



Part III Symmetry and Bonding

Chapter 8 Miscellany

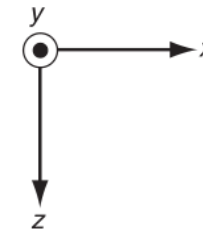
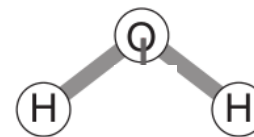
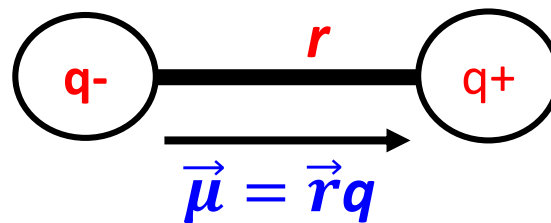
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8.1 Dipole moments



- A (permanent) **dipole moment** is a physical property possessed by a molecule.

e.g., H_2O , define μ (a vector), change upon C_2 , σ^{xz} and σ^{yz} operations?

The characters are all +1. Invariant!

The dipole moment must **be invariant to symmetry operations possessed by that molecule!**

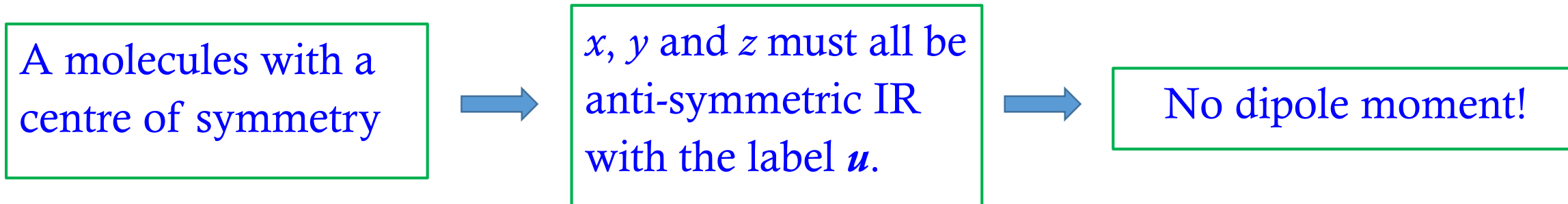
- The dipole moment must transform as the totally symmetric **IR**.
- The dipole moment itself is just the result of **an uneven distribution of charge**, and in general it can only transform like x , y or z .

A molecule possesses a permanent dipole moment only if x , y or z **transforms as the totally symmetric IR**. (Necessity for the presence of dipole moment!)



8.1 Dipole moments

- e.g., H_2O C_{2v} , z transforms as A_1 (the totally symmetric IR) \rightarrow it has a dipole along z .
- e.g., benzene (D_{6h}), z transforms as A_{2u} and (x,y) transform as E_{1u} . \rightarrow no dipole.



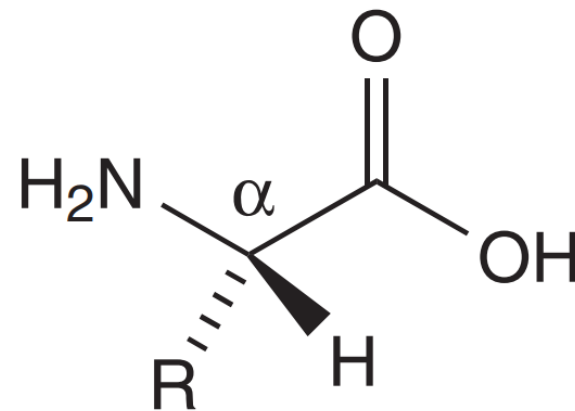
- Note that this discussion refers to *the permanent dipole possessed by a molecule in its equilibrium geometry*.



8.2 Chirality

- *Chiral molecules* have the physical property that they *rotate the plane of polarized light*.
- *A molecule is chiral if it cannot be superimposed on its mirror image*, or, in the language of group theory, if the molecule does not possess any improper axes of rotation, S_n .
- It is important to recall that a *mirror plane* is the same thing as S_1 and a *centre of symmetry* is the same thing as S_2 . Therefore molecules possessing either mirror planes or a centre of symmetry are not chiral.
- If in a molecule having *no* S_n a carbon atom is attached to four different groups i.e. C(ABCD) then clearly the molecule *is chiral*. Such a carbon is called a *chiral centre*.

e.g., amino acids with the α carbon in a chiral centre.

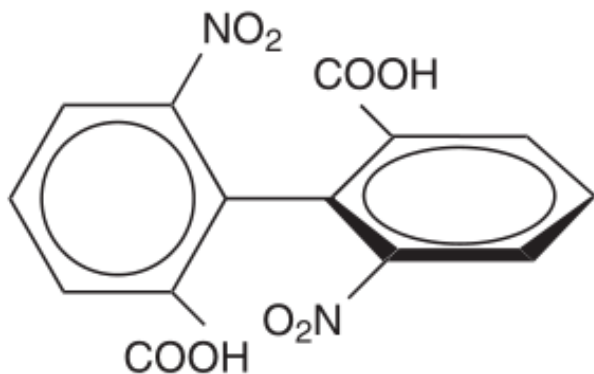




8.2 Chirality

- Generating chirality without use of chiral centres.

Neither of the molecules shown below have chiral centres, but they are nevertheless chiral as a result of *restricted rotation about the C–C bond* in the case of the molecule on the left, and *the geometry of the fused four-membered rings* on the right.





8.3 Infinite groups

- Non-centrosymmetric linear molecules (e.g. OCS, NNO) $\sim C_{\infty v}$.

$C_{\infty v}$		E	$2C^z(\alpha)$	\dots	$\infty\sigma_v$			
Σ^+	(A_1)	1	1	\dots	1	z		$x^2 + y^2; z^2$
Σ^-	(A_2)	1	1	\dots	-1		R_z	
Π	(E_1)	2	$2 \cos \alpha$	\dots	0	(x, y)	(R_x, R_y)	(xz, yz)
Δ	(E_2)	2	$2 \cos 2\alpha$	\dots	0			$(x^2 - y^2, 2xy)$
Φ	(E_3)	2	$2 \cos 3\alpha$	\dots	0			
\dots		\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots			

- The long axis of such molecules is the principal axis (z) and a *rotation* through *any angle* α about this axis is a symmetry operation.
- There are thus an *infinite number* of such rotation axes, identified as $C^z(\alpha)$.
- There are an *infinite number of mirror planes* ($\infty\sigma_v$) containing the internuclear axis.



8.3 Infinite groups

- Centrosymmetric linear molecules (e.g. CO_2 , BeH_2) $\sim D_{\infty h}$.

