Advanced Group Theoretical Methods in Theoretical Chemistry

Introduction to the Workshop on Theoretical Chemistry

Dirk Andrae

Institut für Chemie und Biochemie, Freie Universität Berlin dirk.andrae@fu-berlin.de

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Outline

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Introduction

Group theory is the mathematics of symmetry ...

'Group-theoretical deductions are usually quite easy to perform and the information so obtained concerning the solutions [of the Schrödinger equation (DA)], although not complete, often contains the essential physics.'

M Weissbluth, Atoms and Molecules, Academic Press, 1974, p 204

... and is hence an essential tool for our understanding.

How to specify the state of a quantum system?

A quantum state is completely specified by its eigenvalues associated with a complete set of commuting operators (CSCO).

> PAM Dirac, The Principles of Quantum Mechanics, Oxford University Press, 1930 S Gasiorowicz, Quantum Physics, Wiley, 1974

H atom $|nlm^{2}L\rangle$ (\hat{H} , \hat{L}^{2} , \hat{L}_{z} are part of the CSCO for this case):

 $\begin{aligned} \widehat{H} \ |nlm^{2}L\rangle &= -(2n^{2})^{-1} E_{h} |nlm^{2}L\rangle \\ \widehat{L}^{2} |nlm^{2}L\rangle &= l(l+1) \hbar^{2} |nlm^{2}L\rangle, \qquad \widehat{L}_{z} |nlm^{2}L\rangle = m \hbar |nlm^{2}L\rangle \end{aligned}$

The CSCO contains \hat{H} , \hat{L} and \hat{A} (Runge-Lenz vector). In this special case (one-electron atom), the symmetry group is isomorphic to SO(4) (group of rotations of a 4D sphere).

Scheme of terms for four p electrons.



H Hellmann, Einführung in die Quantenchemie, Deuticke, 1937, Springer, 2015, Tabelle 28

"Wenn man sich einmal das Schema [...] notiert hat, kann man die interessierenden Energien fast unmittelbar hinschreiben. Es sei noch erwähnt, daß die Heranziehung des Vektormodells für diese Rechnung eigentlich eine Benutzung gruppentheoretischer Sätze bedeutet. Diese Sätze finden im Vektormodell eine überaus anschauliche und bequeme Formulierung. Wenn man das Vektormodell benutzt. muß man sich nur darüber klar sein, daß es sich dabei um eine begueme Modellvorstellung zur Fixierung abstrakter und streng bewiesener mathematischer Sätze handelt."

'Once one has noticed the scheme [...] one can write down the energies of interest almost immediately. It is worth to remark that the use of the vector coupling model for this calculation actually means the use of theorems of group theory. These theorems are expressed in a very obvious and convenient form by the vector coupling model. But when the vector coupling model is used one has to be aware that it is nothing more than a convenient model to express abstract and strictly proven mathematical theorems.'

H Hellmann, Einführung in die Quantenchemie, Deuticke, 1937, Springer, 2015, p 251f

Electron configurations and terms in atoms

$$\frac{{}_{3}\text{Li } 2\text{s}^{1} \left(\binom{2}{1} = 2 \ / \ \mathbf{1} \text{ term}\right)}{\frac{2S+1 \quad 2S \ | \ S \ | \ \#}{2 \quad 1 \ | \ 1 \ | \ 2}}$$

... forms the simplest metal non-simple form of bonding ... \ldots forms open-shell system O_2 \ldots \ldots simple enough to learn from \ldots

EU Condon, GH Shortley, The Theory of Atomic Spectra, Cambridge Univ Press, 1935, p 208

Electron configurations and terms in atoms (contd.)

O atom: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^4 ...$... (p_{+1}, p_0, p_{-1}) in K_b : ${}^{3}P_{\sigma} / {}^{1}D_{\sigma} / {}^{1}S_{\sigma}$ \dots (p_x, p_y, p_z) in D_{2b}: ${}^{3}B_{1g} \oplus {}^{3}B_{2g} \oplus {}^{3}B_{3g}$ ${}^{1}A_{\sigma}(2) \oplus {}^{1}B_{1\sigma} \oplus {}^{1}B_{2\sigma} \oplus {}^{1}B_{3\sigma} / {}^{1}A_{\sigma}$... (p_x, p_y, p_z) in C_{2y} : ${}^{3}B_{1} \oplus {}^{3}B_{2} \oplus {}^{3}A_{2}$ ${}^{1}A_{1}(2) \oplus {}^{1}B_{1} \oplus {}^{1}B_{2} \oplus {}^{1}A_{2} / {}^{1}A_{1}$... (p_x, p_y, p_z) in C_1 : ${}^{3}A(3) / {}^{1}A(5) / {}^{1}A$

... and **all results** — degeneracies, energies, occupation numbers, orbital radial parts **are always the same!** NIST Atomic Spectra Databa

Density of states:



NIST Atomic Spectra Database (http://physics.nist.gov/asd)

Electron configurations and terms in atoms (contd.)

₂₂ Ti 3d ²	4s ² (($\binom{10}{2}$	= 45	5 / 5	i ter	ms)			
2 <i>S</i> + 1	2 <i>S</i>	S	Ρ	D	F	G	#	_	
1 3	0 2	1	- 1	1	- 1	1	15 30	_	
		1					45	-	
$_{25}$ Mn ²⁺ 3	8d ⁵ ((10 5	= 25	52 /	16 t	erm	s)		
2 <i>S</i> + 1	2 <i>S</i>	S	Ρ	D	F	G	Н	Ι	#
2	1	1	1	3	2	2	1	1	150
4	3	-	1	1	1	1	—	-	96
6	5	1	—	—	—	—	-	-	6

GAMESS inputs for SCF jobs for all terms from p^q and d^q , and for the high-spin terms from f^q (0 < q < 4l + 2, state-optimized or state-averaged) see: http://userpage.fu-berlin.de/~dandrae/openshell/openls/openls.html

Electron configurations and terms in diatomics



G Herzberg, Spectra of Diatomic Molecules, Van Nostrand, 1950, p 446 / KP Huber, G Herzberg, Constants of Diatomic Molecules, Van Nostrand, 1979 / PF Bernath, Spectra of Atoms and Molecules, 2nd ed, Oxford, 2005, p 326

Electron configurations and terms in diatomics (contd.)

$\mathrm{O_2}\;{\pi_{\mathrm{g}}}^2$ ($\binom{4}{2} = 6 / 3$	terms	;)			
2S + 1	$2S \mid \Sigma_g^+$	Σ_g^-	Π_{g}	Δ_g	#	Several bound states
1	0 1	_	_	1	3	out of a single electron
3	2 –	1	-	-	3	configuration
					6	

O ^{3}P + O ^{3}P (lowest asymptote: $9 \cdot 9 = 81$ / **18** terms)

2 <i>S</i> + 1	2 <i>S</i>	Σ_g^+	Σ_g^-	Π _g	Δ_g	Σ_u^+	Σ_u^-	Π_u	Δ_u	#
1	0	2	-	1	1	-	1	1	_	9
3	2	_	1	1	-	2	-	1	1	27
5	4	2	-	1	1	-	1	1	-	45
										81

G Herzberg, *Spectra of Diatomic Molecules*, Van Nostrand, 1950, p 321 (Wigner-Witmer rules, 1928) P Su et al, J Comput Chem **28** (2007) 185 (VB study) **Groups** — General Aspects

General Aspects

Group. A group $\mathcal{G} = (S, *)$ results from a set of objects, S, and a law of combination, * (usually called *multiplication*), when the following requirements are fulfilled:

(1) Closure: $a * b \in \mathcal{G} \quad \forall a, b \in \mathcal{G}$ (2) Multiplication is associative: $a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c \quad \forall a, b, c \in \mathcal{G}$ (3) Existence of a neutral element e: $a * e = e * a = a \quad \forall a \in \mathcal{G}$ (4) Existence of inverse elements: $a * a' = a' * a = e \quad \forall a \in \mathcal{G}$

Group element. Any member of the set forming a group.

