Molecular Dynamics after Photoexcitation, including non-Born-Oppenheimer Effects

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A) VIBRATIONAL STRUCTURE IN ELECTRONIC SPECTRA

A.1) The Born-Oppenheimer approximation [1]

Schrödinger equation for coupled electronic and nuclear motions:

$$H = H_{el} + T_K$$

$$H_{el} = T_{el} + U(x, Q)$$

$$H_{el}\phi_n(x, Q) = V_n(Q)\phi_n(x, Q) \qquad \text{(assume solved)}$$

$$H\Psi(x, Q) = E\Psi(x, Q)$$

$$\Psi(x, Q) = \sum_m \chi_m(Q)\phi_m(x, Q)$$

$$[T_K + V_n(Q) - E]\chi_n(Q) = \sum_m \Lambda_{nm}\chi_m(Q)$$

$$\Lambda_{nm} = \sum_i \frac{\hbar^2}{M_i} \int d^{3N}x \, \phi_n^*\left(\frac{\partial\phi_m}{\partial Q_i}\right)\frac{\partial}{\partial Q_i} - \int d^{3N}x \, \phi_n^*(T_K\phi_m)$$

x and Q denote the sets of electronic and nuclear coordinates, respectively. Correspondingly ϕ and χ stands for the electronic and nuclear wave functions.

Derivation of the coupled equations

For simplicity, put

$$T_K = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2M}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial Q^2}$$

$$\sum_m \left(T_{el} + U + T_K\right)\chi_m(Q)\phi_m(x,Q) = \sum_m E\chi_m(Q)\phi_m(x,Q)$$

$$\sum_m \left[V_m(Q) + T_K\right]\chi_m(Q)\phi_m(x,Q) = \sum_m E\chi_m(Q)\phi_m(x,Q)$$

$$\sum_m \left\{\left[V_m(Q) - E + T_K\right]\chi_m(Q)\right\}\phi_m(x,Q) =$$

$$\sum_m \frac{\hbar^2}{M}\left(\frac{\partial \chi_m}{\partial Q}\right)\left(\frac{\partial \phi_m}{\partial Q}\right) - \sum_m \chi_m\left(T_K\phi_m\right)$$

$$\int \phi_n^* d^{3N}x : \quad \left(V_n + T_K - E\right)\chi_n =$$

$$= \sum_m \frac{\hbar^2}{M}\int \phi_n^*\frac{\partial \phi_m}{\partial Q}\frac{\partial \chi_m}{\partial Q}d^{3N}x$$

$$- \sum_m \chi_m \int \phi_n^*\left(T_K\phi_m\right)d^{3N}x$$

$$= \sum_m \Lambda_{nm}\chi_m \ .$$

So far still formally exact. Approximation: put

$$\boxed{\Lambda_{nm} = 0}$$

$$\implies [T_K + V_n(Q) - E]\chi_n(Q) = 0 \ .$$

It follows:

- (Electronic) eigenvalues, $V_n(Q)$, of a given state correspond to the potential energy hypersurface for the nuclear motion.

- Total molecular wavefunction becomes a product of a nuclear and electronic wave function:

$$\Psi(x, Q) = \chi_n(Q)\phi_n(x, Q)$$

- Valid, e.g., when $\phi_n(x, Q) \approx \phi_n(x - Q)$.

- BO approximation!

Electrons follow the nuclear motion instantaneously (adiabatic), due to the large ratio between nuclear and electronic masses (i.e. the large effective mass of a nucleus compared to that of an electron $M_i \gg m_{el}$).

Simple estimates for hierarchy of energy scales

$$E_{elec} \sim\; <T_e> \;\sim \frac{\hbar^2 \kappa_{elec}^2}{m} \sim \frac{\hbar^2}{md^2}$$

with $d \approx$ molecular dimension

$$E_{vib} \;\sim\; \hbar\sqrt{\frac{f}{M}} \quad mit \quad f \sim \frac{\partial^2 E_{elec}}{\partial R^2} \sim \frac{E_{elec}}{d^2}$$

$$\Longrightarrow E_{vib} \sim \hbar^2 \sqrt{\frac{1}{Mmd^4}} \quad = \quad \sqrt{\frac{m}{M}} \frac{\hbar^2}{md^2} = \sqrt{\frac{m}{M}}\, E_{elec}$$

$$E_{rot} \;\sim\; <T_{rot}> \;\sim\; \frac{\hbar^2}{I} \quad = \quad \frac{\hbar^2}{Md^2} = \frac{m}{M}\, E_{elec}$$

$$\Longrightarrow \qquad E_{rot} \quad \ll \quad E_{vib} \quad \ll \quad E_{elec}$$

Larger electronic energy scale, shorter time scale of the oscillations (for non-stationary states).

$$\Downarrow$$

Similar to classical picture; fast readjustment of electrons to nuclear changes.

Analogous for relative nuclear displacements

$$< R^2 > \sim \frac{\hbar}{M\omega} \quad < Q^2 > \sim \frac{\hbar^2}{ME_{vib}} \left(\frac{\hbar}{\sqrt{fM}} \right)$$

$$\kappa = \frac{\sqrt{< R^2 >}}{d} \sim \frac{\hbar}{d\sqrt{M}\hbar} \sqrt[4]{Mmd^4} = \sqrt[4]{m/M}$$

... and for nonadiabatic coupling elements

$$< \Lambda_{nm} > \sim \frac{\hbar^2}{M} < \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2} >_{elec} + \frac{\hbar^2}{M} < \frac{\partial}{\partial R} >_{elec} < \frac{\partial}{\partial R} >_{vib}$$

$$\sim \frac{\hbar^2}{M} k_{elec}^2 + \frac{\hbar^2}{M} k_{elec} \sqrt{\frac{Mw}{\hbar}} < \frac{\partial}{\partial Q} >_{vib}$$

$$\sim \frac{\hbar^2}{Md^2} + \frac{\hbar^2}{Md} \sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{fM}}{\hbar}}$$

$$\sim \frac{m}{M} E_{elec} + \frac{\hbar^2}{M^{\frac{3}{4}}d} \sqrt[4]{\frac{\hbar^2}{md^2\hbar^2 d^2}}$$

$$\sim \frac{m}{M} E_{elec} + \frac{\hbar^2}{M^{\frac{3}{4}}d^2 m^{\frac{1}{4}}} \frac{m^{\frac{3}{4}}}{m^{\frac{3}{4}}}$$

$$\sim \frac{m}{M} E_{elec} + \left(\frac{m}{M} \right)^{\frac{3}{4}} E_{elec}$$

$$\boxed{E_{rot} \approx Term(\partial^2/\partial R^2) \ll Term(\partial/\partial R) \ll E_{vib}}$$

$$\kappa^4 \qquad\qquad \kappa^4 \qquad\qquad \kappa^3 \qquad\qquad \kappa^2 \quad \times E_{elec}$$

Hellmann-Feynman relation

Re-writing the non-adiabatic (derivative) coupling terms:

$$\frac{\partial H_{el}}{\partial Q_i}\phi_n(x,Q) + H_{el}\frac{\partial \phi_n(x,Q)}{\partial Q_i} =$$
$$\frac{\partial V_n(Q)}{\partial Q_i}\phi_n(x,Q) + V_n(Q)\frac{\partial \phi_n(x,Q)}{\partial Q_i}$$

Multiplying from the left by ϕ_m^* and integrating over the electronic coordinates, x, leads to:

$$\langle \phi_m(Q)|\frac{\partial H_{el}}{\partial Q_i}|\phi_n(Q)\rangle_x + V_m(Q)\langle \phi_m(Q)|\frac{\partial \phi_n(Q)}{\partial Q_i}\rangle_x =$$
$$= \langle \phi_m(Q)|\frac{\partial V_n(Q)}{\partial Q_i}|\phi_n(Q)\rangle_x + V_n(Q)\langle \phi_m(Q)|\frac{\partial \phi_n(Q)}{\partial Q_i}\rangle_x$$

$$n = m : \qquad \langle \phi_n(Q)|\frac{\partial H_{el}}{\partial Q_i}|\phi_n(Q)\rangle_x = \frac{\partial V_n(Q)}{\partial Q_i}$$

$$n \neq m:$$

$$\int d^{3N}x\phi_m^*\left(\frac{\partial \phi_n}{\partial Q_i}\right) = \frac{\int d^{3N}x\phi_m(x,Q)\left(\frac{\partial H_{el}}{\partial Q_i}\right)\phi_n(x,Q)}{V_n(Q) - V_m(Q)}$$

In the vicinity of a degeneracy the derivative couplings can *diverge* and the adiabatic approximation is expected to break down!