$D_{\infty h}$		E	$2C^z(\alpha)$	\dots	$\infty\sigma_v$	i	$2S^z(\alpha)$	\dots	∞C_2	
Σ_g^+	(A_{1g})	1	1	\dots	1	1	1	\dots	1	$x^2 + y^2; z^2$
Σ_g^-	(A_{2g})	1	1	\dots	-1	1	1	\dots	-1	R_z
Π_g	(E_{1g})	2	$2\cos\alpha$	\dots	0	2	$-2\cos\alpha$	\dots	0	(R_x, R_y)
Δ_g	(E_{2g})	2	$2\cos 2\alpha$	\dots	0	2	$2\cos 2\alpha$	\dots	0	(xz, yz)
Φ_g	(E_{3g})	2	$2\cos 3\alpha$	\dots	0	2	$-2\cos 3\alpha$	\dots	0	$(x^2 - y^2, 2xy)$
\dots		\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	
Σ_u^+	(A_{1u})	1	1	\dots	1	-1	-1	\dots	-1	z
Σ_u^-	(A_{2u})	1	1	\dots	-1	-1	-1	\dots	1	
Π_u	(E_{1u})	2	$2\cos\alpha$	\dots	0	-2	$2\cos\alpha$	\dots	0	(x, y)
Δ_u	(E_{2u})	2	$2\cos 2\alpha$	\dots	0	-2	$-2\cos 2\alpha$	\dots	0	
Φ_u	(E_{3u})	2	$2\cos 3\alpha$	\dots	0	-2	$2\cos 3\alpha$	\dots	0	
\dots		\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	

- $C^z(\alpha)$ rotation axes, $\infty\sigma_v$, i , ∞C_2 axes, and $S^z(\alpha)$ axes.



8.3 Infinite groups

- As a result of the infinite number of operations contained by these groups it is not quite straightforward to apply the various methods that have been described above for finite groups.
- In these groups a state possessing *a certain amount of angular momentum* about the principal axis transforms as a particular ***IR***. The ***IR*** as which a state transforms is therefore not *only a symmetry label* but also *characterizes the angular momentum*.



8.3 Infinite groups

We can enumerate the particular properties of the **IRs** and the significance of their labels.

1. One-dimensional **IRs** are labelled Σ .
2. For Σ **IRs**, the superscript $+$ or $-$ indicates the behavior under any one of the σ_v planes:
 - $+$ \sim symmetric under σ_v (i.e. the character is $+1$),
 - $-$ \sim antisymmetric under σ_v (i.e. the character is -1).
3. In $D_{\infty h}$ the g or u subscript indicates the symmetry under the *inversion* operation:
 - g \sim symmetric under i (i.e. the character is positive),
 - u \sim antisymmetric under i (i.e. the character is negative).



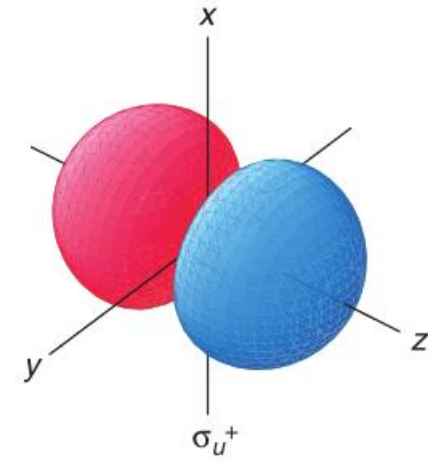
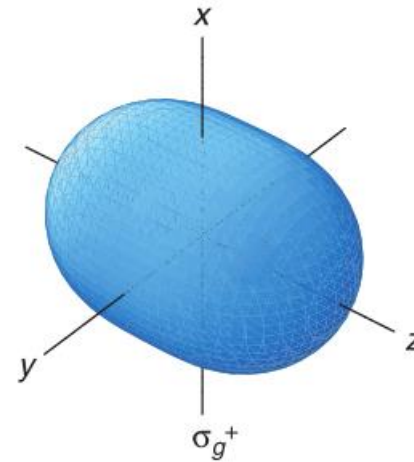
8.3 Infinite groups

4. A Σ IR indicates that there is **no angular momentum** about the principal axis.

5. Π , Δ and Φ IRs are all *two-dimensional*; they correspond to ± 1 , ± 2 , ± 3 units, respectively, of *angular momentum* about the principal axis.

e.g, In H_2^+ , the MOs formed from the overlap of two 1s AOs are labelled σ_g^+ and σ_u^+ .

- They transform as the IRs Σ_g^+ and Σ_u^+ , respectively.
- Both are *symmetric* with respect to σ_v .
- They differ in their symmetry with respect to *i*.
- Neither orbital has any angular momentum about the principal axis.



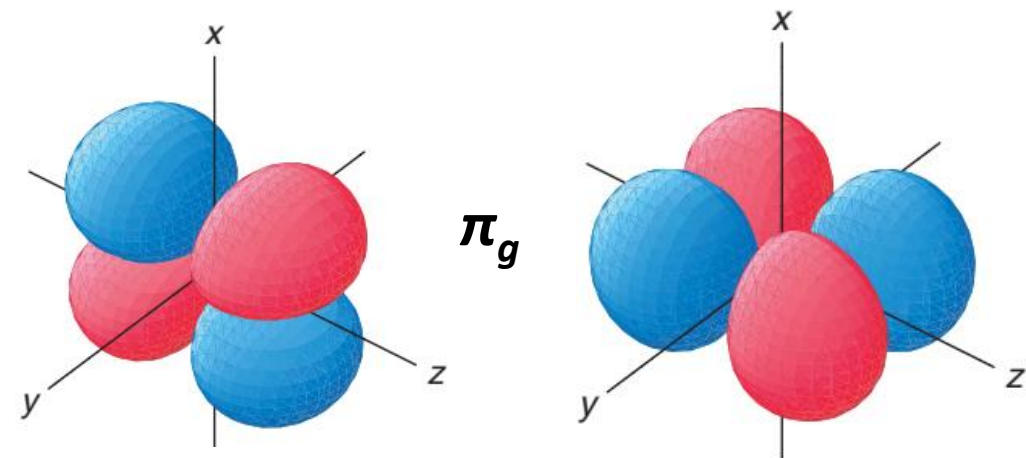
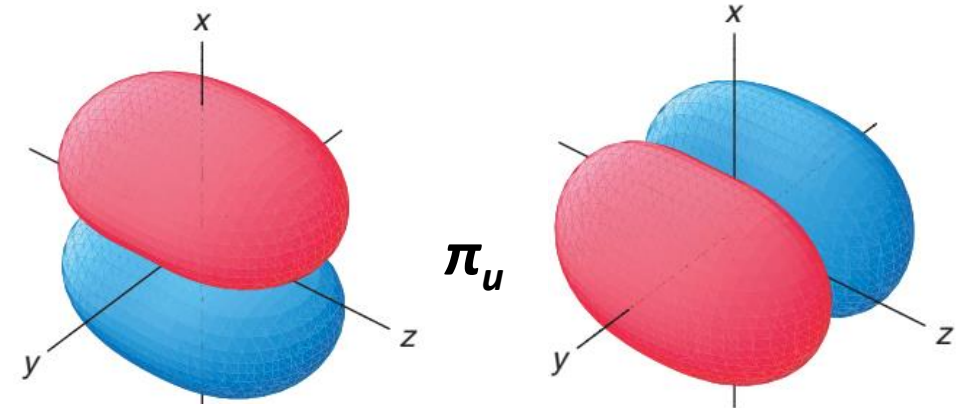


8.3 Infinite groups

- Two $2p$ AOs overlap 'head on' to form two MOs with symmetry labels σ_g^+ and σ_u^+ .
- If the $2p$ AOs overlap 'sideways on' the resulting MOs have symmetry labels π_u and π_g .

