



Part III Symmetry and Bonding

Chapter 2 Representations 第二章 (群)表示

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- The key thing about a symmetry operation is that it leaves the molecule in an *indistinguishable orientation* to the starting position, e.g., σ_{xz} over H₂O.
- What effect do these symmetry operations have on functions 'within' the molecule, such as the atomic orbitals?

e.g, the 2s, $2p_z$, $2p_x$, $2p_y$ valence atomic orbitals (VAOs) of O in H₂O.

- What we will see in this section is that it is very convenient to arrange for the orbitals to behave in a way which reflects the symmetry of the molecule.
- ➢This discussion will lead us to introduce *representations* (表示) and the all-important *irreducible representations* (不可约表示) of the point groups.



2.1 Introducing representations



• The idea of a *representation* is best introduced using an example: $H_2O(C_{2\nu})$

Symmetry elements for $H_2O(C_{2\nu})$: the identity (*E*), a two-fold axis of rotation (the principal axis, C_2) and two (vertical) mirror planes (σ_{ν}).

By convention the *z*-axis is *coincident with the principal axis*, but we are *at liberty* to put the *x*- and *y*-axes where we like. (e.g., *right handed coordinates!*)



• Allowed symmetry operations for $H_2O(C_{2\nu})$: $E, C_2^z, \sigma^{xz}, \sigma^{yz}$.

(These four operations are of course the elements of the $C_{2\nu}$ point group!)



3 2.1.1 Behavior of the oxygen AOs in H_2O

- How are the oxygen atomic orbitals (AOs) affected by the *symmetry operations* of the point group: C_2^z , σ^{xz} and σ^{yz} .
- Under *the symmetry operations* these AOs either remain the same or simply change sign; *they neither move to another position nor become other orbital.*
- In each case, the effect of *a symmetry operation* \hat{R} can be expressed in the form of $\hat{R}\psi = A\psi$ (A = +1 or -1).
- In *Group Theory* these AOs are an example of a set of *basis functions*; they are simply referred to as a *basis*.
- The effect of the symmetry operations on p_x can be summarized as (+1, -1, +1, -1).

White for + and black/red for - value of the wavefunctions.







2.1.1 Behaviour of the oxygen AOs in H_2O



- Taking the O p_x orbital as the basis, the effect of the symmetry operations can be summarized by grouping together as follows : (+1, -1, +1, -1).
- In Group Theory this is said to be *a representation* of the operations of the group *in a basis* consisting of just *the* $p_x AO$, and can be found as a row in the character table.

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	$(+1,-1,+1,-1)$ in the basis p_x
<i>B</i> ₂	1	-1	-1	1	$y R_x$	yz.	

• In the character table the rows are a very special set of *representations* called the *irreducible representations (IRs)*.

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Ex. 5

• Similarly, the *s*, p_y and p_z AOs each result in a representation: representation in the basis *s*: (+1,+1,+1,+1) representation in the basis p_y : (+1,-1,-1,+1) representation in the basis p_z : (+1,+1,+1,+1)

• These are all described as *one-dimensional representations* since in each case there is only one basis function. They also can be found in the character table of $C_{2\nu}$.

C_{2v}	E	C_2^z	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}				
A_1	1	1	1	1	z		$x^2; y^2; z^2$	$(+1,+1,+1,+1)$ in the basis <i>s</i> or p_z
A_2 B_1	1	1 -1	-1 1	-1 -1	x	$R_z R_v$	xy xz	$(+1,-1,+1,-1)$ in the basis p_x
B_2	1	-1	-1	1	y	R_x	yz	$(+1, -1, -1, +1)$ in the basis p_y

• In the present example, we would say that ' p_x transforms as the irreducible representation B_1 '. Similarly, p_y transforms as B_2 and p_z transforms as A_1 .





• Two hydrogen 1s AOs in water (labeled as s_A and s_B).



- The basis functions s_A and s_B are *interconverted* by the operations of the group. (write eqs.!)
- The effect of a particular operation on an orbital function is no longer simply to multiply it by ±1, but can be expressed as a linear combination of the two AOs.