Abelian group. [1] A group where multiplication is commutative: $a * b = b * a \qquad \forall a, b \in \mathcal{G}$

[1] named after Niels Henrik Abel (1802–1829, Norwegian mathematician)

Order of the group \mathcal{G} . The cardinality of the set S forming the group \mathcal{G} , usually denoted as h or $|\mathcal{G}|$.

- $h \in \mathbb{N}$: \mathcal{G} is a **finite** group (*h* is the number of its elements). **Example:** Symmetry operations of a Platonic solid.
- $h = \infty$ (countably infinite): \mathcal{G} is an **infinite discrete** group. **Example:** Translations of a crystal lattice.
- $h = \infty$ (continuous): G is a **continuous** group.

Example: Rotations of a plane.

Order of the element *a***.** The smallest positive integer *n* such that $a^n = e$.

Generators of a group. A smallest set of elements from which the complete group can be generated.

Some more examples:

- ▶ integer numbers Z with addition (Abelian group, countably infinite order)
- ► rational numbers Q \ {0} with multiplication (Abelian group, countably infinite order)
- ► complex roots of unity $\{\exp(i2\pi k/n), i^2 = -1, k = 1, ..., n\}$ with multiplication (Abelian group, order *n*, a cyclic group)
- ► $Q = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$ $(i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1, ij = k)$ with multiplication (quaternion group, non-Abelian, order 8)
- ▶ permutations of *n* objects (symmetric group S_n, n > 1) (order n!, non-Abelian for n > 2)
- ▶ nonsingular n × n matrices with matrix multiplication (non-Abelian continuous group, important for representation theory)
- ► rotations of a sphere (SO(3), special orthogonal group in ℝ³, real orthogonal 3 × 3 matrices, non-Abelian continuous group)

Subgroup of a group. A subgroup \mathcal{H} of a group \mathcal{G} is a subset which obeys the group requirements, usually denoted as $\mathcal{H} \leq \mathcal{G}$. Every group \mathcal{G} has $\{e\}$ as trivial subgroup, and itself as improper subgroup. Lagrange's theorem (for finite groups): $|\mathcal{G}| = k \cdot |\mathcal{H}|$ $(k \in \mathbb{N})$.

Conjugate elements. Given $p, q, x \in G$, then p and q are said to be conjugate if a similarity transform of p by x yields q (and vice versa):

 $x^{-1} p x = q \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad p = x q x^{-1}$

Classes of conjugate elements. All elements conjugate to p, $x^{-1} p \times (x \in \mathcal{G})$, constitute a class of the group. For every group \mathcal{G} , the classes of conjugate elements provide a decomposition into disjoint subsets of group elements. In Abelian groups, every group element is in a class by itself.

Mapping of groups. Given two groups \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G}' . A mapping $\varphi : \mathcal{G} \mapsto \mathcal{G}'$ assigns to each element $g \in \mathcal{G}$ an element $g' = \varphi(g) \in \mathcal{G}'$, such that every $g' \in \mathcal{G}'$ is the image of at least one $g \in \mathcal{G}$.

Homomorphism. If $\varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2) = \varphi(g_1g_2)$, for all $g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{G}$, then φ is a homomorphic mapping of \mathcal{G} on \mathcal{G}' : $\mathcal{G} \mapsto \mathcal{G}'$. Such a mapping is always *n*-to-one (n > 1).

Isomorphism. If the mapping φ is one-to-one (hence invertible), then it is an isomorphic mapping of \mathcal{G} on \mathcal{G}' : $\mathcal{G} \simeq \mathcal{G}'$. Isomorphic groups have the *same* group structure, they are simply different realizations of the same abstract group.

How many essentially different (i. e., non-isomorphic) finite groups exist for given order h?

h	Na	<i>N</i> _n	Ν	h	N _a	N _n	Ν	h	Na	N _n	Ν
1	1	0	1	8	3	2	5	15	1	0	1
2	1	0	1	9	2	0	2	16	5	9	14
3	1	0	1	10	1	1	2	17	1	0	1
4	2	0	2	11	1	0	1	18	2	3	5
5	1	0	1	12	2	3	5	19	1	0	1
6	1	1	2	13	1	0	1	20	2	3	5
7	1	0	1	14	1	1	2				

Table 1: Number of finite groups for small values of the order h [1].

[1] On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences (https://oeis.org/), sequences A000001 ($N = N_a + N_n$), A000688 (N_a number of Abelian groups) and A060689 (N_n number of non-Abelian groups)

Cayley tables for the finite groups with $1 \le h \le 6$:

-

	Z_1	е		<i>Z</i> ₄	e	а	a	² a ³	3					
	е	е		е	e	а	a	2 a ³	3					
_				а	a	a ²	a	°е		7 5	e	а	a^2	$a^{3} a^{4}$
Z_2	$\simeq S_2$	е	а	, a ²	a	$^{2} a^{3}$	е	а	-	-5	-		-2 -2	-3 -4
	е	е	а	a ³	a ³	°е	а	a	2	e	e	a -2	a a	a'a -4
	а	а	е							a^2	a 2	a 3	a a	
Z ₃	е	а	a^2	V	e	а	b	i i	ab	a a ³	a a ³	a ⁴	e a	e a a a ²
		2	2 ²	– e	e	а	b	i i	ab '	a^4	a^4	е	a a	$a^2 a^3$
6	6	a 2	a	а	a	е	a	D	5					
a	a	a-	е	Ь	b	ab	е	ć	3					
a²	a²	е	а	ab	al	b b	а	6	9					
<i>Z</i> ₆	е	а	a ²	a ³	a ⁴	a ⁵		<i>S</i> ₃	e	а	a²	² b	ba	ab
е	е	а	a^2	a ³	a ⁴	a ⁵		е	e	а	a^2	² b	ba	ab
а	а	a^2	a^3	a^4 .	a ⁵	е		а	a	a^2	2 е	ab	, b	ba
a ²	a^2	a^3	a^4	a^5	9	а		a^2	a ²	е	а	ba	ab	b
a ³	a ³	a^4	a^5	e .	а	a ²		b	Ь	ba	a al	b e	а	a^2
a^4	a^4	a^5	е	a .	a ²	a ³		ba	ba	al	b b	a^2	е	а
a ⁵	a ⁵	е	а	a ² .	a ³	a^4		ab	ab	b	ba	a a	a ²	е

Cayley tables for the finite groups with $1 \le h \le 6$:

-

	Z_1	е		Z_4	е	а	a^2	a ³	}					
	е	е		е	е	а	a ²	a ³	}					
_	_			а	а	a^2	a ³	е		7 5	е	a a	$a^2 a^3$	$^{3} a^{4}$
Z_2	$\simeq S_2$	е	а	, a ²	a ²	a^3	е	а	_	-5	-		-2 -3	3 4
	е	e	а	a ³	a ³	е	а	a^2	2	e	e	a a	a a'	
	а	а	е							a 2	a^2	a- a	a a	e
<i>Z</i> ₃	е	а	a ²	<u>V</u>	e	a	b	a	b	a^{-}	a^{-}	a^4 of	e a	a ²
е	е	а	a ²	– e a	a	e	a	b b)	a ⁴	a^4	e a	a a ²	$^2 a^3$
а	а	a ²	е	b	Ь	ab	e	a	,					
a ²	a ²	е	а	ab	ab	b	a	e	•					
<i>Z</i> 6	е	а	a ²	a ³ a	4 a	5		<i>S</i> ₃	e	а	a ²	b	ba	ab
е	е	а	a^2	a ³ a	⁴ a	5		е	е	а	a^2	b	ba	ab
а	а	a^2	a^3	a ⁴ a	⁵ e			а	а	a ²	е	ab	b	ba
a ²	a^2	a ³	a^4	а ⁵ е	a			a^2	a ²	е	а	ba	ab	Ь
a^3	a^3	a^4	a^5	e a	i a	2		b	Ь	ba	a ab	е	а	a^2
a ⁴	a^4	a^5	е	a a	² a	3		ba	ba	ab	o b	a^2	е	а
a ⁵	a ⁵	е	а	a ² a	³ a	4		ab	ab	b	ba	а	a ²	е

Invariant subgroup (or normal subgroup or self-conjugate subgroup). Given a subgroup \mathcal{H} of a group \mathcal{G} . If

 $x\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}x \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad x\mathcal{H}x^{-1} = \mathcal{H} \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{G} \setminus \mathcal{H}$

then \mathcal{H} is an invariant subgroup of \mathcal{G} , written as $\mathcal{H} \triangleleft \mathcal{G}$. An invariant subgroup \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{G} consists of complete classes of \mathcal{G} .

Simple group. A simple group \mathcal{G} has only the trivial subgroup of order one (containing the identity element of the group) and itself (as improper subgroup) as invariant subgroups:

 $\{e\} \lhd \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{G} \lhd \mathcal{G}$.

The role of simple groups in group theory is comparable to the role of the prime numbers in number theory.

Classification theorem of finite simple groups.

Every finite simple group is isomorphic to one of the following groups:

- A cyclic group of prime order, Z_p
- An alternating group of degree at least 5, A_n (n > 4)
- A simple group of Lie type [1] over a finite field (16 infinite families)
- The 27 sporadic simple groups.

 A_n (n > 4) is a simple group \Rightarrow Important consequence: Non-existence of *general* algebraic solution for polynomial equations of degree 5 or higher (Abel–Ruffini theorem, 1799/1823) [2,3]

Direct product of groups. Given two finite groups $\mathcal{G}_a = (\{a_1 = e, a_i\}, *)$ $(i = 2, ..., h_a)$ and $\mathcal{G}_b = (\{b_1 = e, b_j\}, *)$ $(j = 2, ..., h_b)$, for which holds $a_i * b_j = b_j * a_i$ for all a_i, b_j . Then the direct product group \mathcal{G} is defined as

 $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}_a \times \mathcal{G}_b = (\{a_i * b_j\}, *).$

The order of \mathcal{G} is $h = h_a h_b$. The groups \mathcal{G}_a and \mathcal{G}_b are invariant subgroups of \mathcal{G} . Important special cases include direct products of pure rotation groups (C_n , D_n , T, O, I) with C_s or C_i .

^[1] named after Sophus Lie (1842-1899, Norwegian mathematician)

^[2] named after Paolo Ruffini (1765-1822, Italian mathematician)

^[3] for more details see P Pesic: Abel's Proof; MIT Press, 2003

Anything missing?

Well, a lot — for example:

Cosets (left cosets, right cosets, double cosets), automorphism, factor group, ...

Representation Theory (reducible representations, irreducible representations [IRs], characters, character tables, Kronecker products, simply reducible groups, Clebsch–Gordan coefficients, projection operators, Wigner–Eckart theorem, ...)

Angular Momentum Theory

•••

Finite Groups

An example of a permutation group

group element	two-line notation	disjoint cycle notation	cycle structure	matrix notation	trace of matrix
е	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1&2&3\\1&2&3\end{array}\right)$	(1)(2)(3)	f_{1}^{3}	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$	3
а	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1&2&3\\2&3&1\end{array}\right)$	(123)	f ₃	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)$	0
a ²	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1&2&3\\3&1&2\end{array}\right)$	(132)	f_3	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}\right)$	0
Ь	$\left(\begin{array}{rrr}1&2&3\\2&1&3\end{array}\right)$	(12)(3)	$f_{1}f_{2}$	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array}\right)$	1
ba	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1&2&3\\1&3&2\end{array}\right)$	(1)(23)	$f_{1}f_{2}$	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1\\ 0 & 1 & 0\end{array}\right)$	1
ab	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1&2&3\\3&2&1\end{array}\right)$	(13)(2)	$f_1 f_2$	$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)$	1

The elements of the symmetric group S_3 (the 3! = 6 permutations of 3 objects):

Subgroups: $\{e\}$, $\{e, a, a^2\}$, $\{e, b\}$, $\{e, ba\}$, $\{e, ab\}$, S_3 / Classes: $\{e\}$, $\{a, a^2\}$, $\{b, ba, ab\}$

Importance of permutation groups, in particular of the symmetric groups S_n :

Cayley's theorem [1]. Any group of order h = n is isomorphic to a subgroup of the symmetric group S_n .

Pauli exclusion principle. The total wave function $|\Psi\rangle$ for a system of *n* indistinguishable fermions [bosons] has to transform – under permutations of these particles – in accordance with the totally antisymmetrical [totally symmetrical] irreducible representation (IR) of S_n (both IRs are one-dimensional).

Quantum mechanical treatment of nuclear motion makes use of the **complete nuclear permutation and inversion** (CNPI) group, e. g. ethene, C_2H_4 : $\mathcal{G} = S_4^{(H)} \times S_2^{(C)} \times \{\widehat{E}, \widehat{E}^*\}^a$ (the order of this group is $h = 4! \cdot 2! \cdot 2 = 96$).

[1] named after Arthur Cayley (1821–1895, British mathematician) ^a \hat{E} identity ($\hat{E}\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}$), \hat{E}^* space inversion ($\hat{E}^*\mathbf{r} = -\mathbf{r}$).

Symmetry Operations and Point Groups

Symmetry operation. An operation that carries an object into a situation indistinguishable from its situation before application of the operation.

Symmetry element. A geometrical object (point, line, plane), or a combination thereof, with respect to which certain symmetry operations may be carried out.

Important note: Symmetry *elements* (e. g. inverison centre, axes, planes) are not group *elements*, but symmetry operations (e. g. rotations, reflections) are.

Point group. A group formed by the set of symmetry operations of a rigid physical object. The two kinds of symmetry operations in point groups are **proper rotations** (physically feasible) and **improper rotations** (roto-reflections or roto-inversions, not physically feasible).