1) Each is doubly degenerate since there are in fact two pairs of p orbitals (*two $2p_x$* and *two $2p_y$*) overlapping.

2) Each MO has ± 1 unit of *angular momentum* about the principal axis.





GOOD LUCK !



8.4 Allowed transitions in electronic excitation spectrum

- Suppose electronic excitation does not change the spin quantum number (*zero*), we can consider the orbital distribution of electronic density. The symmetry of *the overall electronic wavefunction* for a molecule in its *i*th state (ψ_i) is given by the product

$$\Gamma_{tot}^i = \Gamma_{SOMO_1}^{(i)} \otimes \Gamma_{SOMO_2}^{(i)} \otimes \dots \quad (\Gamma_{SOMO_k}^{(i)} \sim IR \text{ for the } k\text{th SOMO})$$

$$\Gamma_{tot}^i = \Gamma^{tot.sym.} \text{ for a closed-shell electronic configuration.}$$

- The transition moment* for transition from states ψ_i to ψ_j is given by

$$R_{ij} = \int \psi_i \hat{\mu} \psi_j d\tau \xrightarrow{\text{To be non-zero}} \Gamma_{i\mu j} = \Gamma_{tot}^i \otimes \Gamma^{\hat{\mu}} \otimes \Gamma_{tot}^j = \Gamma^{tot.sym.} \longrightarrow \Gamma_{tot}^i \otimes \Gamma_{tot}^j = \Gamma^{\hat{\mu}}$$

- The criterion for a transition being electric dipole allowed* is that the direct product representation for the two states ψ_i to ψ_j be or contain an **IR** to which one or more of Cartesian coordinates belongs to.



8.7 Allowed transitions in electronic excitation spectrum

- Example 1: H₂O

Ground state: $2a_1^2 1b_1^2 3a_1^2 1b_2^2 4a_1^0 2b_1^0$

1st excited state: $2a_1^2 1b_1^2 3a_1^2 1b_2^1 4a_1^1 2b_1^0$

$$\rightarrow \Gamma_{tot}^{gs} \otimes \Gamma_{tot}^{1es} = B_2 \otimes A_1 = B_2$$

So y belongs to the same IR!

Allowed transition!

Q: Is the excitation from $1b_2$ to $2b_1$ allowed?

Elec. config. of the excited state: $2a_1^2 1b_1^2 3a_1^2 1b_2^1 4a_1^0 2b_1^1$

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

$$\Gamma_{tot}^{gs} = A_1$$

$$\Gamma_{tot}^{1es} = B_2 \otimes A_1 = B_2$$



Example 2: naphthalene

Ground state: $1b_{1u}^2 1b_{2g}^2 1b_{3g}^2 2b_{1u}^2 1a_u^2 2b_{2g}^0 2b_{3g}^0$

$$\Gamma_{tot}^{gs} = A_g$$

1st excited state: $1b_{1u}^2 1b_{2g}^2 1b_{3g}^2 2b_{1u}^2 1a_u^1 2b_{2g}^1 2b_{3g}^0$

$$\Gamma_{tot}^{1es} = ?$$

2st excited state: $1b_{1u}^2 1b_{2g}^2 1b_{3g}^2 2b_{1u}^2 1a_u^1 2b_{2g}^0 2b_{3g}^1$

$$\Gamma_{tot}^{2es} = ?$$

- Are the two lowest excitations allowed?

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_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	y
B_{3u}	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	1	-1	x



Overview of Chemical Theory I&II

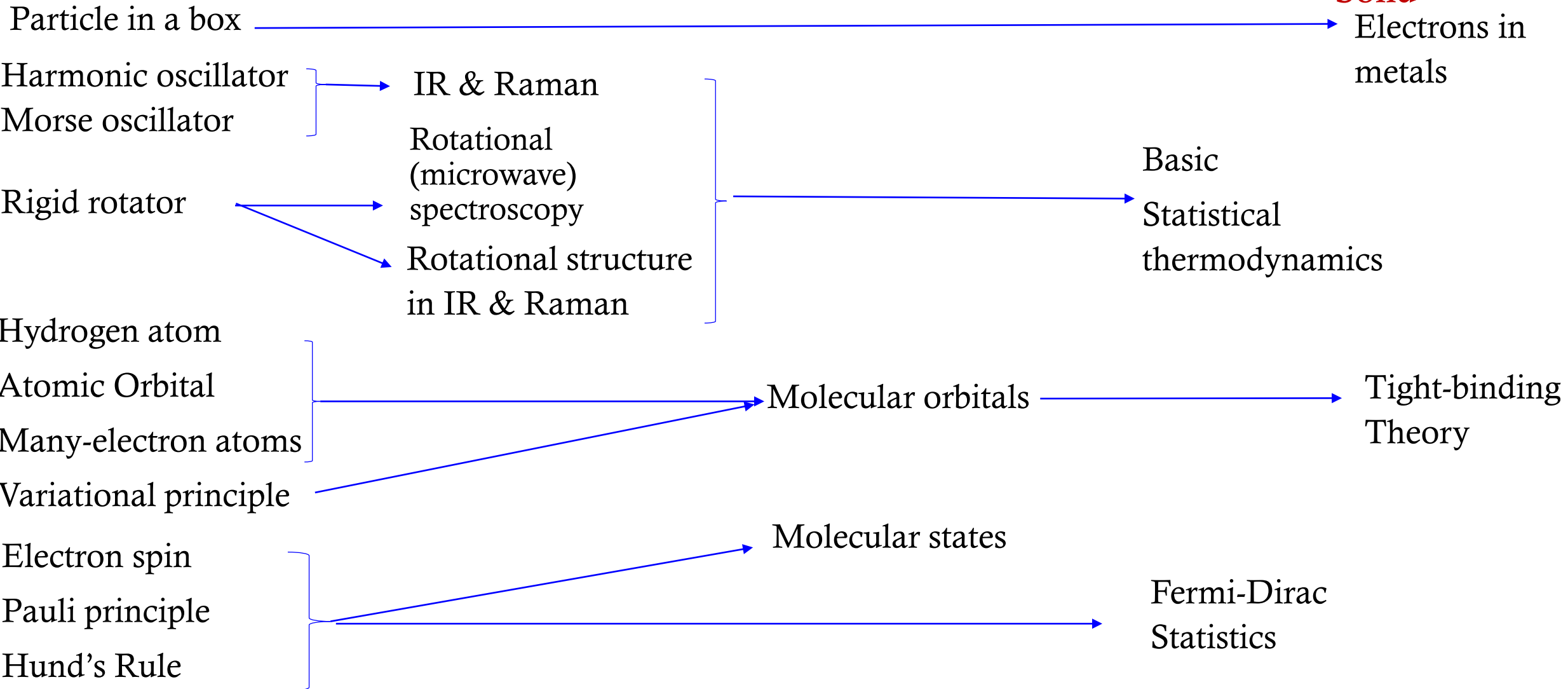
Quantum mechanics

Spectroscopy

Sym& Bonding

M.E.L.T.