 $s_{A} = 1 \times s_{A} + 0 \times s_{B}$ $s_{B} = 0 \times s_{A} + 1 \times s_{B}$

 $\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{C_2^{\boldsymbol{Z}}} \boldsymbol{s}_{A} = \boldsymbol{s}_{B} \\ \boldsymbol{C_2^{\boldsymbol{Z}}} \boldsymbol{s}_{B} = \boldsymbol{s}_{A} \end{array} \quad \boldsymbol{C_2^{\boldsymbol{Z}}} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{s}_{A} \\ \boldsymbol{s}_{B} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{s}_{B} \\ \boldsymbol{s}_{A} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{0} & \boldsymbol{1} \\ \boldsymbol{1} & \boldsymbol{0} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{s}_{A} \\ \boldsymbol{s}_{B} \end{pmatrix}$ $\sigma^{xz} s_{A} = s_{A}$ $\sigma^{xz} s_{B} = s_{B}$ $\sigma^{xz} s_{B} = s_{B}$ $\sigma^{xz} s_{B} = s_{B}$ $\sigma^{xz} s_{B} = s_{B}$ $\sigma^{yz} s_{A} \equiv s_{B}$ $\sigma^{yz} s_{D} \equiv s_{\Delta} \quad \sigma^{yz} \begin{pmatrix} s_{A} \\ s_{B} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} s_{B} \\ s_{A} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} s_{A} \\ s_{B} \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{array}{ccc} \boldsymbol{E} \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{A}} = & \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{A}} \\ \boldsymbol{E} \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{B}} = & \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{B}} \end{array} \quad \boldsymbol{E} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{A}} \\ \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{B}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{A}} \\ \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{B}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{A}} \\ \mathbf{S}_{\mathrm{B}} \end{pmatrix}$



2.1.2 Behaviour of the hydrogen AOs in H_2O



• These four matrices together form a representation of the operations of the group:



The character (χ) *of a matrix*: the sum of the diagonal elements (also known as the trace)

- This is a *two-dimensional representation*, which is a set of 2×2 matrices, generated in the basis consisting of *two* orbitals (or basis functions), s_A and s_B .
- The *characters* of the matrices are more important than the matrices themselves. For the above representation in the s_A and s_B basis, the characters are



The matrix representative of *E* (*identity*) must always be a unit matrix, so its character must be equal to the number of basis functions.







• The representation with characters (2,0,2,0) is not one of the IRs in the character table.

C_{2v}	E	C_2^z	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}			
A_1	1	1	1	1	z		$x^2; y^2; z^2$
B_1	1	-1	1	-1	x	R_z R_y	xy xz
0	2		2		У	R_x	yz.

However, this set of numbers can be obtained by adding together the characters of the IR A₁ with those of the IR B₁, i.e., A₁ ⊕ B₁: (2,0,2,0)

i.e., the *representation* with characters (2,0,2,0) is *reducible* (可约的) and can be *reduced* to *the sum of the two* **IRs** A_1 *and* B_1 , i.e., $A_1 \oplus B_1$. ($\oplus \sim$ 直和)

• The two-dimensional representation formed by the two hydrogen 1s orbitals 'spans the *IRs* A_1 and B_1 '. In other words, 'these two orbitals transform as $A_1 \oplus B_1$ '.



2.1.4 A quick method of finding characters



Since we are only interested in the *characters* of the representative matrices (i.e. the sum of the diagonal elements), then *we only need to work out their diagonal elements*.

- If *a symmetry operation* moves an orbital to a different position there will be a 0 on the diagonal of the matrix. e.g. for the effect of C_2^z on s_{A_1}
- If *the symmetry operation* leaves the orbital in the same place, there will be a +1 on the diagonal, e.g., for the effect of σ^{xz} on s_A .
- Finally, if the orbital remains in the same place but just changes sign, a -1 will appear on the diagonal, e.g., for the effect of C_2^z on the O p_x .





2.1.4 A quick method of finding characters



- Simple rules for finding the *character* corresponding to a particular symmetry operation:
 - 1. For each orbital which remains unaffected by the operation, count +1
- 2. For each orbital which remains in the same position but simply changes sign, count -1
- 3. All orbitals that are moved by the operation count *zero*.

In the basis of the two hydrogen 1s orbitals, the procedure is applied in the following way: Operation E: both s_A and s_B unaffected, both count +1; character is +1 + 1 = +2 Operation C_2^Z : both s_A and s_B moved, both count 0; character is 0+0 = 0 Operation σ^{xz} : both s_A and s_B unaffected, both count +1; character is +1 + 1 = +2 Operation σ^{yz} : both s_A and s_B moved, both count +1; character is 0+0 = 0

→ The characters are therefore (2,0,2,0), as we found before.