Symbol	Generators	Symmetry elements	Order	Comments
$C_1 \\ C_s \\ C_i$	$ \begin{array}{c} \widehat{E} \\ \widehat{\sigma} \\ \widehat{i} \end{array} $	none σ i	1 2 2	no symmetry $\mathbf{C}_{s} = \mathbf{C}_{1h} = \mathbf{C}_{1v} = \mathbf{S}_{1}$ $\mathbf{C}_{i} = \mathbf{S}_{2}$
C_n S_{2n} C_{nh} C_{nv} D_n D_{nh} D_{nd}	$ \begin{array}{c} \widehat{C}_n \\ \widehat{S}_{2n} \\ \widehat{C}_n, \ \widehat{\sigma}_h \\ \widehat{C}_{n,r}, \ \widehat{\sigma}_v \\ \widehat{C}_{n,r}, \ \widehat{C}_{2}', \ \widehat{\sigma}_h \\ \widehat{C}_{n,r}, \ \widehat{C}_{d,r}', \ \widehat{\sigma}_d \end{array} $	C_n C_n, S_{2n} C_n, σ_h, S_n $C_n, n\sigma_v$ C_n, nC'_2 $C_n, nC'_2, S_n, \sigma_h, n\sigma_v$ $C_n, nC'_2, S_{2n}, n\sigma_d$	n 2n 2n 2n 2n 4n 4n	n = 2, 3, 4,; Abelian Abelian regular <i>n</i> -gonal pyramid regular <i>n</i> -gonal prism
$C_{\infty v}^{na}$ $D_{\infty h}$	$\widehat{C}_{\infty}, \overline{\widehat{\sigma}}_{v}$ $\widehat{C}_{\infty}, \widehat{C}'_{2}, \widehat{\sigma}_{h}$	$C_{\infty}, \ \infty \sigma_{v}$ $C_{\infty}, \ \infty \sigma_{v}, \ S_{\infty}, \ \infty C'_{2}$	$\infty \\ \infty$	Full sym. of cone Full sym. of cylinder
T T _h	$ \begin{array}{c} \widehat{C}_{3}^{(111)}, \ \widehat{C}_{2}^{(z)} \\ \widehat{C}_{3}^{(111)}, \ \widehat{C}_{2}^{(z)}, \ \widehat{i} \end{array} $	4 <i>C</i> ₃ , 3 <i>C</i> ₂ 4 <i>C</i> ₃ , 3 <i>C</i> ₂ , 4 <i>S</i> ₆ , 3 <i>σ</i> _ν	12 24	Rotations of $\{3,3\}$
Т _d О О _h І	$ \begin{array}{c} \widehat{C}_{3}^{(111)}, \widehat{S}_{4}^{(z)} \\ \widehat{C}_{3}^{(111)}, \widehat{C}_{4}^{(z)} \\ \widehat{C}_{3}^{(111)}, \widehat{C}_{4}^{(z)}, \widehat{i} \\ \widehat{C}_{3}^{(ico)}, \widehat{C}_{5}^{(z)} \\ \widehat{C}_{3}^{(ico)}, \widehat{C}_{5}^{(z)} \\ \widehat{C}_{5}^{(ico)}, \widehat{C}_{5}^{(ico)} \\ \widehat{C}_$	$\begin{array}{l} 4C_3,\ 3C_2,\ 3S_4,\ 6\sigma_d\\ 4C_3,\ 3C_4,\ 6C_2\\ 4C_3,\ 3C_4,\ 6C_2,\ 3S_4,\ 4S_6,\ 3\sigma_h,\ 6\sigma_d\\ 6C_5,\ 10C_3,\ 15C_2 \end{array}$	24 24 48 60	Full symmetry of {3,3} Rotations of {3,4} Full symmetry of {3,4} Rotations of {3,5}
l _h	$C_3^{(i,co)}, C_5^{(z)}, i$	$6C_5$, $10C_3$, $15C_2$, $12S_{10}$, $10S_6$, 15σ	120	Full symmetry of $\{3,5\}$

Table 2: Point groups in three-dimensional space (except K and K_h) [1].[1] adapted from JA Salthouse, MJ Ware: Point group character tables and related data. Cambridge, 1972, p 1629/74

An algorithm to determine the point group from symmetry elements¹



 1 JA Salthouse, MJ Ware: Point group character tables and related data. Cambridge, 1972, p 29

Determination of point groups C_{nv}^{1} (Examples: H₂O [n = 2], NH₃ [n = 3])



 1 JA Salthouse, MJ Ware: Point group character tables and related data. Cambridge, 1972, p 29

Determination of the point group D_{2h}^{1} (Example: C₂H₄)



¹ JA Salthouse, MJ Ware: *Point group character tables and related data*. Cambridge, 1972, p 29

Benzene

]		25							_	
		 ✓ 	\searrow	^		6 -						1	1	
K				>		4 -				_	1	1	5	
	\checkmark	' \J		\checkmark		C			1	1	2	4	0	
Ke	kulé	structu	res (top) and		2 -		1	T	2	3	5	9	
D	ewar	structu	res (bot	ttom)		0 -		-	1	-	2	0	5	
Branchi	ng dia	agram f	or elect	rons	►							1		
(up to /	V = 6	electro	ons)					1	2	3	4	5	6	Ν
D _{6h}	Ê	$2\widehat{C}_{6}$	2 \widehat{C}_{3}	\widehat{C}_2	$3\widehat{C}_2'$	3 $\widehat{C}_{2}^{\prime\prime}$	î	$2\widehat{S}_3$	2	\widehat{S}_6	$\widehat{\sigma}_h$	$3\widehat{\sigma}_d$	$3\hat{\sigma}$	v
Γ_K^{red}	2	0	2	0	0	2	0	2		0	2	2	0	
Γ_D^{red}	3	0	0	3	1	1	3	0		0	3	1	1	

 $\begin{aligned} \Gamma_{K}^{red} &= A_{1g} \oplus B_{2u} \\ \Gamma_{D}^{red} &= A_{1g} \oplus E_{2g} \end{aligned}$

 \Rightarrow

Both the Kekulé structures and the Dewar structures contribute to the electronic grond state $\tilde{X}^{-1}A_{1g}$ (S_0) of benzene, but the Dewar structures do not contribute to the lowest excited singlet state ${}^{1}B_{2u}$ (S_1).

Benzene (contd) — Counting derivatives $C_6H_{6-k}X_k$ [1,2]

Symmetry operations (from either D_6 or D_{6h}) induce permutations among the positions of the H atoms

Cycle index $Z_{rot} = Z_{full}$ (summarizes permutational structure of parent compound), here:

$$Z = \frac{1}{12} \left(f_1^6 + 3f_1^2 f_2^2 + 4f_2^3 + 2f_3^2 + 2f_6 \right)$$

Substitution of f_i by figure counting function (here: $f_i = 1 + x^i$) yields counting polynomial G(x), here:

$$G(x) = \sum_{k} a_{k} x^{k} = 1 + x + 3x^{2} + 3x^{3} + 3x^{4} + x^{5} + x^{6}$$

[1] G Pólya, Acta Math. 68 (1937) 145-254

[2] G Pólya, RC Read, Combinatorial Enumeration of Groups, Graphs, and Chemical Compounds; Springer, 1987



The complete set of benzene derivatives $C_6H_{6-k}X_k$ ($0 \le k \le 6$), showing their structural formulas, point group symbols and encoding strings [1].

