scattering. In other words, if the transition is allowed in the *infra-red* it will not also give rise to Raman scattering.

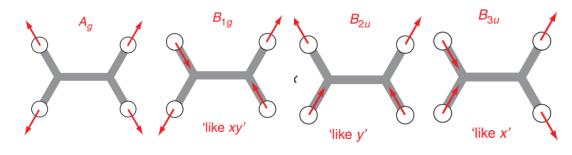
7.3.5 Rule of mutual exclusion

Exs.34-39

- For a molecule with a centre of inversion, a normal mode which is active in the infra-red will not be active in the Raman.
- Example: the C–H stretching normal modes for ethane.

Normal Mode IR	similar function	Infra-red	Raman scattering		
A_g	q^2	inactive	active		
B_{1g}	xy	inactive	active		
B_{2u}	y	active	inactive		
B_{3u}	x	active	inactive		

Q: Please work out the symmetry allowed overtones and combination lines in both types of spectra.



D_{2h}	E	C_2^z	C_2^y	C_2^x	i	σ^{xy}	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}		
A_g	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_{v}	XZ
B_{3g}	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	R_x	уz
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	y	
B_{3u}	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	1	-1	x	
	1	-1								



Overtones and combination lines of C-H stretches in C_2H_4



• Overtones: $(0 \rightarrow 2)$

$$NM \qquad \qquad A_g \qquad B_{1g} \qquad B_{2u} \qquad B_{3u}$$

$$v=0 \rightarrow v=2$$
 $A_g \rightarrow A_g$ Raman active

• Combination lines: $(0 \rightarrow 1 \& 0 \rightarrow 1)$

$$B_{1g} \& B_{2u}$$
 $A_g \rightarrow B_{1g} \otimes B_{2u} = B_{3u}$ IR active!
 $B_{1g} \& B_{3u}$ $A_g \rightarrow B_{1g} \otimes B_{3u} = B_{2u}$ IR active!
 $B_{2u} \& B_{3u}$ $A_q \rightarrow B_{2u} \otimes B_{3u} = B_{1g}$ Raman active!

D_{2h}	E	C_2^z	C_2^y	C_2^x	i	σ^{xy}	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}		
A_g	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	$R_{\rm y}$	XZ
B_{3g}	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	R_x	yz
A_u	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	y	
B_{3u}	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	1	-1	x	

Combining with A_g normal mode does not affect the symmetry of the state.

$$A_q \& B_{2u}$$
 $A_q \rightarrow A_q \otimes B_{2u} = B_{2u}$ IR active!

$$A_q \& B_{3u}$$
 $A_g \rightarrow A_g \otimes B_{3u} = B_{3u}$ IR active!

$$A_g \& B_{1g}$$
 $A_q \rightarrow A_q \otimes B_{1g} = B_{1g}$ Raman active!



7.4 Summary



- Symmetry properties of vibrational wavefunctions:
- 1. The ground state wavefunction (v = 0) for any normal mode transforms as the totally symmetric IR.
- 2. The first excited state wavefunction (v = 1) for any normal mode transforms in the same way as does the normal mode i.e. its IR is the same as that of the normal mode.
- 3. For non-degenerate normal modes the states with even v(0, 2, 4...) transform as the totally symmetric IR, whereas the states with odd v(1, 3, 5...) transform in the same way as the normal mode i.e. their IR is the same as that of the normal mode.
- 4. The overall symmetry of the vibrational wavefunction is found by taking the direct product of the irreducible representations for the wavefunction associated with each normal mode.



7.4 Summary



- The fundamental of a particular normal mode is allowed in the infra-red if the IR of the normal mode matches that of x, y or z.
- The fundamental of a particular normal mode gives vibrational Raman scattering if the IR of the normal mode matches that of pq, where p and q are any of x, y or z.
- Whether or not a general transition from v_i to v_i' is allowed in the *infra-red* can be found by examining the direct product

$$\Gamma_{v_i'}^{(i)}\otimes\Gamma_{\mu}\otimes\Gamma_{v_i}^{(i)}$$

If this product contains the totally symmetric IR the transition is symmetry allowed. (Γ_{μ} itself transforms as x, y or z.)