Electrons in
Solid





§ 8.5 Symmetry rules for molecular reactions

Brief introduction:

- **Frontier Molecular orbital (FMO)** Theory proposed by K. Fukui in early 1950s. (*J. Chem. Phys.* 1952, 20, 722.)
- **The Principle of Orbital Symmetry Conservation** proposed by R.B. Woodward and R. Hoffmann in 1965. (*JACS*, 1965, 87, 395.)
- Owing to their aforementioned contributions, Fukui and Hoffmann were awarded Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1981.





8.5.1 *Frontier molecular orbitals Theory (1951)*

- A deeper understanding of chemical reactivity can be gained by focusing on the *frontier orbitals* of the reactants.
- We need to consider only two frontier molecular orbitals (FMO's), the HOMO and LUMO, to predict the structure of the product.

Highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO)

Lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO)

- The FMO theory can be regarded as a natural extension of MO theory that facilitates us to obtain qualitative understanding of chemical reactivity.



Reaction condition

Regio- and stereoselectivity



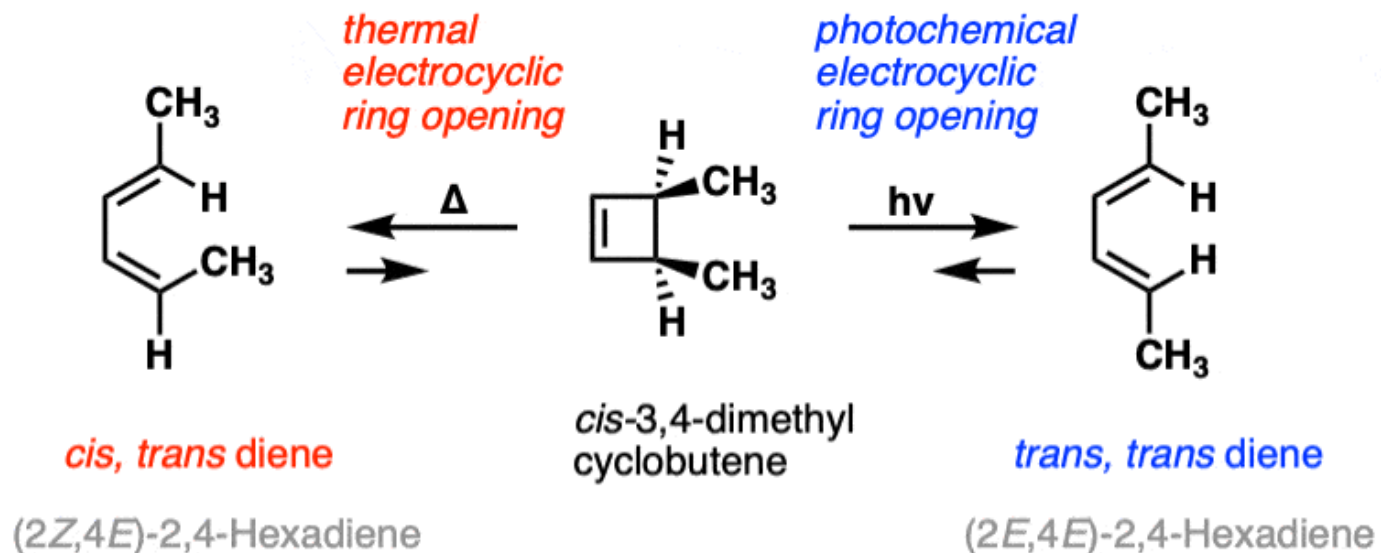
1. During the course of a chemical reaction, the orbitals that are most readily accessible for interaction are the frontier orbitals.
2. When two molecules approach each other, **the symmetry of the HOMO of one molecule must be compatible with that of the LUMO of the other molecule, i.e. orbitals with the same sign will overlap**. This forms a transition state which is relatively stable and is a symmetry-allowed state.
3. **The energy levels of the interacting HOMO and LUMO must be comparable (< 6 eV).**
4. When the HOMO and LUMO of two molecules overlap, electrons are transferred from the HOMO of one molecule to the LUMO of the other molecule. **The direction of the transfer should be in line with the electronegativities** and be consistent with the weakening of the original bond.



Example: electrocyclic reactions



Electrocyclic ring opening: thermal (heat) versus photochemical ($h\nu$) conditions give different products (stereoisomers)



Summary:

π electrons

4

conditions

thermal (Δ)

direction

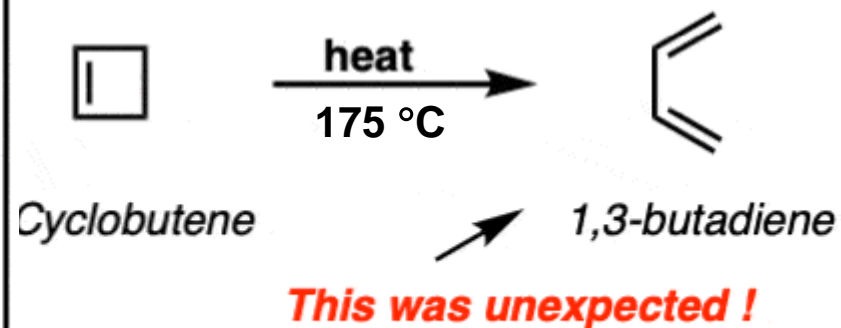
conrotatory

4

photochemical ($h\nu$)