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2.1.4 A quick method of finding characters



Example: (somewhat hypothetical) two <u>equivalent</u> p_y orbitals on the hydrogens in H₂O.

 \rightarrow x two functions in the basis \rightarrow two -dimensional representation.





2.1.5 Introducing symmetry orbitals

- In section 2.1.3, we saw that the two hydrogen 1s AOs in H₂O transform as $A_1 \oplus B_1$. We should be able to find a (linear) combination of the two AOs which transforms just as A_1 and another combination which transforms as B_1 .
- Let us consider $(s_A \pm s_B)$.





2.1.5 Introducing symmetry orbitals



• (s_A+s_B) and (s_A-s_B) are called *symmetry orbitals (SOs)* or *symmetry adapted linear combinations (SALCs)* because they have the special property that they transform as a single *irreducible representation*.

• *Symmetry orbitals (SOs)* play an important role in the construction of molecular orbital diagrams.

• In this simple case we were able to construct the *symmetry orbitals* by guess, but later on we will see that there is a more systematic way of constructing them.



2.1.6 Using extra information from the character tables



• Returning to H_2O , let us consider what happens to *hypothetical vectors*, each attached to the oxygen and pointing along x, y, and z, respectively.





2.1.6 Using extra information from the character tables **Atomic orbitals**

- The mathematical form of the orbital wavefunction for a $2p_x$ AO (in hydrogen in **atomic** coordinates) is $rsin\theta cos\phi exp(-r/2)$.
- In the normal cartesian coordinate system $x = rsin\theta cos\phi$, the orbital wavefunction can thus be written as $x \cdot exp(-r/2)$.
- Accordingly, it follows that the p_x orbital wavefunction has the same transformation properties as the function x, so we can read off from the table of C_{2v} that p_x transforms as B_1 .
- Similarly, the $2p_y$ and $2p_z$ orbital wavefunctions are $y \cdot exp(-r/2)$ and $z \cdot exp(-r/2)$, respectively, and so transform as y and z, i.e. B_2 and A_1 from the character table of C_{2v} .

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	уz







 C_{2v}

2.1.6 Using extra information from the character tables



- **s** AO transforms like **?** (of spherical symmetry!)
- *d* orbitals ~ their names indicate the corresponding cartesian functions.

 σ^{yz}

 σ^{xz}

e.g., d_{xy} transforms like?.

 C_2^z

E



Q1: which *IR* does the $d_{x^2-y^2}$ AO of O transform like?



In this case, only for AOs of O can we do such reading-off!

Ex.8





2.2 Two-dimensional irreducible representations

- We now switch to BF₃ and focus on the boron *2p orbitals*.
- BF₃ belongs to D_{3h} point group.

 p_v



 $\frac{120^{\circ}}{C_{3}}$ \cdot neither p_{x} nor p_{y} , but seemingly to be the combination of p_{x} and p_{y} . \cdot p_{x} (or x) and p_{y} (or y) are 'mixed' by the C_{3} operation!



2.2 Two-dimensional irreducible representations



In D_{3h} , the vectors along x and y, and likewise the p_x and p_y orbitals of the central boron atom in BF₃, are *mixed* by the operations of the group. They form *a two-dimensional irreducible representation* which *CANNOT* be broken down into *two one-dimensional representations*.

D_{3h}	E	$2C_3$	$3C_2$	σ_h	$2S_3$	$3\sigma_v$				
$\begin{array}{c} A_1'\\ A_2'\\ E' \end{array}$	1 1 2	1 1 -1	$\begin{array}{c} 1\\ -1\\ 0\end{array}$	1 1 2	1 1 -1	$ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{array} $	(<i>x</i> , <i>y</i>)	R_z	$x^2 + y^2; z^2$ $(x^2 - y^2, 2xy)$	How do the characters of the <i>E'IR</i> arise?
$\begin{array}{c} \overline{A_1^{\prime\prime}} \\ A_2^{\prime\prime} \\ E^{\prime\prime} \end{array}$	1 1 2	1 1 -1	$ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{array} $	-1 -1 -2	$-1 \\ -1 \\ 1$	-1 1 0	Z	(R_x, R_y)	(<i>xz</i> , <i>yz</i>)	

• (*x*,*y*) transform as *the irreducible representation E* ', a two-dimensional *IR*.