7.4 Summary



• Whether or not a general transition from v_i to v_i' gives rise to Raman scattering can be found by examining the direct product

$$\Gamma_{v_i'}^{(i)}\otimes\Gamma_{lpha}\otimes\Gamma_{v_i}^{(i)}$$

If this product contains the totally symmetric IR the transition is symmetry allowed. (Γ_{α} transforms as pq.)

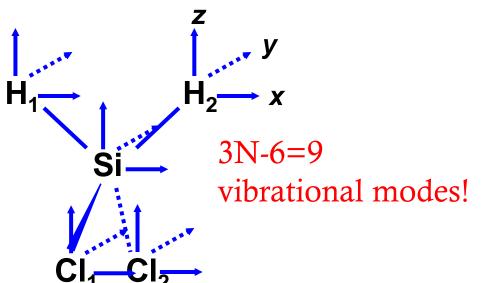
- A symmetry-allowed transition may nevertheless not be observed on account of it having low intensity.
- The rule of mutual exclusion states that for a molecule with a centre of inversion the fundamental of a particular normal mode cannot both give rise to an absorption in the infra-red and vibrational Raman scattering.



7.1.4 Normal modes of more complex molecules



• Example: SiH_2Cl_2 (point group $C_{2\nu}$)



C_{2v}	E	C_2^z	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}		
$egin{array}{c} A_1 \ A_2 \ B_1 \ B_2 \end{array}$	1 1 1 1	1 1 -1 -1	1 -1 1 -1	1 -1 -1	R_z R_y R_x	$x^{2}; y^{2}; z^{2}$ xy xz yz

$$\Gamma(\text{Cl}_1, x, \text{Cl}_2, x)$$
 2 0 0 -2 $A_2 \oplus B_1$
 $\Gamma(\text{Cl}_1, y, \text{Cl}_2, y)$ 2 0 0 2 $A_1 \oplus B_2$
 $\Gamma(\text{Cl}_1, z, \text{Cl}_2, z)$ 2 0 0 2 $A_1 \oplus B_2$

- Classify the 15 vectors:
- i) Si,x; Si,y; Si,z;
 (H₁,x, H₂,x); (H₁,y, H₂,y); (H₁,z, H₂,z)
 (Cl₁,x, Cl₂,x); (Cl₁,y, Cl₂,y); (Cl₁,z, Cl₂,z)
- SiH₂ similar to H₂O: $3A_1 \oplus 3B_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus 2B_2$

Ful	l set	$5A_1 \oplus 4B_1 \oplus 2A_2 \oplus 4B_1$	32
7 71	1 . •	, R R A	

Translations (x,y,z) B_1 , B_2 , A_1 Rotations (R_x,R_y,R_z) B_2 , B_1 , A_2

Vibrations $4A_1 \oplus 2B_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus 2B_2$





Two rules

- (i) there is 1 stretching vibration per bond
- (ii) we must treat symmetry-related atoms together

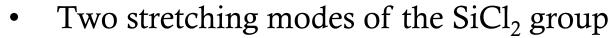
We therefore have:-

two stretching modes of the SiCl₂ group

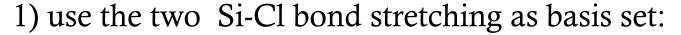
two stretching modes of the SiH₂ group

The remaining five modes must be deformations (angle bending vibrations)





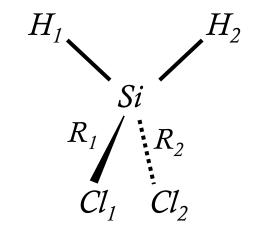
We can stretch the two Si-Cl bonds: together *in phase* or together *out of phase*!