disrotatory

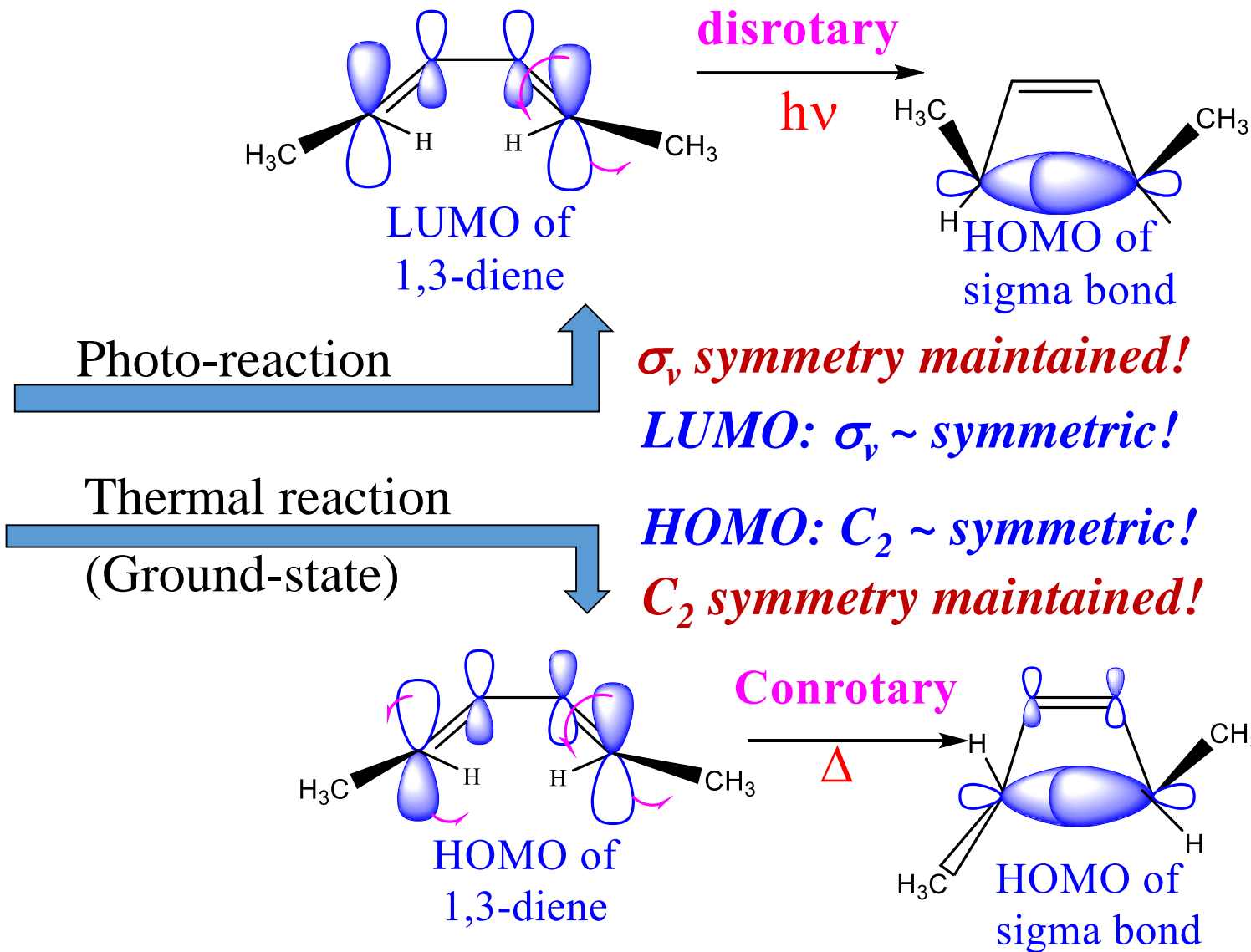
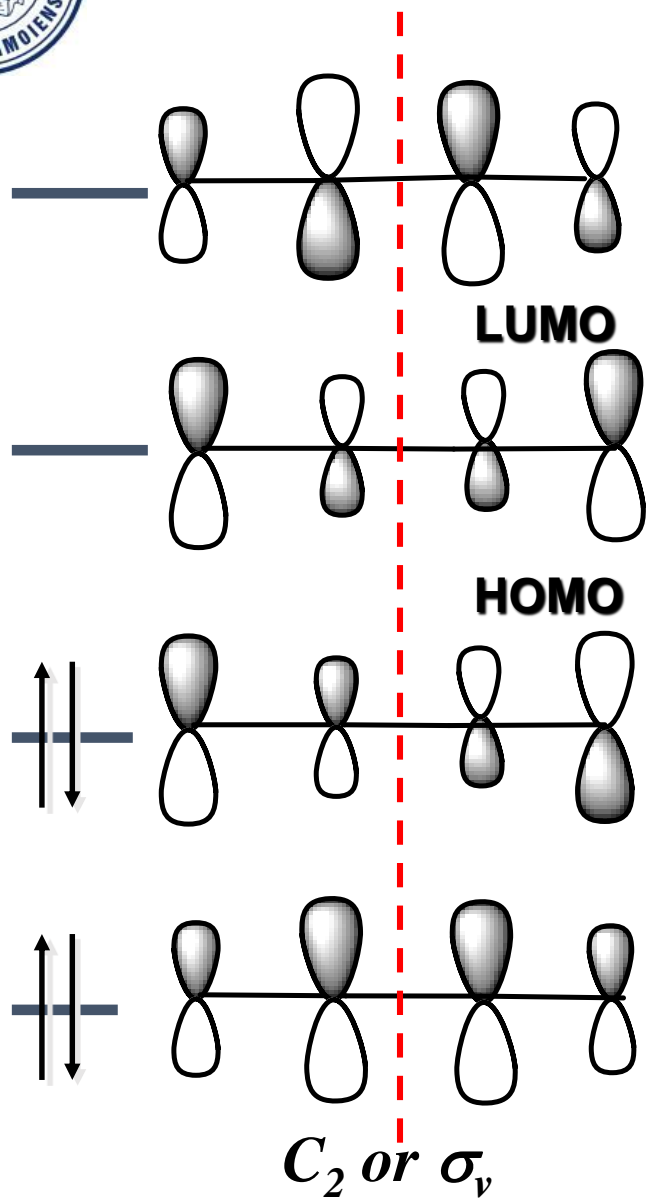
electrocyclic ring-opening (1905)



- Ring opening: cleavage of a 2c-2e σ bond, $2\sigma e \rightarrow 2\pi e$
- Ring closure: $2\pi e \rightarrow 2\sigma e$