Harmonic oscillator and its eigenfunctions

The Hamiltonian of a quantum harmonic oscillator is given by

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{2} f \, r^2$$

Using the relationship between dimensioned (r) and dimensionless coordinates (Q),

$$\boxed{Q = \sqrt{\frac{\mu \, \omega}{\hbar}} \, r; \quad \omega = \sqrt{\frac{f}{\mu}}}$$

we get

$$\boxed{\hat{H} = \frac{\hbar \, \omega}{2} \left(-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial Q^2} + Q^2 \right)}$$

The eigenfunctions of the harmonic oscillator involve the well-known Hermite polynomials and read as

$$\boxed{\chi_n(Q) = \{\sqrt{\pi} \, n! \, 2^n\}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \, e^{-\frac{Q^2}{2}} \, H_n(Q)}$$

The first Hermite polynomials, $H_n(Q)$, are

$$H_0(Q) = 1, \qquad H_1(Q) = 2\,Q, \qquad H_2(Q) = 4\,Q^2 - 2.$$

Remember symmetry:

$$H_n(-Q) = (-1)^n H_n(Q)$$

The multidimensional harmonic oscillator

$$H = \sum_i H_i = \sum_i \frac{\hbar\omega_i}{2} \left(-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial Q_i^2} + Q_i^2 \right)$$

From $[H_i, H_j] = 0$ (for all $i, j \leq M(= 3N - 6)) \Rightarrow$

Multidimensional eigenfunction Ξ is product function:

$$\Xi_{v_1,v_2,..}(Q_1, \ldots, Q_M) = \chi_{v_1}(Q_1)\,\chi_{v_2}(Q_2) \ldots \chi_{v_M}(Q_M)$$

The individual eigenfunctions are well known and read as

$$\chi_v(Q) = \left\{\sqrt{\pi}\, v!\, 2^v\right\}^{-1/2} e^{-Q^2/2}\, H_v(Q)$$

The first Hermite polynomials H_v are

$$H_0(Q) = 1, \quad H_1(Q) = 2Q, \quad H_2(Q) = 4Q^2 - 2.$$

Meaning of the coordinate Q: displacement as measured in units of the zero-point amplitude, i. e.,

$$\chi_0(1) = e^{-1/2}\chi_0(0).$$

A.2) The Franck-Condon principle

Consider the transition between different electronic states, particularly, a transition from the electronic ground state , GS, to one of the excited states, ES (optical, UV-absorption).

The transition probability follows from first order time-dependent perturbation theory;

$$I(\omega_{ph}) \sim \sum_F |\langle \Psi_F | H_1 | \Psi_I \rangle^2 \delta(E_F - E_I - \hbar\omega_{ph})$$

where Ψ_I and Ψ_F are eigenfunctions of H_0 (isolated molecule) and correspond to the initial and final states during a transition.
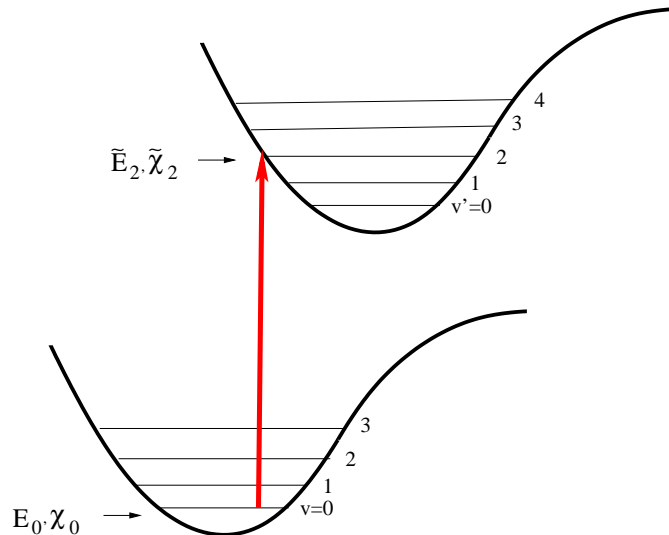
Interaction between the molecule and radiation field in the dipole approximation:

$$H_1(t) \sim -\sum_{j=1}^{N} e(\vec{\varepsilon}.\vec{r_j}) E_0(t)$$

In contrast to the IR-spectrum the summation index, j, runs only over electronic coordinates (orthogonality of the electronic wave functions).

Within the Born-Oppenheimer approximation the wave functions are written in a product form;

$$\Psi_I = \phi_i \chi_v; \qquad \Psi_F = \phi_f \tilde{\chi}_{v'}$$

with

$$(T_k + V_i - E_v)\chi_v = 0$$
$$(T_k + V_f - \tilde{E}_{v'})\tilde{\chi}_{v'} = 0$$

Note that χ_v and $\tilde{\chi}_{v'}$ are vibrational functions of different potential energy curves.

Evaluate the matrix elements in the Born-Oppenheimer approximation;

$$\int \Psi_F^*(x,Q)H_1\Psi_I(x,Q)d^{3N}x\,dQ =$$

$$= \int \tilde{\chi}_{v'}^*(Q) \underbrace{\int \phi_f^*(x,Q)H_1\phi_i(x,Q)d^{3N}x}\, \chi_v(Q)dQ$$

The integral $T_{fi}(Q) = \int \phi_f^*(x,Q)H_1\phi_i(x,Q)dx$ is called the *electronic transition moment* or dipole-transition-(matrix) element. It replaces the dipole moments (=diagonal matrix elements) evaluated in IR-spectroscopy. Therefore, one can write the matrix elements as follows:

$$\int \Psi_F^* H_1 \Psi_I dx dQ = \int \tilde{\chi}_{v'}^*(Q) T_{fi}(Q) \chi_v(Q) dQ$$

The transition moment depends on Q only through the electronic wave function. If the transition moment depends sufficiently weakly on Q, one can write;

$$T_{fi}(Q) \approx T_{fi}(Q = 0)$$

with an appropriate reference geometry, $Q = 0$. It is natural to choose (mostly) the reference geometry to be the equilibrium geometry of the molecule in the initial state:
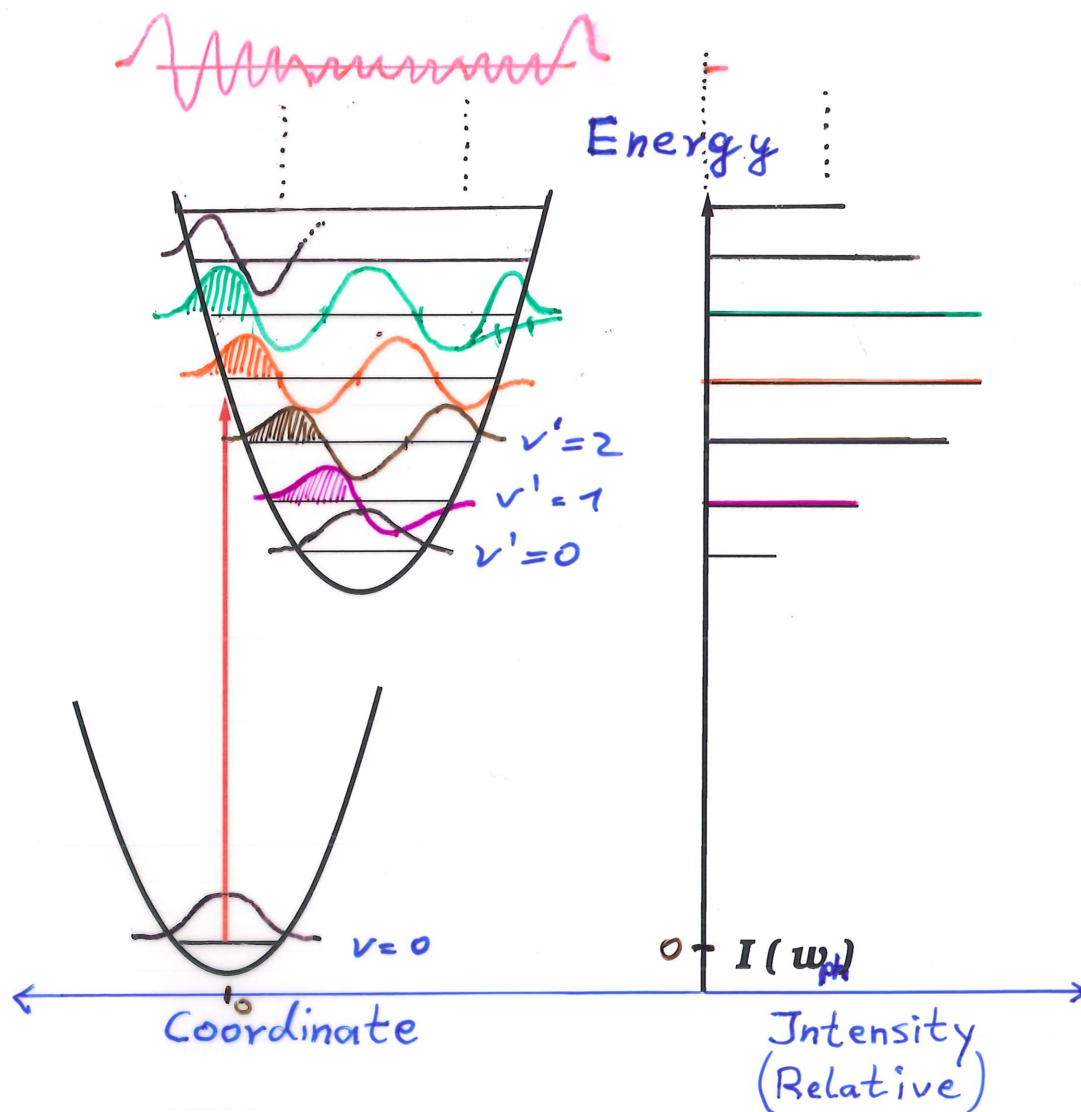
Condon approximation or *Franck-Condon principle*.