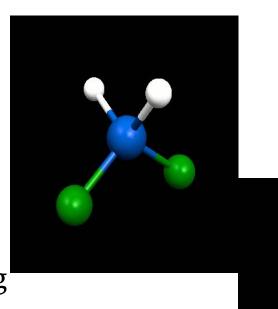
2) Get the combinations of bond stretching:

$$A_1$$
 stretching = $(R_1 + R_2)/2$ ~symmetric stretching

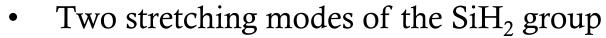
$$B_2$$
 stretching = $(R_1 - R_2)/2$ ~anti-symmetric stretching











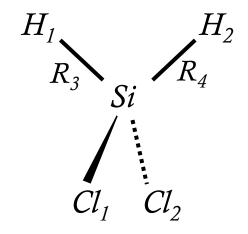
We can stretch the two Si-H bonds: together *in phase* or together *out of phase*!



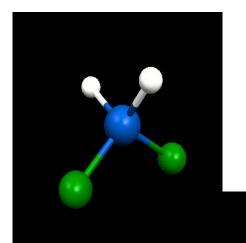
2) Get the combinations of bond stretchings:

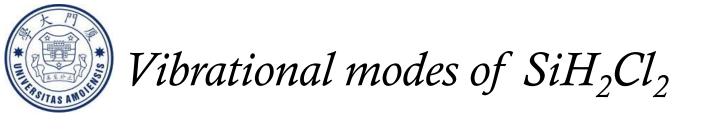
$$A_1$$
 stretching = $(R_3 + R_4)/2$ ~symmetric stretching

$$B_1$$
 stretching = $(R_3 - R_4)/2$ ~anti-symmetric stretching











We now have:-

two stretching modes of the SiCl₂ group two of the SiH₂ group

The remaining five modes must be deformations (angle bending vibrations)

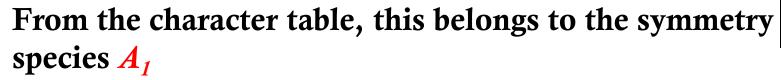
As with stretches, we must treat symmetry-related atoms together.

• Take SiH₂ (or SiCl₂) as a whole when considering the deformations (related to change of bond angles and dihedral angles).

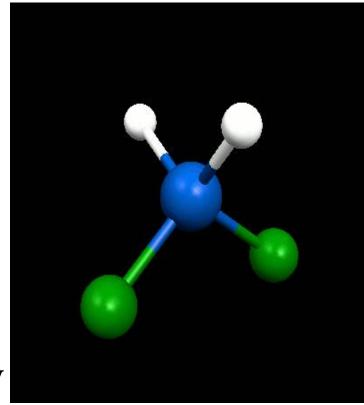


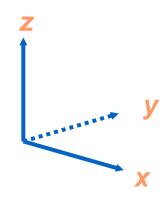


$$E \quad \mathbf{C}_2 \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{xz} \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{yz}$$
$$+1 \quad +1 \quad +1 \quad +1$$



We call the mode of vibration δ_{sym} SiCl₂ (or SiCl₂ scissors)

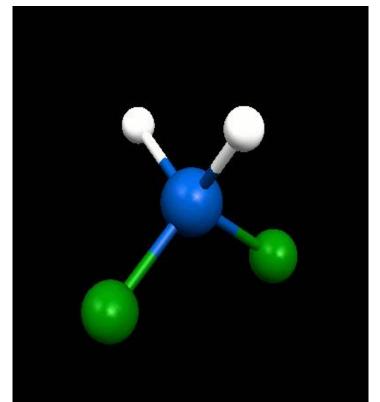


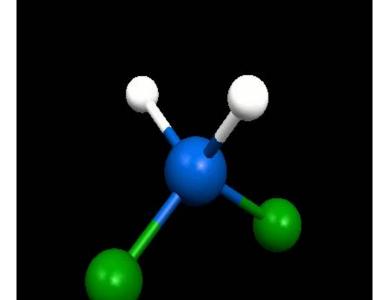






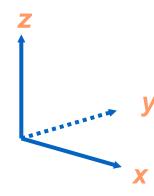
$$E \quad \mathbf{C}_2 \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{xz} \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{yz}$$
$$+1 \quad +1 \quad +1 \quad +1$$