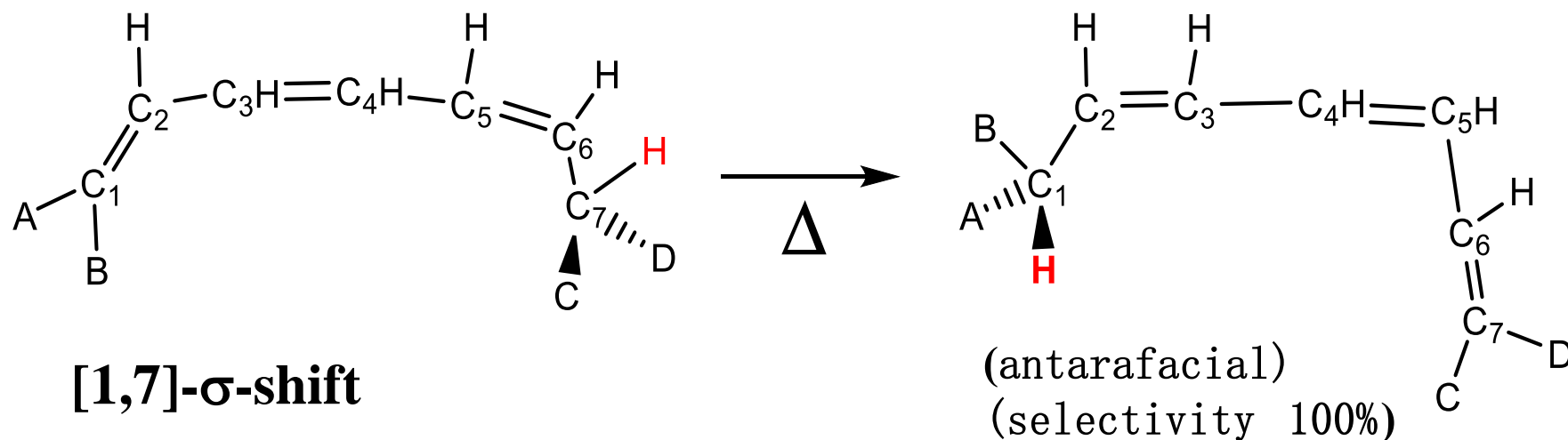
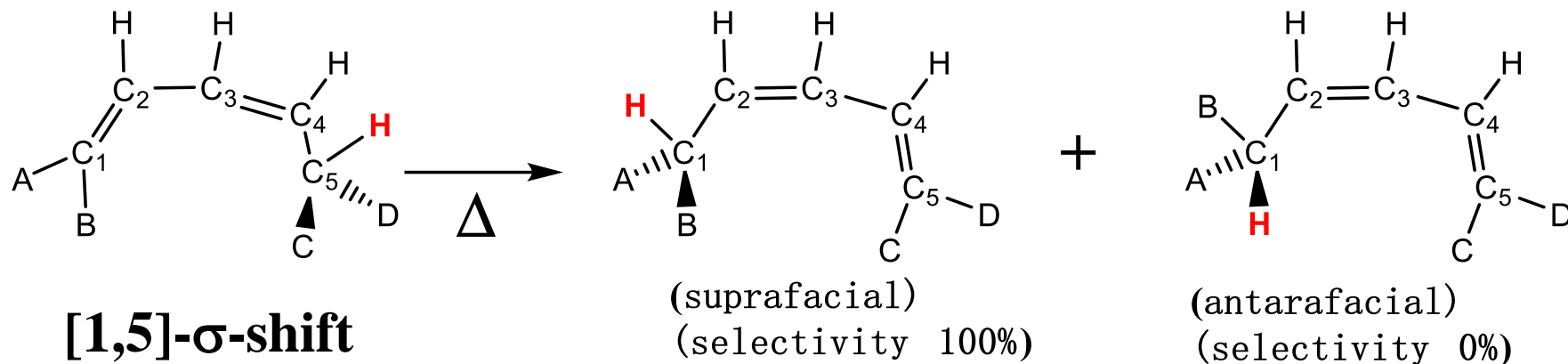
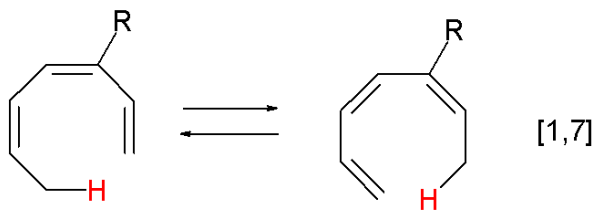
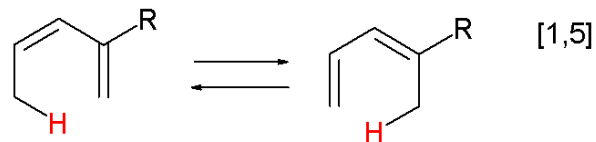
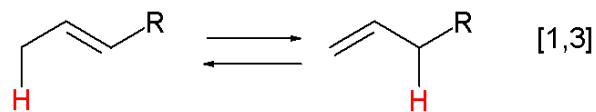


Example: Electrocyclic reaction of 1,3-diene





[1,n] sigmatropic shift : stereochemical rules



- Hint: Suppose the transition state is a combination of a H atom and a [n]polyene with odd-number p_{π} orbitals.

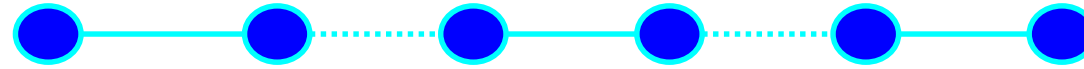


[n]Polyenes: $n=odd$



$$c_i \quad \sin \theta, \sin 2\theta, \dots$$

$$\sin(n-1)\theta, \sin n\theta$$



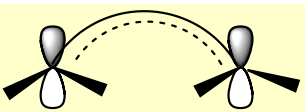
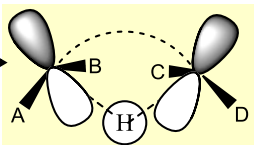
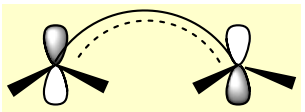
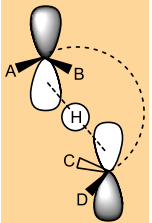
$$\theta = m\pi/(n+1); \quad E = \alpha + 2\beta\cos\theta \quad (m=1,2,\dots,n)$$

$$\psi = \sum_i c_i \phi_i$$

As $n=odd$, SOMO with $m = (n+1)/2$,

$$\Rightarrow \theta_{somo} = \pi/2, \quad E_{somo} = \alpha \quad c_1 = \sin(\pi/2) = 1; \quad c_2 = 0; \quad c_3 = -1; \dots, c_n = \sin(n\pi/2)$$

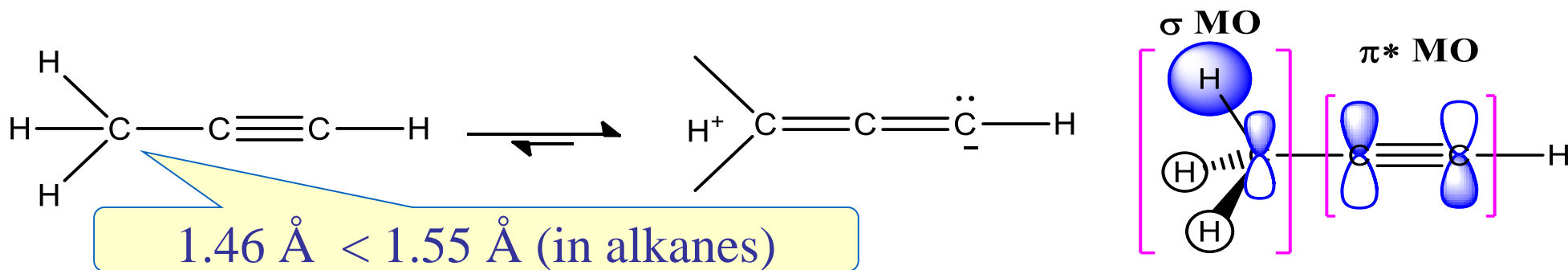
$$\Rightarrow \psi_{somo} = A \sum_{k=1}^n (\phi_1 - \phi_3 + \phi_5 - \dots) \Rightarrow \text{Diagram of p-orbitals with alternating phases} \quad \text{with } c_1 = c_{4k+1} = -c_{4k+3}$$

	Symmetry of SOMO		Sigmatropic shift		
	σ_v	C_2	TS symmetry	Reaction Mode	
$n= 4k+1$		Sym	Asym	σ_v 	suprafacial
$n= 4k+3$		Asym	Sym	C_2 	antarafacial

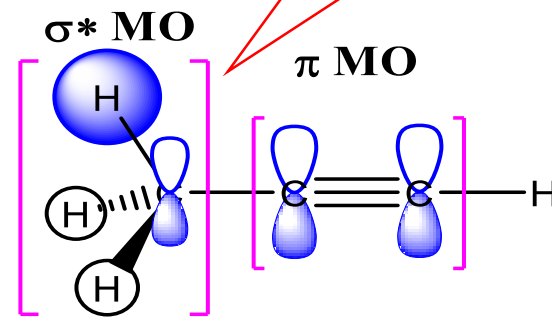


8.4 Hyperconjugation

- First introduced by R.S. Mulliken in 1939.
- Hyperconjugation is *the stabilizing interaction* of the electrons in a *σ -bond* (usually C–H or C–C) with an adjacent empty (or partially filled) *non-bonding p-orbital or antibonding π orbital*, which gives *an extended molecular orbital* that increases the stability of the system.