• In this group there is E'' along with several one-dimensional IRs (all labelled A with various additional annotations).



2.2.1 Forming the characters of a twodimensional irreducible representation

- How do the characters of the *E'IR* arise?
- To do this we will use unit vectors along x and y as our basis, denoted i and j.
- Effect of the C_3 operation on these vectors is simply a problem in geometry.
- For the vectors y and x under C_3^z operation, we have

$$C_{3}j = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i - \frac{1}{2}j \qquad C_{3}i = -\frac{1}{2}i + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}j \qquad -$$

$$C_{3}\binom{i}{j} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \binom{i}{j} \qquad \chi(S_{3}) = \chi(C_{3}) = -1 \\ \chi(\sigma_{h}) = 1 + 1 = 2 \\ \chi(C_{2}x) = 1 - 1 = 0 \qquad -$$

$$\chi(C_{3}) = -1 \qquad \chi(\sigma_{v}xz) = 1 - 1 = 0$$



– sin 60

- cos 60°

- cos 60°

Ex.9



sin 60°



2.3 Reducing a representation (表示的约化)

- So far we have been able to deduce by inspection the irreducible representations from which a particular representation is composed. For example, in the group $C_{2\nu}$ we were able easily to spot that the representation (2, 0, -2, 0) reduces to $A_2 \oplus B_2$.
- However, for more complex examples, a more systematic method is needed, and this is provided by the *reduction formula* (约化公式).
- Some notations:

i) The (arbitrary) representation of a group: $\Gamma = \{\chi(R_1), ..., \chi(R_h)\}$.

e.g., for the representation (2,0,-2,0) in $C_{2\nu}$, $\chi(E) = 2$, $\chi(C_2) = 0$, $\chi(\sigma^{xz}) = -2$ and $\chi(\sigma^{yz}) = 0$.

ii) For *k*th *IR*, $\Gamma^{(k)}$, in the group, the characters are denoted $\chi^{(k)}(R)$.

e.g., for the 4th IR (B₂) (1, -1, -1, 1) in $C_{2\nu}$, $\chi^{(4)}(E) = 1$, $\chi^{(4)}(C_2) = -1$, $\chi^{(4)}(\sigma^{xz}) = -1$ and $\chi^{(4)}(\sigma^{yz}) = 1$.

E	C_2^z	σ^{xz}	σ^{yz}
1	1	1	1
1	1	-1	-1
1	-1	1	-1
1	-1	-1	1
	E 1 1 1 1	$\begin{array}{cccc} E & C_2^z \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{ccccc} E & C_2^z & \sigma^{xz} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -$





2.3 Reducing a representation



• A particular representation Γ can be expressed as a sum of irreducible representations $\Gamma^{(k)}$:

 $\boldsymbol{\Gamma} = a_1 \boldsymbol{\Gamma}^{(1)} \oplus a_2 \boldsymbol{\Gamma}^{(2)} \oplus a_3 \boldsymbol{\Gamma}^{(3)} \oplus \dots$

= $\sum a_k \Gamma^{(k)}$ (a_k : the number of times that the *IR* $\Gamma^{(k)}$ appears in the representation.)

• The *reduction formula* give us a way of finding the coefficients a_k :

$$a_{k} = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{R} \left[\chi^{(k)}(R) \right]^{*} \chi(R)$$

h is the total number of operations in the group, and the * indicates the complex conjugate.

• This formula is simply the scalar product between the *two vectors* formed by the characters of the *irreducible representation* and those of the *representation being reduced*.



2.3 Reducing a representation

Example: reducing a representation (2, 0, -2, 0) in the group C_{2v}

• Now use the reduction formula to determine the coefficient a_1 of the first $IR A_1$ with the characters: $\chi^{(1)}(E) = 1$, $\chi^{(1)}(C_2) = 1$, $\chi^{(1)}(\sigma^{xz}) = 1$, $\chi^{(1)}(\sigma^{yz}) = 1$ $a_1 = \sum_R \frac{1}{h} [\chi^{(1)}(R)]^* \chi(R)$ $= \frac{1}{4} ([\chi^{(1)}(E)]^* \chi(E) + [\chi^{(1)}(C_2)]^* \chi(C_2) + [\chi^{(1)}(\sigma^{xz})]^* \chi(\sigma^{xz}) + [\chi^{(1)}(\sigma^{xz})]^* \chi(\sigma^{yz}) = 0$



2.3 Reducing a representation

• The next *IR* is *A*₂,

$$a_2 = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{R} \left[\chi^{(2)}(R) \right]^* \chi(R) = 1$$

$$a_3 = \frac{1}{h} \sum_R \left[\chi^{(2)}(R) \right]^* \chi(R) = 0$$

• For the 4th IR B_2 , we have $a_4 = 1$.