[1] AP Bhati, D Andrae, submitted for publication (2015)

Magnitude of molecular static electric dipole moments μ (in Debye) of polar benzene derivatives $C_6H_{6-k}X_k$ ($1 \le k \le 5$, X = F or X = CI) [1].

k	benzene derivative	encoding	μ	a
	(point group)	string	X = F	X = CI
1	$C_{6}H_{5}X(C_{2v})$	100000	1.34 (1.60)	1.91 (1.69)
2	$1,2-C_{6}H_{4}X_{2}(C_{2v})$	110000	2.25 (2.46)	2.75 (2.50)
	$1,3-C_{6}H_{4}X_{2}(C_{2v})$	101000	1.33 (1.51)	1.79 (1.72)
3	$1,2,3-C_{6}H_{3}X_{3}(C_{2v})$	111000	2.57	2.79
	$1,2,4-C_{6}H_{3}X_{3}$ (C _s)	110100	1.27 (1.40)	1.39
4	$1,2,3,4-C_{6}H_{2}X_{4}(C_{2v})$	111100	2.19 (2.42)	2.09
	$1,2,3,5-C_{6}H_{2}X_{4}(C_{2v})$	111010	1.24 (1.46)	1.00
5	$1,2,3,4,5-C_6HX_5(C_{2v})$	111110	1.24	0.93

[1] AP Bhati, D Andrae, submitted for publication (2015)

^a calcd. from KS-DFT, B3-LYP, 6-31G** (exptl. values in parentheses, from CRC Hdbk of Chemistry and Physics)
Continuous Groups

Proper and improper rotations in 3D



Parametrization with angle φ and unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$: (a) Proper rotations $\widehat{R}_{+}(\varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}})$: $\mathbf{r}' = \widehat{R}_{+}(\varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}})\mathbf{r}$ $= a\mathbf{r} + b\hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{r} + (c - a)\hat{\mathbf{n}}(\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{r})$ $= \cos(\varphi) \mathbf{r} + \frac{\sin(\varphi)}{\varphi} \varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{r} + \frac{1 - \cos(\varphi)}{\varphi^2} \varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}} (\varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{r})$ $(a = \cos(\varphi), b = \sin(\varphi), c = +1)$ Identity: $\widehat{E} = \widehat{R}_{+}(\mathbf{0})$ (b) Improper rotations $\widehat{R}_{-}(\varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}})$: as above, but with c = -1

 $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = (n_1, n_2, n_3)^T, |\hat{\mathbf{n}}| = 1$

Proper and improper rotations in 3D (contd)

Parametrization with angle φ ($0 \le \varphi \le \pi$) and direction to the pole $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$:

$$\widehat{R}_{\pm}(\varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}}) = \begin{pmatrix} a + (c-a)n_1^2 & (c-a)n_1n_2 - b n_3 & (c-a)n_1n_3 + b n_2 \\ (c-a)n_2n_1 + b n_3 & a + (c-a)n_2^2 & (c-a)n_2n_3 - b n_1 \\ (c-a)n_3n_1 - b n_2 & (c-a)n_3n_2 + b n_1 & a + (c-a)n_3^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\det(\widehat{R}_{\pm}) = c = \pm 1, \qquad \chi(\widehat{R}_{\pm}) = c + 2a = \pm 1 + 2\cos(\varphi)$

Alternative parametrization of proper rotations with quaternions^a [1]:

$$\varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}} \mapsto [\lambda, \Lambda]$$
 with $\lambda = \cos(\varphi/2), \Lambda = \sin(\varphi/2)\hat{\mathbf{n}} (\lambda^2 + \Lambda \cdot \Lambda = 1)$

Multiplication rule:

 $[\lambda_i, \Lambda_i][\lambda_j, \Lambda_j] = [\lambda_k, \Lambda_k]$ where $\lambda_k = \lambda_i \lambda_j - \Lambda_i \cdot \Lambda_j$ and $\Lambda_k = \lambda_i \Lambda_j + \lambda_j \Lambda_i + \Lambda_i \times \Lambda_j$

 \sim The group of proper rotations in 3D is not Abelian (because $\Lambda_i \times \Lambda_j \neq \Lambda_j \times \Lambda_i$)!

Warning: In single groups, rather than double groups, the result $[\lambda_k, \Lambda_k]$ may be mutliplied by ± 1 without any change! The double group \mathcal{G}^* of \mathcal{G} is obtained when $\widehat{\overline{E}} = \widehat{R}_+(2\pi \hat{\mathbf{n}})$ is distinguished from the identity $\widehat{E} = \widehat{R}_+(4\pi \hat{\mathbf{n}})$ (any $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$).

[1] SL Altmann, P Herzig, Point-Group Theory Tables, 2nd corr. ed., 2011 ^a Quaternions $\mathbb{H} = \{q = a + ib + jc + kd = [a, (b, c, d)]|a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}; i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1, ij = k\}$

Transformation of Scalar Functions

Let $\mathbf{r}' = \widehat{R}\mathbf{r}$. How is a scalar function $f(\mathbf{r})$ then being transformed? The required condition is (this demands equality of function values)

$$(\widehat{O}_R f)(\mathbf{r}') = f(\mathbf{r}) = f(\widehat{R}^{-1}\mathbf{r}'),$$

or in short simply

$$(\widehat{O}_R f)(\mathbf{r}) = f(\widehat{R}^{-1}\mathbf{r}).$$

Example:

What happens to $f(\mathbf{r}) = f(x, y, z) = x y \exp(-r^2)$ under the counterclockwise rotation around the z axis ($\hat{\mathbf{n}} = (0, 0, 1)^T$) through $\phi = \pi/4 = 2\pi/8$?

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{R}_{+}(\phi \hat{\mathbf{n}}) &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0\\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad [\widehat{R}_{+}(\phi \hat{\mathbf{n}})]^{-1} &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0\\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \\ \widehat{R}^{-1}\mathbf{r} &= \widehat{R}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} x\\ y\\ z \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x-y)\\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x+y)\\ z \end{pmatrix} \\ (\widehat{O}_{R}f)(\mathbf{r}) &= f(\widehat{R}^{-1}\mathbf{r}) &= f(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x-y), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x+y), z) &= \frac{1}{2}(x^{2}-y^{2})\exp(-r^{2}) \end{aligned}$$



Some Continuous Groups (incl. Classical Groups)

Group elements are represented as non-singular (i. e. invertible) $n \times n$ matrices A. Matrix elements are continuous functions of a set of parameters: $A = A(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r)$. Under certain conditions, the resulting groups may qualify as Lie groups.

No.	Symbol ^a	Number <i>r</i> of real parameters	Remarks
1	$GL(n,\mathbb{C})$	2 <i>n</i> ²	general complex linear group of degree <i>n</i>
2	$GL(n,\mathbb{R})$	n ²	general real linear group of degree n
3	$SL(n,\mathbb{C})$	$2(n^2-1)$	special complex linear group of degree n (det = +1)
4	$SL(n,\mathbb{R})$	$n^2 - 1$	special real linear group of degree n (det = +1)
5	U(n)	n ²	unitary group of degree <i>n</i> ,
			leaves invariant $\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i z_i^* \ (z_i \in \mathbb{C})$
6	SU(n)	$n^2 - 1$	special unitary group of degree n (det = +1)
7	O(n)	n(n-1)/2	(real) orthogonal group of degree n (det $= \pm 1$)
8	SO(n)	n(n-1)/2	special orthogonal group of degree n (det = +1),
			leaves invariant $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2$ $(x_i \in \mathbb{R})$
9	$Aff(n,\mathbb{R})$	$n^{2} + n$	group of invertible affine transformations in \mathbb{R}^n :
			$\mathbf{r}' = A\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{a}$ (A nonsingular matrix, \mathbf{a} vector)

^a adapted from BG Wybourne, Classical Groups for Physicists, Wiley, 1974

Examples:

(1) Complex numbers of modulus 1, U(1) ($1^2 = 1$ real parameter):

$$U(1) = \{\exp(i\phi); 0 \le \phi < 2\pi\}$$

(2) 2×2 unitary matrices with det = +1, SU(2) ($2^2 - 1 = 3$ real parameters):

$$SU(2) = \left\{ \left(egin{array}{cc} a & -b^* \ b & a^* \end{array}
ight); a,b\in\mathbb{C}; \det = aa^* + bb^* = 1
ight\}$$

SU(2) is the double cover group of SO(3) (group of rotations of a 3D sphere), i. e. there exists a two-to-one homomorphism between SU(2) and $SO(3) \rightarrow$ double groups. (3) 2 × 2 orthogonal matrices with det = +1, SO(2) (2 · 1/2 = 1 real parameter):

$$SO(2) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\phi) & \sin(\phi) \\ -\sin(\phi) & \cos(\phi) \end{pmatrix}; 0 \le \phi < 2\pi \ (\text{or} - \pi \le \phi < \pi) \right\}$$

(4) 3×3 orthogonal matrices $(3 \cdot 2/2 = 3 \text{ real parameters})$:

$$SO(3) = \{\widehat{R}_+(\varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}})\}, \qquad O(3) = \{\widehat{R}_+(\varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}})\} \cup \{\widehat{R}_-(\varphi \hat{\mathbf{n}})\}$$

 $\begin{array}{l} SO(3) \equiv \mathsf{K} \mbox{ (rotations of the 3D sphere),} \\ O(3) \equiv \mathsf{K}_h = \mathsf{K} \times \mathsf{C}_i \mbox{ (full symmetry of 3D sphere).} \end{array}$

Noether's (first) theorem (1918) [1]:

To every continuous symmetry of a physical system belongs a conserved quantity.

Remark: Actually, the action (or the action functional) of the system is studied, and a variational principle must be applicable.

Examples:

Homogeneity of Time \rightsquigarrow Conservation of Energy Homogeneity of Space \rightsquigarrow Conservation of Linear Momentum Isotropy of Space \rightsquigarrow Conservation of Angular Momentum Invariance of scalar quantities under Lorentz transformations \rightsquigarrow Conservation of charges (electric and other) in particle physics

^[1] named after Emmy Noether (1881-1935, German mathematician)

Infinite Discrete Groups

Space groups (symmetry groups containing translations)

Translations introduce new symmetry elements:

- Glide planes (reflection & translation)
- Screw axes (rotation & translation)

Now rotations have to map lattice points onto lattice points

$$\rightsquigarrow \qquad \chi(\widehat{R}_+) = 1 + 2\,\cos{(arphi)} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

 \rightsquigarrow restriction of order of crystallographic axes *n* to

2
$$(\chi = -1, \varphi = \pi),$$

3 $(\chi = 0, \varphi = 2\pi/3),$
4 $(\chi = 1, \varphi = \pi/2),$
6 $(\chi = 2, \varphi = \pi/3),$
1 $(\chi = 3, \varphi = 0).$

 \rightsquigarrow restriction to 32 crystallographic point groups

Schoen- flies	Hermann- Mauguin	Schoen- flies	Hermann- Mauguin	Schoen- flies	Herma short	nn-Mauguin full	
Point Groups							
C ₁	1	C _i	ī	C _s	т		
\mathbf{c}_2^*	2	\mathbf{c}_{2h}	2/m	\mathbf{c}_{2v}	<i>m m</i> 2		
C ₃	3	$C_{3h} = S_3$	$\overline{6} = 3/m$	C _{3v}	3 m		
C ₄	4	C _{4h}	4/m	C_{4v}	4 <i>m m</i>		
C ₆	6	С _{6<i>h</i>}	<u>6/m</u>	C _{6v}	6 <i>m m</i>		
S ₄	4	$\mathbf{S}_6 = \mathbf{C}_{3i}$	3	$c_{\infty v}$	∞m		
D_2	222	D_{2d}	42 m	D_{2h}	<i>m m m</i>	2/m 2/m 2/m	
D ₃	32	D _{3h}	62 m	D _{3d}	3 m	3 2/m	
D ₄	422	D_{4d}	82 m	\mathbf{D}_{4h}	4/m m m	4/m 2/m 2/m	
D ₅	52	D_{5h}	10 2 m	D_{5d}	5 m	5 2/m	
D ₆	622	D _{6d}	12 2 m	D _{6h}	6/m m m	6/m 2/m 2/m	
_		_	7.0	$\mathbf{D}_{\infty h}$	$\infty/m m$	$\infty/m^{2/m}$	
1	23	d	43 m	h	m <u>3</u>	2/m 3	
		0	432	\mathbf{O}_h	m 3 m	4/m <u>3</u> 2/m	
		1	235	h	m <mark>3</mark> 5	2/m 3 5	
Space Groups							
C_1^1	P 1	C_i^1	P 1	C_s^1	Ρm	P 1 m 1	
C_2^1	P 2	C_{2}^{2}	P 2 ₁	C_{2h}^{5}	P 21/c	P 1 2 ₁ /c 1	
D_2^1	P 2 2 2	C_{2v}^{12}	C m c 2 ₁	D_{2h}^{16}	Pnma	P 2 ₁ /n 2 ₁ /m 2 ₁ /a	
C_{4h}^6	I 4 ₁ /a	D_{2d}^3	P 4 2 ₁ m	D_{4h}^9	P 4 ₂ /m m c	P 4 ₂ /m 2/m 2/c	
C_{3i}^{2}	R 3	C_{6h}^{2}	P 6 ₃ /m	D_{6h}^4	Р 6 ₃ /т т с	P 6 ₃ /m 2/m 2/c	
T_d^2	F 4 3 m	0 ³	F432	O_h^5	Fm3m	F 4/m 3 2/m	

Synoptical table of notation for crystallographic and some other point groups and for some examples of space groups^a

^a adapted from U Müller, Symmetry Relationships between Crystal Structures, Oxford, 2013

Space group elements: Seitz operator [1] $\{\widehat{R}|\mathbf{t}\}$

Action of Seitz operator $\{\widehat{R}|\mathbf{t}\}$ on position vector **r**:

 $\mathbf{r}' = \widehat{R}\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{t} \equiv {\widehat{R}|\mathbf{t}}\mathbf{r}$

Closure:

$$\{\widehat{S}|\mathbf{u}\}\{\widehat{R}|\mathbf{t}\}\mathbf{r} = \{\widehat{S}\widehat{R}|\widehat{S}\mathbf{t}+\mathbf{u}\}\mathbf{r}$$

Identity:

 $\{\widehat{E}|\mathbf{0}\}\mathbf{r}=\mathbf{r}$

Inverse:

 $\{\widehat{R}|\mathbf{t}\}^{-1}\{\widehat{R}|\mathbf{t}\}\mathbf{r}=\mathbf{r}\qquad\Rightarrow\qquad\{\widehat{R}|\mathbf{t}\}^{-1}=\{\widehat{R}^{-1}|-\widehat{R}^{-1}\mathbf{t}\}$

[1] named after Frederick Seitz (1911-2008, American physicist)

Lattice in Direct Space (Position Space)



W Borchardt-Ott, Kristallographie, 7. Aufl., Springer, Berlin, 2009

Vectors of the direct lattice (lattice translation vectors): $\mathbf{t}_{uvw} = u\mathbf{a}_1 + v\mathbf{a}_2 + w\mathbf{a}_3$ $(u, v, w \in \mathbb{Z})$

Vectors in the direct lattice: $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{a}_1 + y\mathbf{a}_2 + z\mathbf{a}_3 \ (x, y, z \in \mathbb{R})$

If $0 \le x < 1$, $0 \le y < 1$, $0 \le z < 1$, then **r** belongs to unit cell 000.