- $\pi^*(\text{C}\equiv\text{C})$ is generally lower in energy than the $\sigma^*(\text{C-H})$ of CH_3 .
→ $\pi^*(\text{C}\equiv\text{C})$ is more electron-affinitive than the $\sigma^*(\text{C-H})$ of CH_3 .
 $\sigma(\text{C-H}) \rightarrow \pi^*(\text{C}\equiv\text{C}) \gg \pi(\text{C}\equiv\text{C}) \rightarrow \sigma^*(\text{C-H})$.



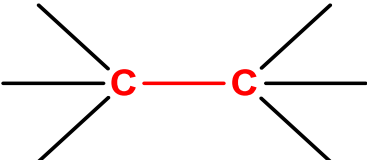
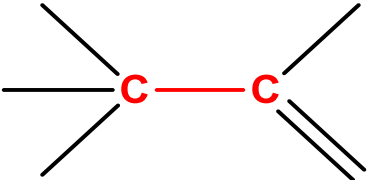
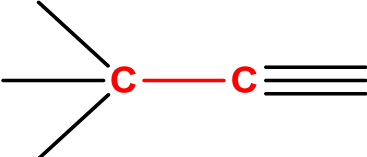


Effects of hyperconjugation on Chemical properties



A. Bond length and bond energy:

σ -bond: Shortening of bond length and increasing of bond energy.

Bond type	Hybridization	C-C bond length (\AA)	C-C bond energy($\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$)
	$\text{sp}^3\text{-sp}^3$	1.54	346.3
	$\text{sp}^3\text{-sp}^2$	1.51	357.6
	$\text{sp}^3\text{-sp}$	1.46	382.5

- The π^* MO of a $\text{C}=\text{C}$ bond is generally higher in energy and, hence, less electron-affinitive than that of a $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ bond.

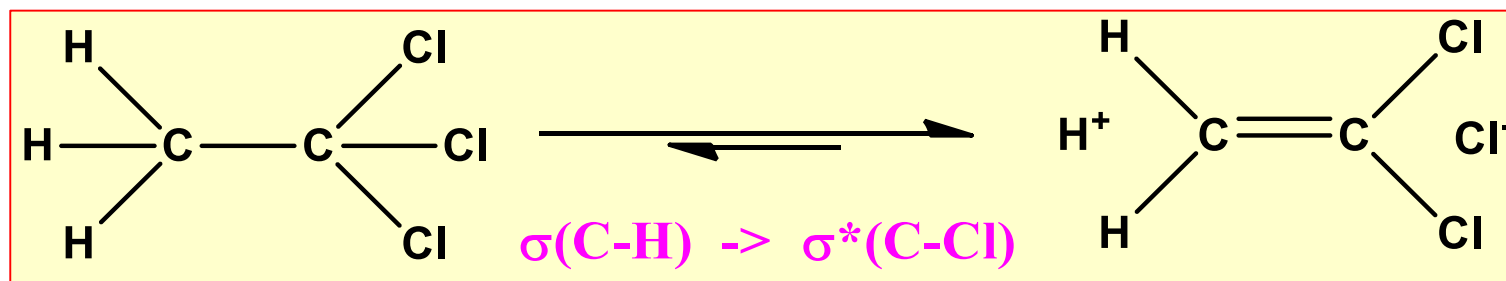
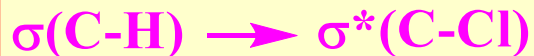
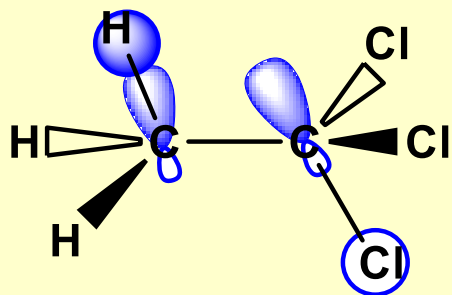


Effects of hyperconjugation on Chemical properties

B. Dipole moment

The dipole moment of 1,1,1-trichloroethane with hyperconjugation is much larger than that of chloroform (HCCl_3).

LMO picture

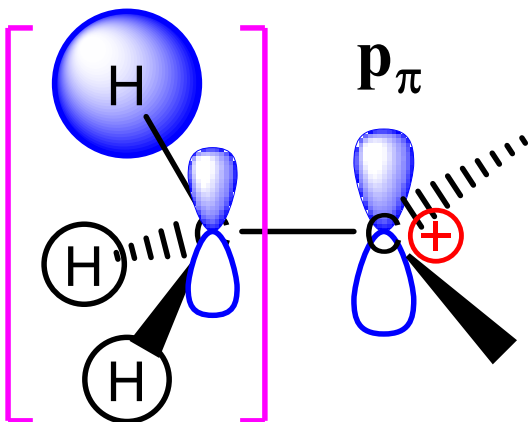




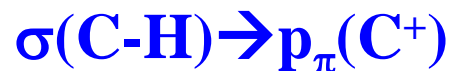
C. Stabilizing carbocations

Hyperconjugative interaction between the electron(s) in a bond that is β to the positively charged C can stabilize a carbocation.