In the Condon approximation:

$$\int \Psi_F^* H_1 \Psi_I dx dQ = T_{fi}(Q = 0) S_{v'v}$$

with $\qquad S_{v'v} = \int \tilde{\chi}_{v'}^*(Q) \chi_v(Q) dQ.$

$S_{v'v}$ and its square are *Franck-Condon overlap integral* and *Franck-Condon factor*, respectively (see also [2]).

The spectrum follows immediately:

$$I(\omega_{ph}) \sim |T_{fi}(Q=0)|^2 \sum_{v'} |S_{v'v}|^2 \delta(\tilde{E}_{v'} - E_v - \hbar\omega_{ph})$$

The relative intensities are determined only through vibrational wave functions, electronic wave functions play almost no role.

Principle of vertical transitions !

A.3) Shifted harmonic oscillator

Important special case: harmonic potentials with the same curvature (force constant).

Define Q as the dimensionless normal coordinate of initial state (mostly, electronic ground state).

$$V_i(Q) = \frac{\omega}{2}Q^2 \qquad (\hbar = 1)$$

With the same curvature (force constant) for $V_f(Q)$, we have
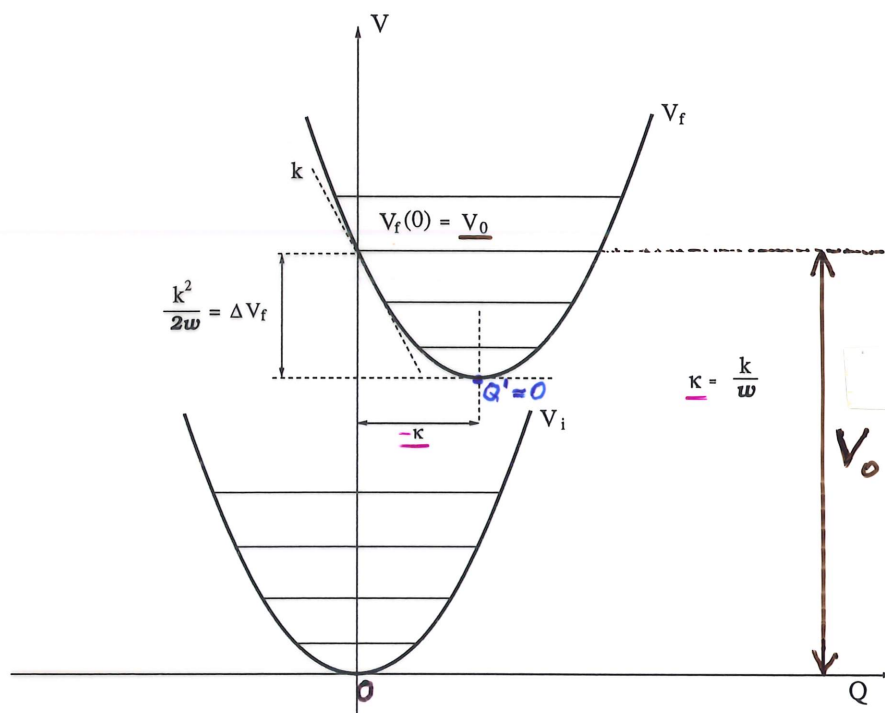
$$V_f(Q) = V_f(Q = 0) + \frac{\omega}{2}Q^2 + kQ$$

with $k = \left(\frac{\partial V_f}{\partial Q}\right)_{Q=0}$; $V_f(Q = 0) \equiv V_0$

The *linear coupling* leads to a shift in the equilibrium geometry and a stabilization energy along the distortion (see next Fig).
The oscillator can be easily solved by adding the quadratic terms (completing the square);

$$V_f(Q) = V_0 + \frac{\omega}{2}\left(Q + \frac{k}{\omega}\right)^2 - \frac{k^2}{2\omega}$$

$$= V_0 - \frac{k^2}{2\omega} + \frac{\omega}{2}Q'^2$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \uparrow$$

Stokes-shift ; New normal coordinate

Note: $\dfrac{\partial}{\partial Q} = \dfrac{\partial}{\partial Q'} \implies$ same eigenfunctions $\implies$ $e^{-\frac{\left(Q' - \frac{k}{\omega}\right)^2}{2}}$

$$S_{v'v} = N_{v'} N_v \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dQ\, H_{v'}\left(Q + \frac{k}{\omega}\right) H_v(Q)\, e^{-\frac{Q^2}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(Q + k/\omega)^2}$$

$e^{-\frac{Q'^2}{2}}$

We restrict ourselves to the special case where $v = 0$. By substituting $Q' = Q + \kappa$ and $\kappa = k/\omega$, one can easily obtain:

$$S_{v'0} = N_{v'} N_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dQ'\, H_{v'}\left(Q'\right) e^{-Q'^2} e^{\kappa Q' - \frac{1}{2}\kappa^2}$$

There are several possibilities to evaluate these integrals, such as the method of generating functions (see exercises) or operator algebra (occupation number representation of harmonic oscillator).

Derivation of Poisson Distribution

Start from

$$S_{v'0} = N_{v'} N_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dQ' H_{v'}\left(Q'\right) e^{-Q'^2} e^{\kappa Q'} e^{-\frac{\kappa^2}{2}}$$

and supplementary sheet on Hermite polynomials, item 2. Use $\lambda = \kappa/2, \quad z = Q' \to Q, \quad v' \to v$

$$\overbrace{\phantom{e^{\kappa Q - \kappa^2/4}}}^{e^{\kappa Q - \kappa^2/4}}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_{v0} = N_v N_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dQ H_v(Q) e^{-Q^2} e^{-\kappa^2/4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\kappa/2)^n}{n!} H_n(Q)$$

$$\left[N_v = \left\{ \sqrt{\pi}\, v!\, 2^v \right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right]$$

$$= N_v N_0 e^{-\kappa^2/4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\kappa/2)^n}{n!} \frac{\delta_{vn}}{N_v N_n}$$

$$= e^{-\kappa^2/4} \frac{(\kappa/2)^v}{v!} \sqrt{2^v v!}$$

$$\boxed{ |S_{v0}|^2 = \frac{(\kappa^2/2)^v}{v!} e^{-\kappa^2/2} }$$

$$\Longrightarrow$$

Poisson Intensity Distribution

Summary of the shifted harmonic oscillator

$$P(E_{ph}) = \sum_{v} \frac{a^v}{v!} e^{-a} \delta(E_{ph} - V_0 + a\omega - v\omega)$$

where $a = \kappa^2/2 = k^2/(2\omega^2) =$ (*Poisson distribution*)
$$= \frac{1}{2} \Delta Q_{min}^2$$

Sum rule:

$$\sum_{v} |S_{v0}|^2 = e^{-a} \sum_{v} \frac{a^v}{v!} = e^{-a} e^{+a} = 1$$

Mean quantum number:

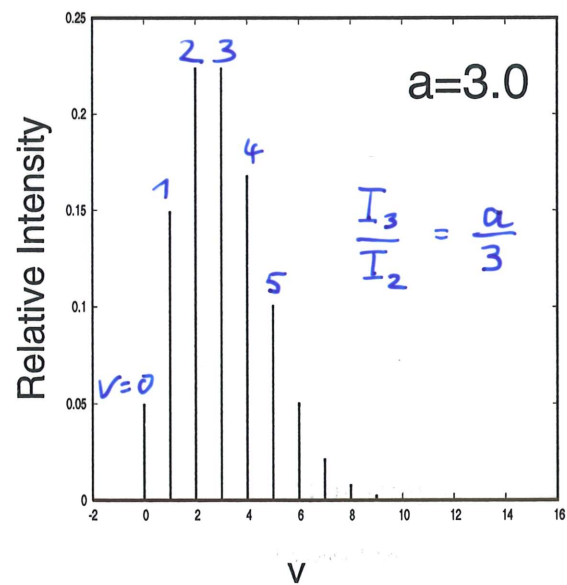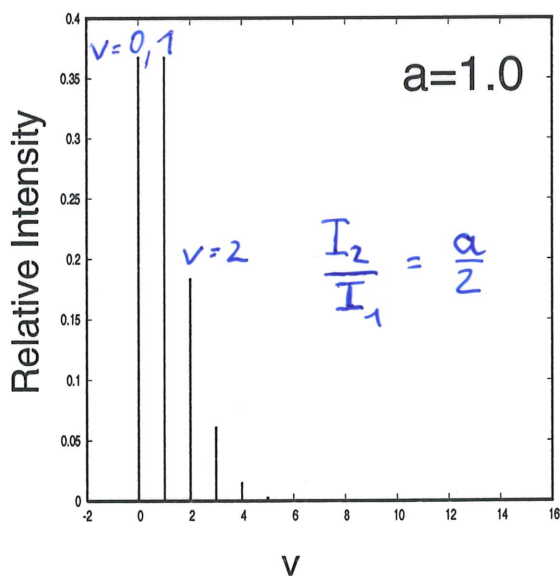$$\bar{v} = \sum_{v} \frac{a^v v}{v!} e^{-a} = a \sum_{v>0} \frac{a^{v-1}}{(v-1)!} e^{-a} = a$$
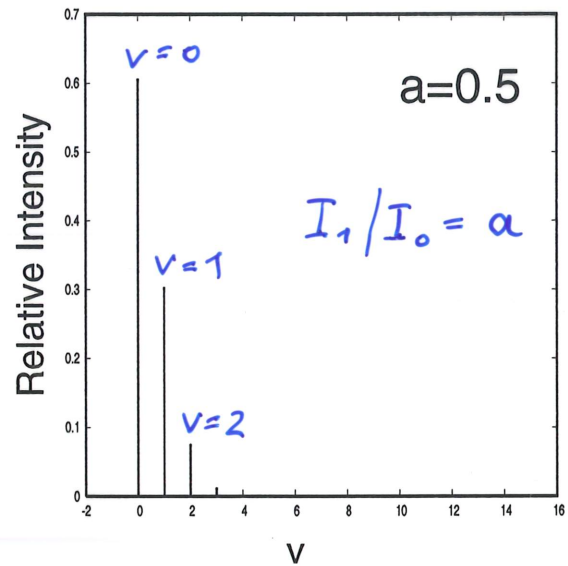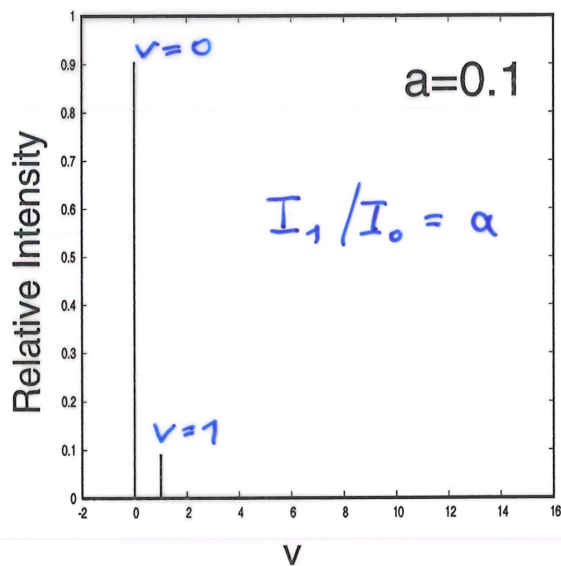
The parameter a is a measure of the vibrational excitation in an electronic transition.
$a\omega$ is the mean vibrational energy during the transition ($=$ Stokes-shift $k^2/(2\omega)$)

For $a \to 0$ we have $|S_{v0}|^2 \longrightarrow \delta_{v0}$, which means no excitation (potential curves V_i and V_f are identical).

Poisson distributions for various values
of the parameter a

$$I_{v+1}/I_v = |S_{v+1,0}/S_{v,0}|^2 = \frac{a^{v+1}}{(v+1)!} \bigg/ \frac{a^v}{v!} = \frac{a}{v+1}$$

a=0.1 — $v=0$, $v=1$, $I_1/I_0 = a$

a=0.5 — $v=0$, $v=1$, $v=2$, $I_1/I_0 = a$

a=1.0 — $v=0,1$, $v=2$, $\dfrac{I_2}{I_1} = \dfrac{a}{2}$

a=3.0 — $v=0$, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, $\dfrac{I_3}{I_2} = \dfrac{a}{3}$

$$v = \frac{E_{ph} - V_o + a\omega}{\omega}$$

Intensity ratio: $|S_{v+1,0}/S_{v,0}|^2 = \frac{a}{v+1}$

Mean energy (center of gravity or centroid):

$$\bar{E} = \int EP(E)dE$$
$$= \sum(V_0 - a\omega + v\omega)\frac{a^v}{v!}e^{-a}$$
$$= V_0 - a\omega + \omega\sum_v v\frac{a^v}{v!}e^{-a}$$
$$= V_0 - a\omega + \omega\sum_v \frac{a^v}{(v-1)!}e^{-a} = V_0$$

Energetic width:

$$(\Delta E)^2 = \overline{(E - \bar{E})^2} = \overline{E^2} - \overline{\bar{E}^2}$$
$$= \sum_v (v - a)^2\omega^2\frac{a^v}{v!}e^{-a}$$
$$= \sum\{v(v-1) + v - 2av + a^2\}\omega^2\frac{a^v}{v!}e^{-a}$$
$$= \sum \omega^2\frac{a^v}{(v-2)!}e^{-a} + (a - 2a^2 + a^2)\omega^2$$
$$= (a^2 + a - a^2)\omega^2 = a\omega^2 = \frac{k^2}{2}$$