Crystal Structure = Lattice + Basis



SL Altmann, Band Theory of Solids – An Introduction from the Point of View of Symmetry, Clarendon, Oxford, 1994

The pure translations $\mathcal{T} = \{\{\widehat{E} | \mathbf{t}_{uvw}\}\}$ constitute an Abelian subgroup of the full space group \mathcal{G} of the crystal: $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{G}$

Hence, \mathcal{T} has only one-dimensional IR, their labels **k** can be used to label symmetry-adapted crystal orbitals, the so-called Bloch functions [1] $\psi_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r})$ (Born–von-Kármán boundary conditions assumed, see below for more on this)

[1] named after Felix Bloch (1905-1983, Swiss-American physicist)

Lattice in Reciprocal Space (Momentum Space)



Introduce a new basis – the basis for reciprocal space – to describe normal vectors of stacks of lattice planes of the direct lattice, such that

 $\mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{b}_j = 2\pi \delta_{ij}$

 Example: *ac* plane in a monoclinic primitive lattice

W Borchardt-Ott, Kristallographie, 7. Aufl., Springer, Berlin, 2009

Vectors of the reciprocal lattice:

 $\mathbf{g}_{hkl} = h\mathbf{b}_1 + k\mathbf{b}_2 + l\mathbf{b}_3$ (Miller indices $h, k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$)

Vectors in the reciprocal lattice: $\mathbf{k} = o\mathbf{b}_1 + p\mathbf{b}_2 + q\mathbf{b}_3 \ (o, p, q \in \mathbb{R})$

	a 1	a ₂
Oblique, p	(a,0)	$(b\cos arphi,b\sin arphi)$
Rectangular, p	(<i>a</i> ,0)	(0, b)
Rectangular, c	$\left(\frac{1}{2}a,\frac{1}{2}b\right)$	$\left(-\frac{1}{2}a,\frac{1}{2}b\right)$
Square, p	$(\overline{a},0)$	$(0, \bar{a})$
Hexagonal, p	(0, -a)	$\left(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}a,\frac{1}{2}a\right)$
	b ₁	b ₂
Oblique, p	$\frac{\mathbf{b}_1}{(2\pi/a)(1,-\cot\varphi)}$	b ₂ $(2\pi/b)(0, \csc \varphi)$
Oblique, p Rectangular, p	$egin{array}{c} {f b_1} \ (2\pi/a)(1,-\cotarphi) \ (2\pi/a)(1,0) \end{array}$	b ₂ $(2\pi/b)(0, \csc \varphi)$ $(2\pi/b)(0, 1)$
Oblique, p Rectangular, p Rectangular, c	$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{b}_1 \\ (2\pi/a)(1, -\cot \varphi) \\ (2\pi/a)(1, 0) \\ 2\pi(1/a, 1/b) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{b}_{2} \\ (2\pi/b)(0,\csc\varphi) \\ (2\pi/b)(0,1) \\ 2\pi(-1/a,1/b) \end{array}$
Oblique, p Rectangular, p Rectangular, c Square, p	$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{b}_1 \\ (2\pi/a)(1,-\cot\varphi) \\ (2\pi/a)(1,0) \\ 2\pi(1/a,1/b) \\ (2\pi/a)(1,0) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{b}_{2} \\ (2\pi/b)(0,\csc\varphi) \\ (2\pi/b)(0,1) \\ 2\pi(-1/a,1/b) \\ (2\pi/a)(0,1) \end{array}$

Table 3: Basis vectors for the 2D Bravais lattices^a (top) and the 2D reciprocal lattices^b (bottom) [1].

[1] AP Cracknell, Thin Film Solids **21** (1974) 107 ^a The vectors \mathbf{a}_1 and \mathbf{a}_2 are given in terms of unit vectors in the orthogonal x and y directions

^b The vectors \mathbf{b}_1 and \mathbf{b}_2 are given in terms of unit vectors in the orthogonal k_x and k_y directions

The 2D Bravais Lattices [1]



[1] named after Auguste Bravais (1811-1863, French physicist)

Source of figure: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bravais_lattice (not fully consistent with table on previous page)

The 2D Reciprocal Lattices



AP Cracknell, *Thin Film Solids* **21** (1974) 107, Fig. 1 (read \mathbf{g}_{s}^{s} as \mathbf{b}_{i}) (a) oblique, p; (b) rectangular, p; (c) rectangular, c; (d) square, p; (e) hexagonal, p

System	No.	Short Symbol	Full Symbol	Generators (in addition to those of $\mathcal T$)	Remark●●
Oblique	1 2	р1 р2	p1 p211	$ \{ \widehat{E} 0 \} \\ \{ \widehat{C}_{2z} 0 \} $	s s
Rectangular	3 4 5 6 7 8 9	pm pg cm pmm pmg Pgg cmm	(p11m)• (p11g)• c1m1 p2mm p2mg p2gg c2mm	$ \begin{cases} \widehat{\sigma}_{y} 0 \} \\ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{y} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_{1} \} \\ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{x} 0 \} \\ \{ \widehat{C}_{2z} 0 \}, \ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{y} 0 \} \\ \{ \widehat{C}_{2z} 0 \}, \ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{y} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_{1} \} \\ \{ \widehat{C}_{2z} 0 \}, \ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{y} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_{1} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_{2} \} \\ \{ \widehat{C}_{2z} 0 \}, \ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{x} 0 \} $	s ns s s ns ns s
Square	10 11 12	p4 p4m p4g	p4 p4mm p4gm	$ \begin{aligned} & \{ \widehat{C}_{4z} 0 \} \\ & \{ \widehat{C}_{4z} 0 \}, \ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{x} 0 \} \\ & \{ \widehat{C}_{4z} 0 \}, \ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{y} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_{1} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_{2} \} \end{aligned} $	s s ns
Hexagonal	13 14 15 16 17	p3 p3m1 p31m p6 p6m	p3 p3m1 p31m p6 p6mm	$ \begin{cases} \widehat{C}_{3} 0 \\ \{ \widehat{C}_{3} 0 \}, \ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{v1} 0 \} \\ \{ \widehat{C}_{3} 0 \}, \ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{d1} 0 \} \\ \{ \widehat{C}_{6} 0 \} \\ \{ \widehat{C}_{6} 0 \}, \ \{ \widehat{\sigma}_{d1} 0 \} \end{cases} $	s s s s

Table 4: The 17 two-dimensional space groups [1].

[1] AP Cracknell, Thin Film Solids 21 (1974) 107

• Non-standard orientation for groups no. 3 and 4 (compared to the International Tables).

•• The symbols s and ns indicate whether the space group is symmorphic or non-symmorphic, respectively.

Space groups (symmetry groups containing translations) ...