From the character table, this belongs to the symmetry species A_1

We call the mode of vibration δ_{sym} SiH₂ (or SiH₂ scissors)

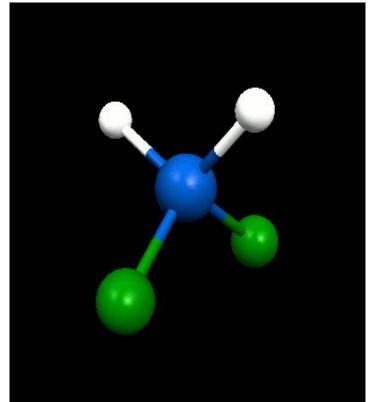




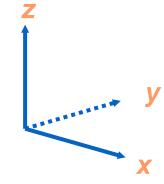
The state of the s

• Concerted move of SiH_2 group ~ wag within the xz plane.

$$E$$
 C_2 σ_{xz} σ_{yz} +1 -1 -1



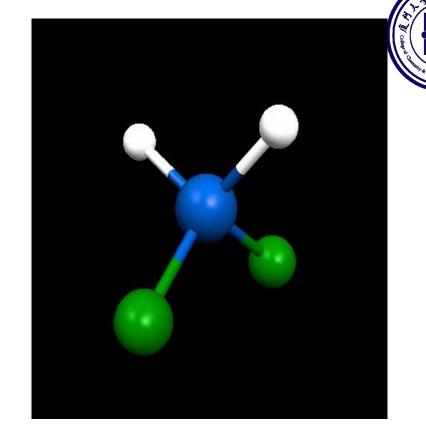
From the character table, this belongs to the symmetry species B_1 . We call the mode of vibration ω_{SiH2} (or SiH₂ wag).



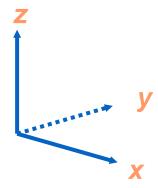


• Concerted move of the SiH₂ group~ rock within the yz plane.

$$E$$
 C_2 σ_{xz} σ_{yz} +1 -1 -1 1



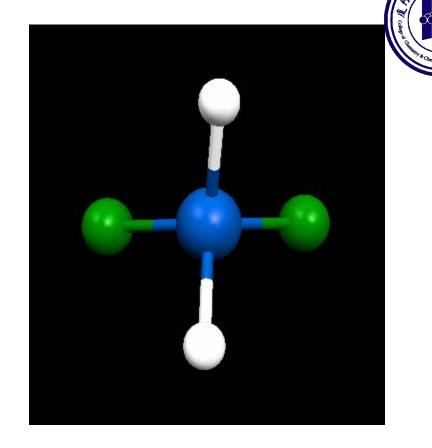
From the character table, this belongs to the symmetry species B_2 . We call the mode of vibration ρ_{SiH2} (or SiH_2 rock).





• Concerted move of SiH₂ group ~ rotating around the z-axis.

$$E$$
 C_2 σ_{xz} σ_{yz} +1 +1 -1 -1



From the character table, this belongs to the symmetry species A_2 . We call the mode of vibration τ_{SiH2} (or SiH_2 twist).

1





Overall, we now have:-

two stretching modes of the SiCl₂ group $A_1 \oplus B_2$

two of the SiH₂ group $A_1 \oplus B_1$

five deformation modes $2A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus B_1 \oplus B_2$

Together, these account for all the modes we expect: $4A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus 2B_1 \oplus 2B_2$