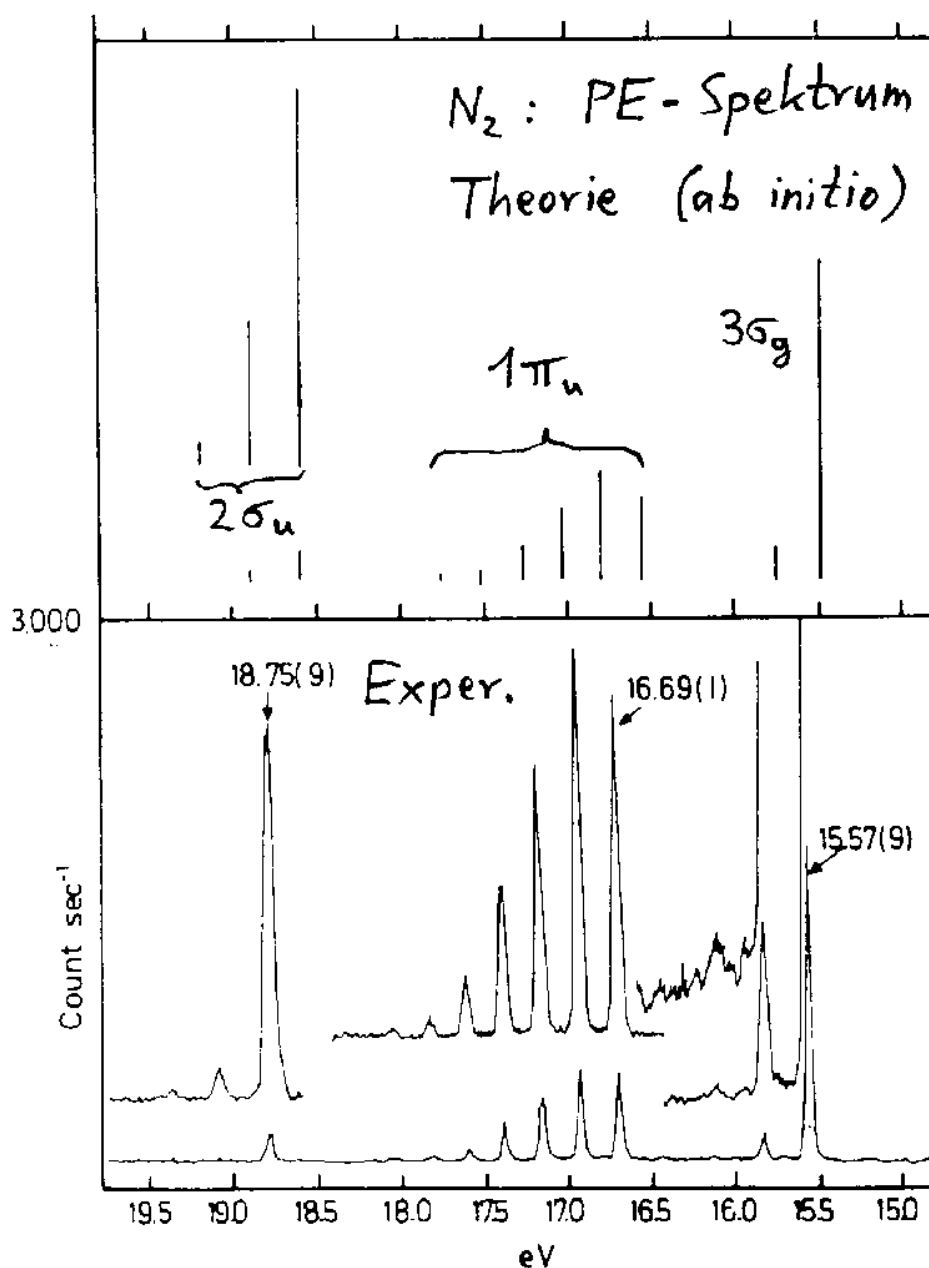$$\Longrightarrow \boxed{\Delta E \sim \frac{k}{\sqrt{2}}}$$

Width is defined through the gradient of the final state, $V_f(Q)$, at $Q = 0$ (because of the finite extension of $\chi_0(Q)$).

TESTS FÜR POISSON-VERTEILUNG

$$I_v = \frac{\alpha^v}{v!} e^{-\alpha}, \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{2}\frac{k^2}{w^2}$$

$$\longrightarrow \quad I_{v+1}/I_v = \frac{\alpha}{v+1}$$

N₂ : PE-Spektrum

Theorie (ab initio)

$2\sigma_u$

$1\pi_u$

$3\sigma_g$

3.000

Count sec⁻¹

18.75(9) Exper.

16.69(1)

15.57(9)

19.5 19.0 18.5 18.0 17.5 17.0 16.5 16.0 15.5 15.0

eV

$1\pi_u$ – Bande:

$\alpha = 1.33$

$$\frac{I_{v+1}}{I_v}(v+1) \approx$$
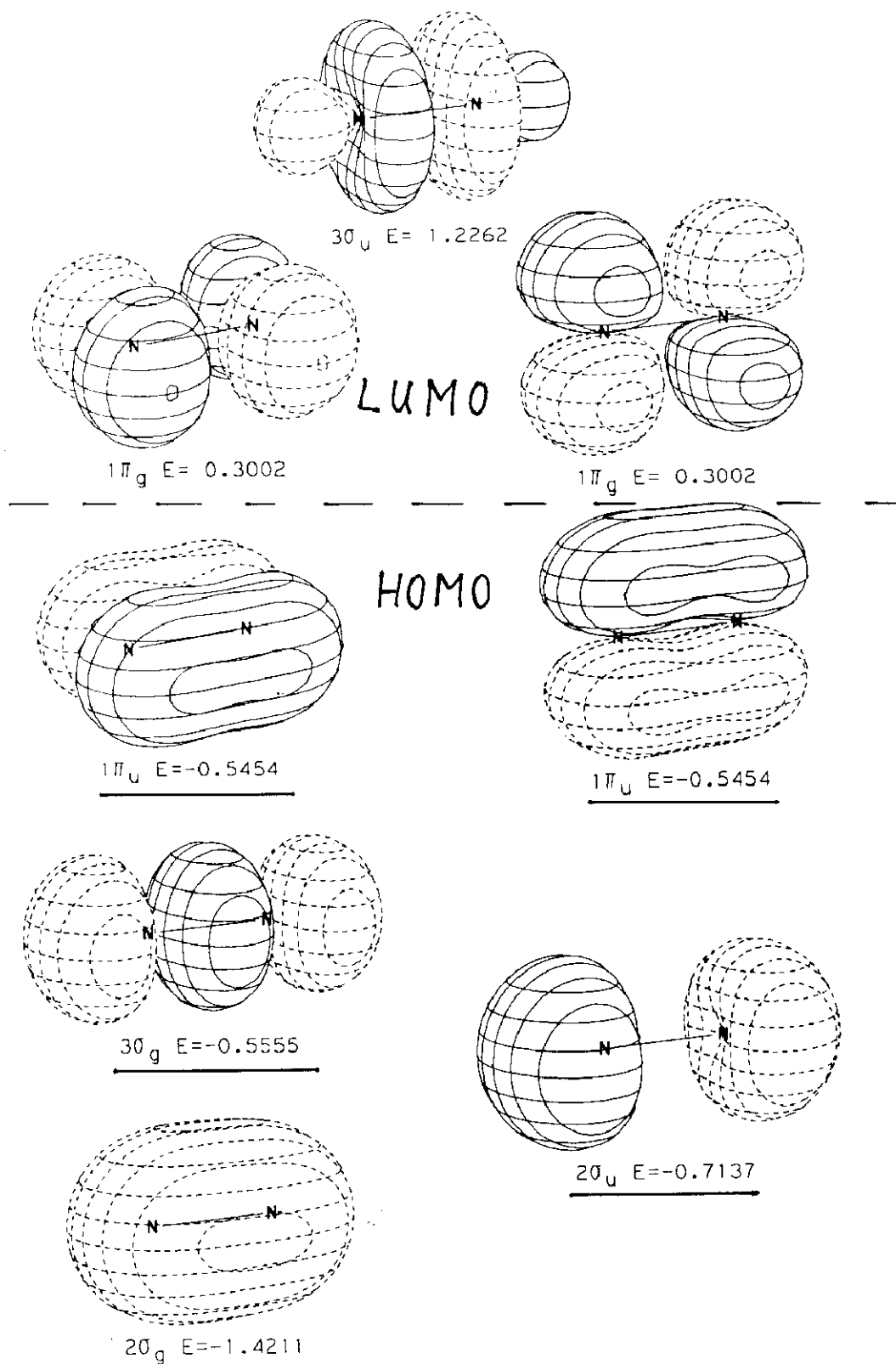
1.14, 1.38,
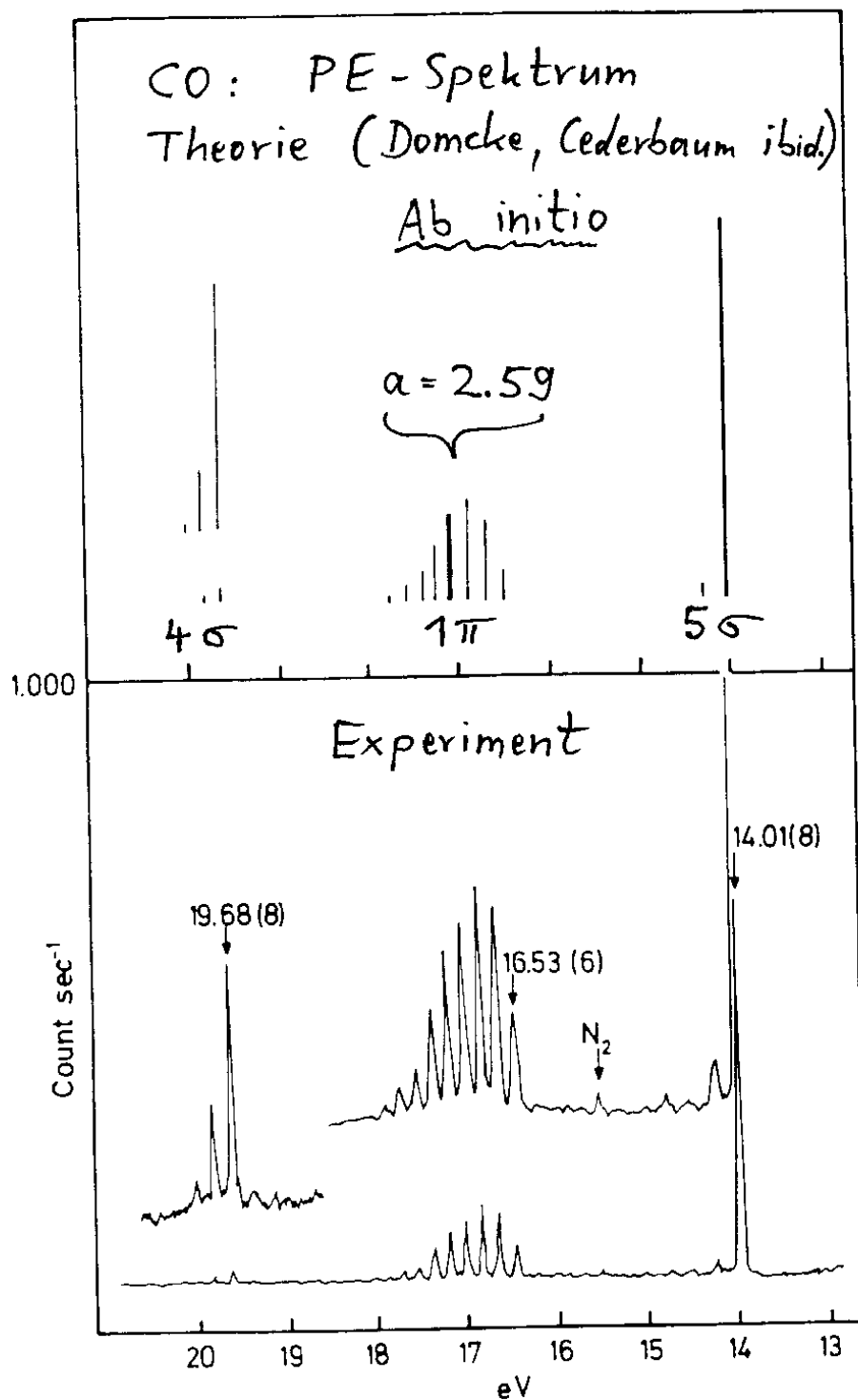1.67, 1.60 ....