• The representation (2,0,-2,0) thus reduces to $\Gamma^{(2)} \oplus \Gamma^{(4)}$, i.e., $A_2 \oplus B_2$.





2.3.1 Reduction formula in terms of classes

- How and a transmission
- Operations in the *same class* have the *same character* for a given *IR*. Similar trend holds for an arbitrary representation *Γ*.
- Accordingly, the use of the reduction formula can be somewhat simplified!

		<i>g</i> (c)				-				
D_{3h}	E	$2C_3$	3 <i>C</i> ₂	σ_h	2 <i>S</i> ₃	$3\sigma_v$					$\sum \frac{1}{\left[\binom{k}{2}\right]^{*}}$
A'_1	1	1	1	1	1	1			$x^2 + y^2; z^2$	$a_k = $	$\sum_{n} \overline{h} \left[\chi^{(n)}(R) \right] \chi(R)$
A_2^{i}	1	1	-1	1	1	-1		R_z			R
$E^{\tilde{\prime}}$	2	-1	0	2	-1	0	(x, y)		$(x^2 - y^2, 2xy)$	1 🔽	
A_1''	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1				$=\frac{1}{7}$	$g(c) \chi^{(k)}(c) ^* \chi(c)$
$A_2^{\prime\prime}$	1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	z			h Z	
$E^{\tilde{\prime}\prime}$	2	-1	0	-2	1	0		(R_x, R_y)	(xz, yz)		
											Number of operations
								c th	class of open	rations	within the <i>c</i> th class

• Example: a basis consisting of the *three equivalent 2s orbitals* on the *fluorine atoms* in BF₃.

2.3.1 Reduction formula in terms of classes

For BF_3 , we *'count'* the characters for *each class* of operations in the basis of 3xF 2s.







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2.3.1 Reduction formula in terms of classes

• Hence, the representation generated by these three *s* orbitals is (3,0,1,3,0,1), with operations in the *same class* being grouped together.

D_{3h}	Ε	$2C_3$	$3C_2$	σ_h	2 <i>S</i> ₃	$3\sigma_v$	• For A_{I}' , $a_{1} = \frac{1}{h} \sum g(c) [\chi^{(k)}(c)]^{*} \chi(c) = 1$
$egin{array}{c} A_1' \ A_2' \end{array}$	1 1	1 1	1 -1	1 1	1 1	1 -1	• For A_2' , $a_2 = 0$
$ar{E'} A_1''$	2 1	-1 1	0 1	2 -1	-1 -1	0 -1	• For E' , $a_3 = 1$
$A_2^{\prime\prime} E^{\prime\prime}$	1 2	1 -1	$-1 \\ 0$	$-1 \\ -2$	-1 1	1 0	• $a_{4-6} = 0$
(3xF2s) 3	0	1	3	0	1	$\rightarrow \boldsymbol{\Pi}(3 \times F2s) = \boldsymbol{A_1' \boldsymbol{\Theta} E'}$
(3xF2p	z) 3	0	-1	-3	0	1	$ \rightarrow \Gamma(3\mathrm{xF2p}_{z}) = A_{2} '' \mathcal{O} E''' $





2.3.2 A possible quick method for reducing representations



• A helpful method to reduce the labour:

1. Multiply the characters of the representation to be reduced by the number of operations in each class. For the example here (3,0,1,3,0,1) becomes $(1 \times 3, 2 \times 0, 3 \times 1, 1 \times 3, 2 \times 0, 3 \times 1)$ i.e. (3,0,3,3,0,3).

2. Take a piece of paper and line up its edge beneath the top row of the character table (where the operations are listed); write in the numbers you have determined in *step 1* in the correct columns.



2.3.2 A possible quick method for reducing representations



3. Move the paper down until the characters for the first IR are revealed; multiply these by the numbers written on the paper (you can usually do this in your head), and divide by h. This gives you the number of times the first IR is present.