- ... with periodicity in **one** dimension:
 - 2 line groups

 $(\mathsf{p1}: \cdots \rhd \rhd \rhd \rhd \rhd \rhd \cdots; \mathsf{p1m}: \cdots \lhd \rhd \lhd \rhd \lhd \rhd \cdots)$

- 7 frieze groups [1]
 - (p1, p1m1, p11m, p11g, p2, p2mm, p2mg)

75 rod groups (if restriction $n \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6\}$ is applied)

- ... with periodicity in **two** dimensions:
 - 17 plane groups (wallpaper groups) [2]
 - (p1, p1m1, p1g1, c1m1, p211, p2mm, p2mg, p2gg,

c2mm, p4, p4mm, p4gm, p3, p3m1, p31m, p6, p6mm) 80 **layer** groups

... with periodicity in three dimensions:
 230 space groups (ES Fedorov, A Schoenflies, 1891/1892)

see Hargittay I, Lengyel G, J. Chem. Educ. 61 (1984) 1033 for illustrations with Hungarian needlework
 see Hargittay I, Lengyel G, J. Chem. Educ. 62 (1985) 35 for illustrations with Hungarian needlework

Primitive Domains

Construction of the Voronoi polyhedron (or Dirichlet region) for lattice point ${\bf 0}$ leads to ...

 \dots the Wigner-Seitz cell (WS, in direct space)

... the first Brillouin zone (BZ, in reciprocal space)

Knowledge of a periodic function, like

$$f(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{t}) = f(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{g}} f_{\mathbf{g}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{V}} e^{i\mathbf{g}\mathbf{r}},$$

within the primitive domain is completely sufficient.

C Hammond, The Basics of Crystallography and Diffraction, 3rd ed., Oxford, 2009

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Orbitals in Periodic Systems

- ▶ Born-von-Kármán boundary conditions: f(r + Na_i) = f(r) ⇒ infinite translation subgroup T replaced by a cyclic group.
- Bloch functions: One-particle functions (crystal orbitals)
 ψ_{jk}(r) (j band index; k IR label within first BZ) of the form

 $\psi_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}} u_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}), \quad u_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{t}) = u_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}), \quad \psi_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{t}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{t}} \psi_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}),$

are plane waves in the lattice, $e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}}$, modulated by the periodic cell function $u_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r})$.

 Wannier functions: Obtained via unitary transformation of Bloch functions, for example for band j (summation over all N values of k in the first BZ):

$$\varphi_{j\mathbf{t}}(\mathbf{r}) = N^{-1/2} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \psi_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) e^{-i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{t}} = N^{-1/2} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} u_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) e^{i\mathbf{k}(\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{t})}$$

Wannier function for 1D free particle (at 'cell' 0)

$$\varphi_0(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{L}} \frac{\sin\left(\pi x/L\right)}{\pi x/L} \sim x^{-1}$$

Example: Bloch Functions in a Square Lattice



R Hoffmann, Solids and Surfaces, VCH, New York, 1988

Basis Set Expansion of Bloch Functions

Plane waves (PW)

$$\psi_{j\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{g}} c_{j\mathbf{k},\mathbf{g}} \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}(\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{g})\mathbf{r}} = \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}} \sum_{\mathbf{g}} c_{j\mathbf{k},\mathbf{g}} \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}\mathbf{g}\mathbf{r}}$$

Universal, orthonormal, complete (in principle), basis adapts itself to lattice changes, but practically it always requires pseudopotentials (even for H) and cutoffs at both low and high energy (i. e., magnitude of **k**)

 Localized functions χ_μ(**r**) containing exp(-αr²) (spherical/Cartesian/Hermite Gauss-type functions, GTFs)

Very compact, hence efficient representation of electronic structure, but this type of basis is incomplete, valence shell exponents need be chosen with care to avoid linear dependence, general systematic way of basis set improvement is still not known

A thought experiment on H₂ and sc-H

Variation of internuclear distance *R* within a minimal-basis-set description: $\psi(\mathbf{r}) = N \exp(-\zeta r)$ ($r = |\mathbf{r}|$) at each nucleus

$R/R_{\rm e}=0$		$R/R_{\rm e} = 1 = R_{\rm e}/R$		$R_{\rm e}/R=0$
He $\zeta_{ m opt} = 2 - 5/16$	\leftarrow	$\begin{array}{c} H_2 \\ 2 > \zeta_{opt} > 1 \end{array}$	\leftarrow	$2~{ m H}$ $\zeta_{ m opt}=1$
${}^{\blacksquare}_{\zeta_{opt}}=+\infty$	\leftarrow	${ m sc-H}\ \zeta_{ m opt}>1$	\leftarrow	∞ H $\zeta_{ m opt}=1$

Is there a bifurcation point? What about basis set completeness in the periodic case? How to improve basis sets for periodic calculations systematically?

Note: Improvement of the minimal-basis-set description (only s-function) of sc-H crystal requires g-functions (l = 4) for k = 0 (Γ point), see FE Harris et al, Int J Quantum Chem Symp 5 (1971) 527

A particle in a one-dimensional box

Hamiltonian: $\hat{H} = -\hbar^2/(2m) (d/dx)^2$, with $0 \le x \le L$. Boundary conditions: $\psi(0) = \psi(L) = 0$. Eigenfunctions and eigenvalues (n = 1, 2, 3, ...):

$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin(k_n x), \qquad k_n = \frac{n\pi}{L}, \qquad E_n = \frac{(\hbar k_n)^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2}{8mL^2} n^2.$$

Use of the orthonormal set $\{\psi_n\}$ for Fourier series expansions, e. g.:

$$\phi(x) = \sqrt{\frac{30}{L}} \frac{x}{L} \left(1 - \frac{x}{L} \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \psi_n(x) , \qquad \langle E \rangle = \frac{h^2}{8mL^2} \frac{10}{\pi^2} > E_1 ,$$

$$b_n = \langle \psi_n | \phi \rangle = \int_0^L \psi_n(x) \phi(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = \frac{4\sqrt{15}}{(n\pi)^3} (1 - (-1)^n) \sim n^{-3} \, .$$

Probability to detect ground-state energy E_1 in a measurement:

$$w_1 = |b_1|^2 = rac{960}{\pi^6} pprox 0.9986$$
.

The periodic situation

Primitive period: L.

Periodic functions: $\phi(x + L) = \phi(x)$. Definition of $\phi(x)$ over interval of length L is sufficient: $0 \le x < L$.

The Fourier series expansion technique now requires an extended (modified) orthonormal basis set (n = 1, 2, 3, ...):

$$\left\{\sqrt{\frac{1}{L}}, \ \chi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}}\cos(k_n x), \ \psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}}\sin(k_n x)\right\}, \ k_n = \frac{2n\pi}{L}$$

Two simple cases:

► $\phi(0) = \phi(L) = 0$, $\phi'(0) = \phi'(L) > 0$, e. g.:

$$\phi(x) = N \frac{x}{L} \left(\frac{x}{L} - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{x}{L} - 1\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \psi_n(x), \quad b_n \sim n^{-3}$$

• $\phi(0) = \phi(L) > 0$, $\phi'(0) = \phi'(L) = 0$, e. g.:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = N\left(\frac{1}{32} - \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}}{L}\right)^2 \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}}{L} - 1\right)^2\right) = \frac{a_0}{\sqrt{L}} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \chi_n(\mathbf{x}), \quad a_n \sim n^{-4}.$$

The periodic situation (contd)

Alternatively, Fourier series expansion in terms of complex-valued basis $(k_n = 2n\pi/L)$:

$$\psi(x) = \frac{a_0}{\sqrt{L}} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ a_n \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \cos(k_n x) + b_n \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin(k_n x) \right\}$$
$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} \exp(ik_n x)$$

 $a_0 = c_0$, $a_n = (c_n + c_{-n})/2$, $b_n = (c_n - c_{-n})/(2i)$.

Fourier series expansion in 3D:

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} c_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{V}} \exp(\mathrm{i}\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r})$$

i. e., superposition of plane waves (\mathbf{k} direction of propagation)

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