Cederbaum, Domcke, J. Chem. Phys. 60, 2878 ('74)

16. Nitrogen   Symmetry: $D_{\infty h}$

$3\sigma_u$ E= 1.2262

LUMO

$1\pi_g$ E= 0.3002

$1\pi_g$ E= 0.3002

HOMO

$1\pi_u$ E=-0.5454

$1\pi_u$ E=-0.5454

$3\sigma_g$ E=-0.5555

$2\sigma_u$ E=-0.7137

$2\sigma_g$ E=-1.4211

POISSON : $\dfrac{I_{v+1}}{I_v} = \dfrac{a}{v+1}$

CO : PE - Spektrum
Theorie (Domcke, Cederbaum ibid.)

Ab initio

$a = 2.59$

4σ   1π   5σ

1.000

Experiment

14.01(8)

19.68 (8)

16.53 (6)

N_2

Count sec⁻¹

20   19   18   17   16   15   14   13

eV

$\dfrac{1\pi -}{\text{Bande :}}$

$\dfrac{I_{v+1}}{I_v}(v+1) \approx$

2.13, 2.19,
2.57, 3.47,
3.27, 2.82,
⋮

15. Carbon Monoxide   Symmetry: $C_{\infty v}$
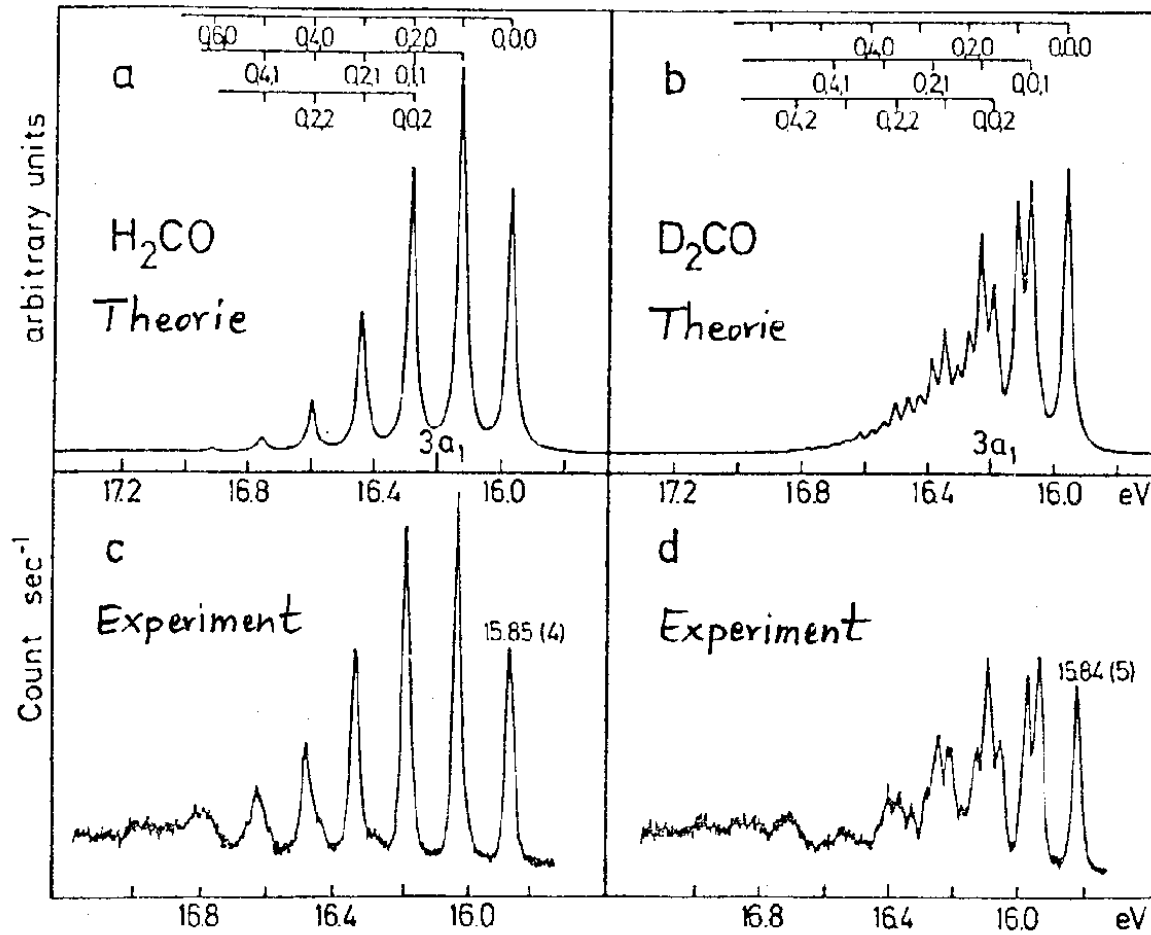
6σ E= 0.2755

LUMO

2π E= 0.1268

2π E= 0.1268

HOMO

5σ E=-0.5544

1π E=-0.6395

1π E=-0.6395

4σ E=-0.8038

3σ E=-1.5210

Mehrmoden PE - Bande

Anregungsspektrum

a
H₂CO
Theorie

0,6,0 0,4,0 0,2,0 0,0,0
0,4,1 0,2,1 0,1,1
0,2,2 0,0,2

3a₁

17.2 16.8 16.4 16.0

b
D₂CO
Theorie

0,4,0 0,2,0 0,0,0
0,4,1 0,2,1 0,0,1
0,4,2 0,2,2 0,0,2

3a₁

17.2 16.8 16.4 16.0 eV

c
Experiment

15.85 (4)

16.8 16.4 16.0

d
Experiment

15.84 (5)

16.8 16.4 16.0 eV

a
Theorie
N₂
3σg → 1πg

b
Exp.