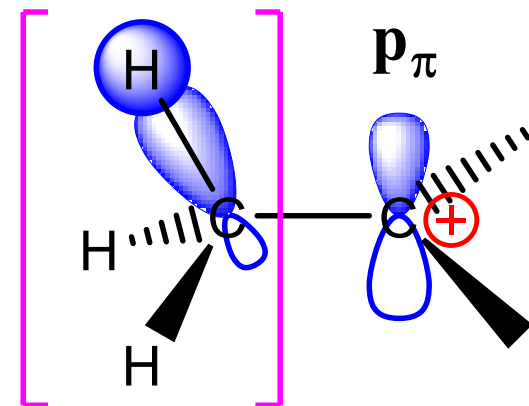
σ MO of CH_3



1) σ MO of $\text{CH}_3 + p_\pi (\text{C}^+)$



$\sigma(\text{C-H})$ LMO



2) a $\sigma(\text{C-H})$ LMO of $\text{CH}_3 + p_\pi (\text{C}^+)$

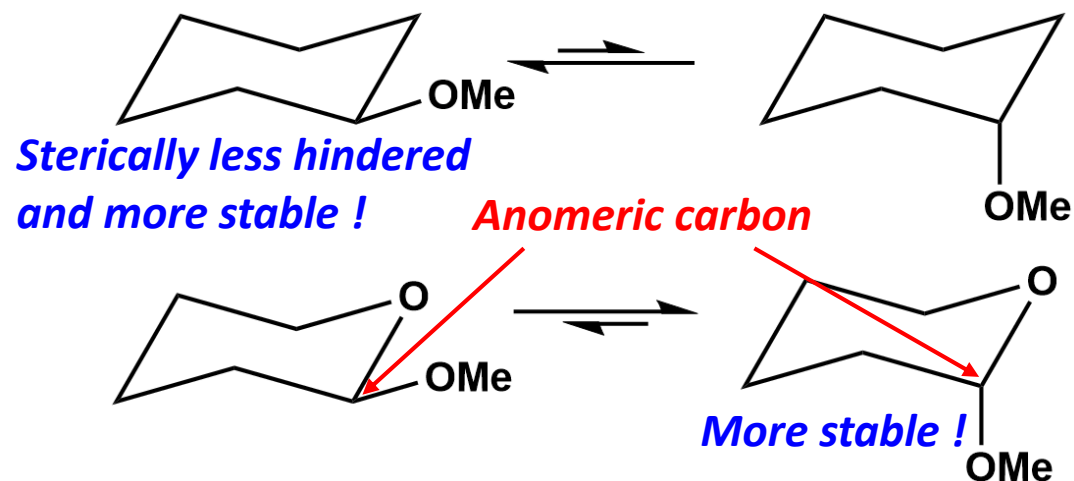
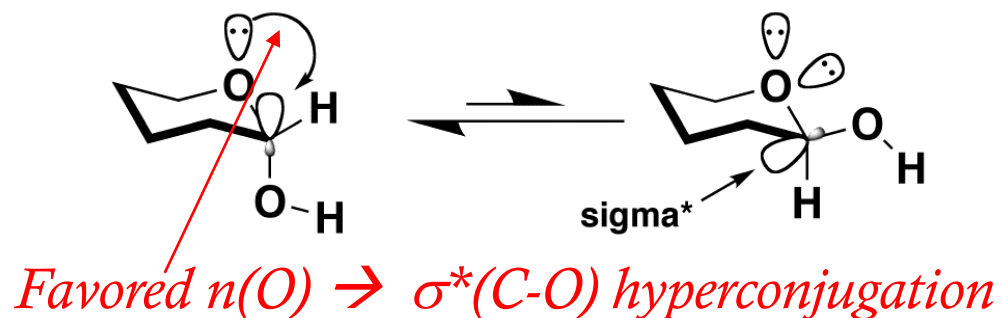
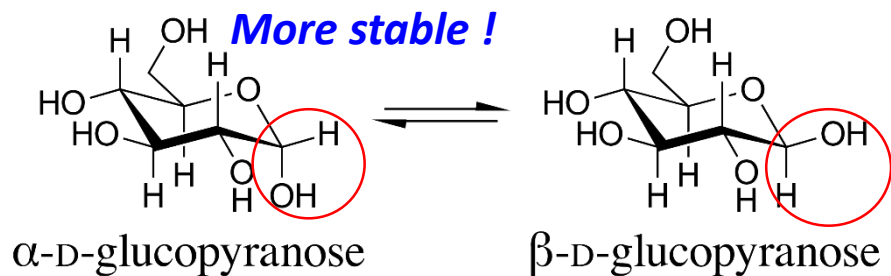
Stability of carbocations:





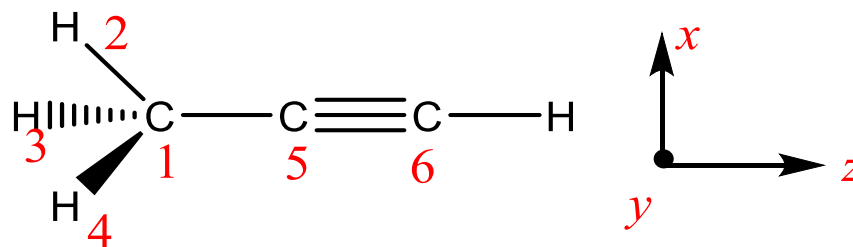
Anomeric effect (端基异构效应) & hyperconjugation

- This effect was originally observed in pyranose rings by **J. T. Edward** in 1955 when studying carbohydrate chemistry, but the term was first introduced in 1958.
- The **anomeric effect** or **Edward-Lemieux effect** is a *stereoelectronic effect* that describes the tendency of *heteroatomic substituents* adjacent to a *heteroatom* within a cyclohexane ring to prefer the *axial* orientation instead of the less hindered *equatorial* orientation that would be expected from steric consideration.





Key valence MOs of the CH₃ and C₂ fragments

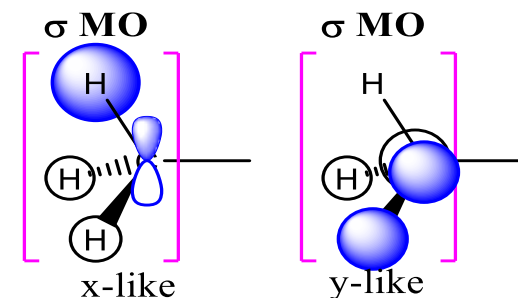


C_{3v}	E	$2C_3$	$3\sigma_v$	Basis components		
A_1	1	1	1	z		x^2+y^2, z^2
A_2	1	1	-1		R_z	
E	2	-1	0	(x,y)	(R_x, R_y)	$(x^2-y^2, xy)(yz, xz)$

• C₂: $(p_{x5}, p_{y5}), (p_{x6}, p_{y6}) \sim E$

$(p_{x5} + p_{x6})/\sqrt{2} \sim x\text{-like}, (p_{y5} + p_{y6})/\sqrt{2} \sim y\text{-like} \quad e (\pi\text{-bonding})$

$(p_{x5} - p_{x6})/\sqrt{2} \sim x\text{-like}, (p_{y5} - p_{y6})/\sqrt{2} \sim y\text{-like} \quad e^* (\pi\text{-antibonding})$



• CH₃: $(p_{x1}, p_{y1}) \sim E$

SOs of E arising from 3H 1s AOs:

$x\text{-like} \sim (2\phi_2 - \phi_3 - \phi_4)/\sqrt{6}$
 $y\text{-like} \sim (\phi_3 - \phi_4)/\sqrt{2}$

$x\text{-like} \sim ap_{x1} + b(2\phi_2 - \phi_3 - \phi_4)/\sqrt{6} \quad (\sigma \text{ MO})$
 $\sim cp_{x1} - d(2\phi_2 - \phi_3 - \phi_4)/\sqrt{6} \quad (\sigma^* \text{ MO})$
 $y\text{-like} \sim ap_{y1} + b(\phi_3 - \phi_4)/\sqrt{2} \quad (\sigma \text{ MO})$
 $\sim cp_{y1} - d(\phi_3 - \phi_4)/\sqrt{2} \quad (\sigma^* \text{ MO})$

Further combination of E -type MOs of two fragments gives extended MOs.