D_{3h}	Ε	$2C_3$	$3C_2$	σ_h	$2S_3$	$3\sigma_v$
A_1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	3	0	3	3	0	3

Advantages:

- reducing the number of calculations at each step.
- focusing on one IR at a time.

3 3 0 3
$$1 \times 3 + 1 \times 0 + 1 \times 3 + 1 \times 0 + 1 \times 3 = 12$$

4. Move the paper down until the next *IR* is revealed and repeat the process.



2.3.3 Checking that you have reduced a representation correctly



Two easy checks to *ensure* that a representation has been reduced correctly.

1. The number of times a representation is present can be *zero* or *a positive integer*.

2. The sum of the irreducible representations, each multiplied by the number of times they are present, must be equal to the representation you reduced.

e.g., in D_{3h} we found that the representation (3,0,1,3,0,1) reduced to $A_1' \oplus E'$.

To check we simply add up the characters of the *IR*s:

 $1 \times A_1' + 1 \times E'$

 $= 1 \times (1,1,1,1,1,1) + 1 \times (2,-1,0,2,-1,0) = (3,0,1,3,0,1) \sqrt{OK}$



2.4 The names of irreducible representations



1.	One-dimensional IRs: A or B,
	two-dimensional IRs: E;
	three-dimensional <i>IR</i> s: <i>T</i> .



2. 1-D *IR*s are *labelled A* if the character under *the rotation about the principal axis is* +1 and *B* if it *is* -1. (*A* ~ symmetric upon the rotation about the principal axis; $B \sim$ antisymmetry upon the rotation about the principal axis)

3. In presence of a centre of symmetry, *a subscript g* is added if the character under the inversion operation is +1 (i.e. '*gerade*' or even) whereas if the character is -1 *a subscript u* is added (i.e. '*ungerade*' or odd).



2.4 The names of irreducible representations



4. Reflection upon σ_h plane:

IRs *symmetric* added a prime ('), *anti-symmetric* added a double prime (").

5. Subscript numerals 1, 2... are added to further distinguish the *IR*s which would otherwise have the same label.

	D_{3h}	E	$2C_3$	3 <i>C</i> ₂	σ_h	2 <i>S</i> ₃	$3\sigma_v$			
1	A'_1	1	1	1	1	1	1			$x^2 + y^2; z^2$
2	A'_2	1	1	-1	1	1	-1		R_z	
3	$E^{\tilde{\prime}}$	2	-1	0	2	-1	0	(<i>x</i> , <i>y</i>)		$(x^2 - y^2, 2xy)$
4	$A_1^{\prime\prime}$	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1			
5	$A_2^{\prime\prime}$	1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	z		
6	$E^{\overline{\prime\prime}}$	2	-1	0	-2	1	0		(R_x, R_y)	(xz, yz)



1. By *choosing a basis* (e.g. a set of orbitals, functions or vectors) we can *form a representation* of the operations *of a group*.

2. If the basis consists of just one function, the representation will simply be *a set of numbers* (a one-dimensional representation). If the basis consists of N functions, the representation will be a set of $N \times N$ matrices (i.e., *N-dimensional*).

3. The *traces* (sum of diagonal elements) of these matrices are called the *characters*; *the characters* are far *more important* than the matrices themselves.





4. A given representation (i.e. set of characters) can always be reduced *to a sum of irreducible representations*. These *IR*s are listed in *the character table*.

5. The *IR*s *corresponding to simple functions* are indicated in the *character table*.

6. The irreducible representations which comprise a particular representation can be found either *by inspection* or *by systematic* application of the *reduction formula*.

7. For a set of orbitals (or other objects), the *characters* can be found by using the *'counting method'* in which we count +1 for an *orbital which does not move*, 0 for an orbital which *moves*, and -1 for an orbital which *does not move but simply changes sign*.

8. Operations in the *same class* have the *same character*.



More about irreducible representations



• For a given point group of *h*-order, the *h*-dimensional vectors whose components are the characters of two irreducible representations are orthogonal.

$$\sum_{\boldsymbol{R}} \chi_{i(\boldsymbol{R})} \chi_{j(\boldsymbol{R})} = \boldsymbol{h} \delta_{ij}$$

• If d_j is the dimension of *j*th IR and *h* is the order of a group, then

$$\sum_{j} d_{j}^{2} = h$$
$$\sum_{j} [\chi_{j}(E)]^{2} = h$$

As $\chi_j(E) = d_j$, then