v'=0 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

100 80 60 40 20 0

9.0 10.0 eV
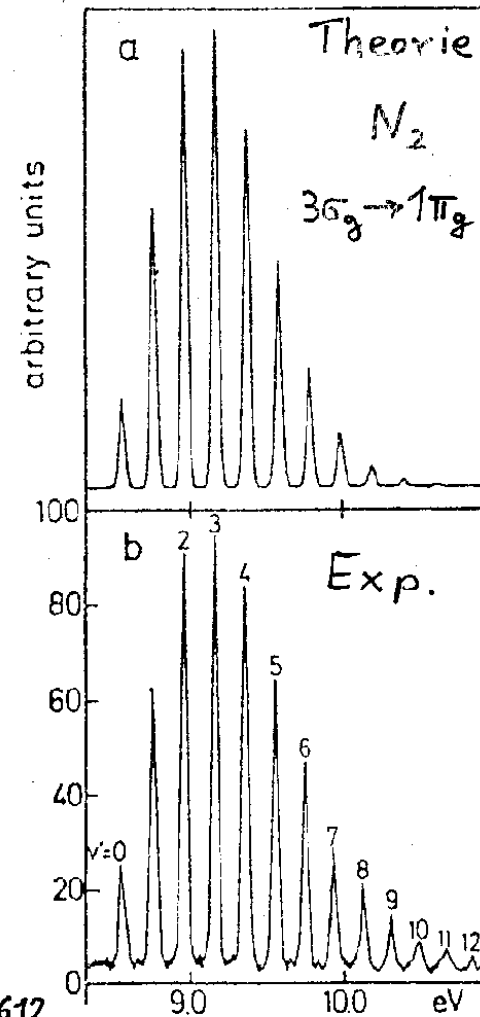
Normalmoden eines (symm. plan.) XYZ_2-Moleküls
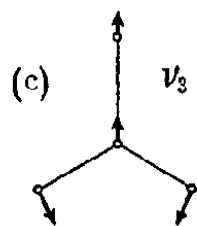
(Freq. für H_2CO)
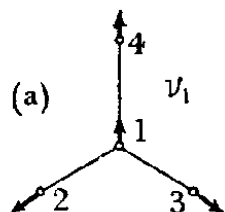
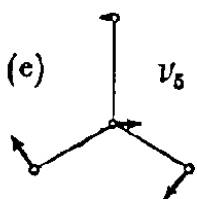(a) ν_1 symm. C-H Streckmode
$$\omega_1 = 2944 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$
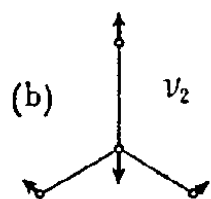
(b) ν_2 C-O Streckmode
$$\omega_2 = 1764 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

(c) ν_3 H-C-H Winkelschw.
$$\omega_3 = 1563 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$
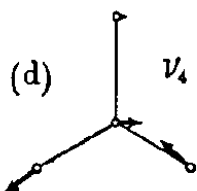
(d) ν_4 asymm. C-H Streckmode
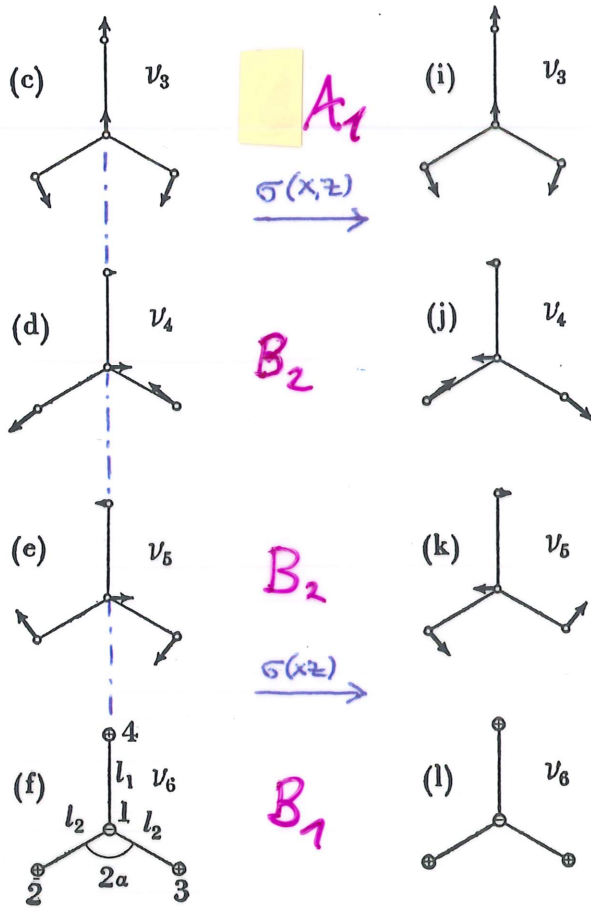$$\omega_4 = 3009 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

(e) ν_5 "C-O Winkelschw."
$$\omega_5 = 1288 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$
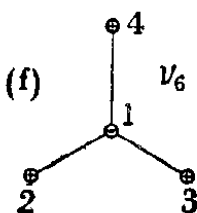
(f) ν_6 Nichtplanare Deformations- mode
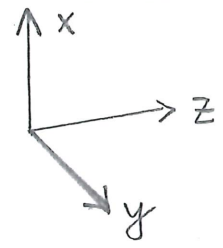$$\omega_6 = 1191 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

Symmetry considerations H₂CO

(c) ν_3 — **A₁** $\sigma(x,z)$ → (i) ν_3

(d) ν_4 — **B₂** (j) ν_4

(e) ν_5 — **B₂** $\sigma(xz)$ → (k) ν_5

(f) l_1 ν_6 **B₁** (l) ν_6
l_2 1 l_2
2   2a   3

$x \leftrightarrow y$
$B_1 \leftrightarrow B_2$
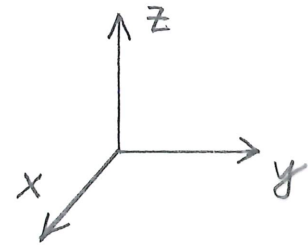
$\mathcal{C}_{2v}$	E	C_2	$\sigma_v(zx)$	$\sigma_v(yz)$	
A_1	1	1	1	1	T_z
A_2	1	1	−1	−1	R_z
B_1	1	−1	1	−1	$T_x; R_y$
B_2	1	−1	−1	1	$T_y; R_x$

LUMO

B₁ 2B₁ E= 0.2467 π^*_{CO}

B₂ 1B₁ E=−0.4697 π_{CO}

2B₂ E=−0.3853 n HOMO
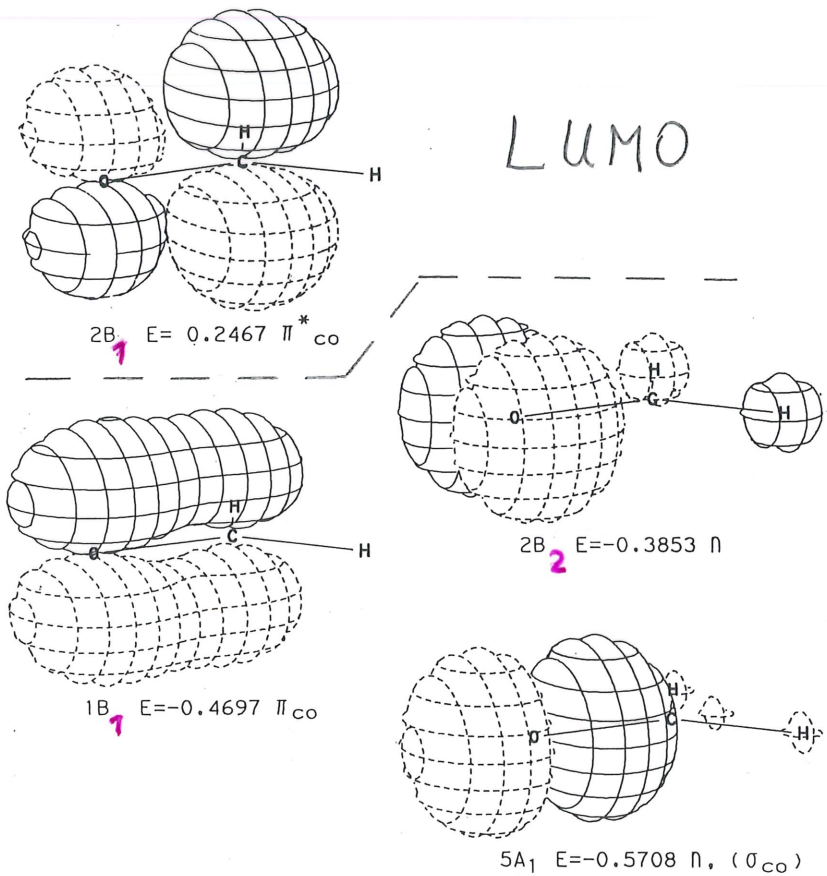
B₁ 5A₁ E=−0.5708 n, (σ_{CO})

Two-dimensional shifted harmonic oscillator

$$V_i(Q_1, Q_2) = \sum_{j=1,2} \frac{\omega_j}{2} Q_j^2 \qquad (\hbar = 1)$$

$$V_f(Q_1, Q_2) = V_f(Q = 0) + \sum_{j=1,2} \left(\frac{\omega_j}{2} Q_j^2 + k_j Q_j\right)$$

$$\tilde{E}_{v_1, v_2} - E_{0,0} = V_0 - \frac{k_1^2}{2\omega_1} - \frac{k_2^2}{2\omega_2} + \omega_1 v_1 + \omega_2 v_2$$

$$\Psi_f = \phi_f \, \tilde{\chi}_{v_1}(Q_1) \, \tilde{\chi}_{v_2}(Q_2)$$

$$|S_{v_1 v_2, 00}|^2 = |S_{v_1 0}|^2 |S_{v_2 0}|^2$$

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} \longrightarrow \quad P(E_{ph}) &= \sum_{v_1, v_2} \frac{a_1^{v_1} a_2^{v_2}}{v_1! \, v_2!} e^{-a_1 - a_2} \times \\ \times \quad & \delta(E_{ph} - V_0 + a_1 \omega_1 + a_2 \omega_2 - v_1 \omega_1 - v_2 \omega_2) \end{aligned}}$$

where $a_j = \kappa_j^2/2 = k_j^2/(2\omega_j^2) \; (j = 1, 2)$.

"Convolution" of two Poisson intensity distributions!

A.4) The frequency-modified harmonic oscillator

Non-totally symmetric modes : $\frac{\partial V_f(Q)}{\partial Q} = 0$

Next order in expansion: $V_f(Q) = V_f(0) + \frac{\gamma}{2}Q^2 + \frac{\omega}{2}Q^2$

New frequency : $\omega_f \equiv \hat{\omega} = \sqrt{\omega(\omega + \gamma)}$

New dimensionless normal coordinate:

$$\hat{Q} = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\omega}}{\omega}}Q = \sqrt[4]{\frac{\omega+\gamma}{\omega}}Q$$

$$\implies H_f = -\frac{\omega}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial Q^2} + \frac{\omega+\gamma}{2}Q^2 \equiv -\frac{\hat{\omega}}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \hat{Q}^2} + \frac{\hat{\omega}}{2}\hat{Q}^2$$

One can find the Franck-Condon factors as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{l}
|S_{0,2v+1}|^2 = 0 \\
|S_{0,2v}|^2 = \frac{2\sqrt{\omega\hat{\omega}}}{\omega+\hat{\omega}} \left(\frac{\hat{\omega}-\omega}{\hat{\omega}+\omega}\right)^{2v} \frac{(2v-1)!!}{2^v v!}
\end{array}
$$

Example:

$\hat{\omega} = 2\omega \implies$

$|S_{0,0}|^2 = \frac{\sqrt{8}}{3} \approx 0.94$, $|S_{0,2}|^2 \approx 0.05$, $|S_{0,2}|^2 \approx 0.004$

Only weak vibrational excitation !

B) THE JAHN-TELLER EFFECT AND VIBRONIC INTERACTIONS

B.1) Diabatic electronic states

Near-degeneracies of potential energy surfaces usually involve just a few electronic states. In the following, we shall restrict ourselves to two states. We shall assume that, exclusively within this subspace (and a certain set of Q), the Born-Oppenheimer approximation does not hold.

As the total wavefunction is

$$\psi(x,Q) = \chi_1(Q)\phi_1(x,Q) + \chi_2(Q)\phi_2(x,Q)$$

we can write the linear differential equation system from Ch. A.1 as

$$\left(\mathcal{H}_{ad} - E\mathbf{1}\right)\boldsymbol{\chi} = \mathbf{0}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\chi} = \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1 \\ \chi_2 \end{pmatrix}$, $\mathbf{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, and

$$\mathcal{H}_{ad} = T_k \mathbf{1} + \begin{pmatrix} V_1(Q) - \Lambda_{11} & -\Lambda_{12} \\ -\Lambda_{21} & V_2(Q) - \Lambda_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

is the Hamiltonian operator in matrix form for the coupled states in the adiabatic representation (involving electronic and nuclear wavefunctions).

Instead of the adiabatic representation, we can use the so-called **diabatic** representation where the wavefunction is written as:

$$\psi(x, Q) = \sum \tilde{\chi}_m(Q)\phi_m(x, Q_0)$$

where Q_0 implies that the electronic wavefunction either does not depend on the nuclear coordinates or it does very slightly. Note that in this representation also the nuclear wavefunction changes.

From a formal perspective, we can write:

$$[\mathcal{H}_{el}(Q_0) - V_n(Q_0)]\phi_n(x, Q_0) = 0$$

Since $\phi_m(x, Q_0)$ depends only slightly on Q, then

$$\langle \phi_n(x, Q_0) \left| T_k \right| \phi_m(x, Q_0) \rangle = \qquad (1)$$

$$\int dx \phi_n^*(x, Q_0) T_k \phi_m(x, Q_0) = T_k \delta_{nm}$$

hence, T_k is diagonal in this representation.

Conversely, the matrix representation of $\mathcal{H}_{el}(Q)$ for $Q \neq Q_0$ is no longer diagonal and:

$$\langle \phi_n(Q_0) | \mathcal{H}_{el}(Q) | \phi_m(Q_0) \rangle = W_{nm}(Q)$$

with $W_{nm}(Q_0) = V_n(Q_0)\delta_{nm}$.

For the two-state case, we also have:

$$(\mathcal{H} - E\mathbf{1})\tilde{\boldsymbol{\chi}} = 0 \qquad \tilde{\boldsymbol{\chi}} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\chi}_1 \\ \tilde{\chi}_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

with

$$\mathcal{H} = T_k \mathbf{1} + \begin{pmatrix} W_{11}(Q) & W_{21}(Q) \\ W_{12}(Q) & W_{22}(Q) \end{pmatrix}$$

Comparison

Adiabatic representation: $\mathcal{H}_{el}$ diagonal, T_k non-diagonal.

Diabatic representation: $\mathcal{H}_{el}$ non-diagonal, T_k diagonal.

We shall see later that the diabatic representation is particularly suitable for certain types of problems and therefore it plays a very relevant role.

It should be stressed that both representations are exact, as long as an infinite number of states is considered.

Diabatic-adiabatic basis transformation in the two-state problem

It can be seen from the equations above that the adiabatic representation can be recovered by diagonalisation of the potential matrix $\boldsymbol{W}$:

$$\boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}(Q) \begin{pmatrix} W_{11}(Q) & W_{21}(Q) \\ W_{12}(Q) & W_{22}(Q) \end{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{S}(Q) = \begin{pmatrix} V_1(Q) & 0 \\ 0 & V_2(Q) \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}(Q)\,\boldsymbol{S}(Q) = \boldsymbol{S}(Q)\,\boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}(Q) = \mathbf{1}$.

From this, it follows

$$\mathcal{H}_{ad} = \boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}\mathcal{H}\boldsymbol{S} = \boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}T_k\boldsymbol{S} + \begin{pmatrix} V_1(Q) & 0 \\ 0 & V_2(Q) \end{pmatrix},$$

and with

$$\boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}T_k\boldsymbol{S} + \boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}\boldsymbol{S}T_k - \boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}\boldsymbol{S}T_k = T_k - \boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}[\boldsymbol{S}, T_k]$$

we obtain

$$\mathcal{H}_{ad} = T_k\mathbf{1} + \begin{pmatrix} V_1(Q) & 0 \\ 0 & V_2(Q) \end{pmatrix} + \boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}[T_k, \boldsymbol{S}]$$

which is the original Hamiltonian operator in the adiabatic representation with

$$\boldsymbol{\Lambda} = -\boldsymbol{S}^{\dagger}[T_k, \boldsymbol{S}]\ .$$

Explicitly,

$$\boldsymbol{S}(Q) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha(Q) & \sin \alpha(Q) \\ -\sin \alpha(Q) & \cos \alpha(Q) \end{pmatrix}$$

where α is the mixing-angle describing the relative rotation of the adiabatic states with respect to the diabatic ones.

After some calculations, we can find that:

$$\boldsymbol{\Lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{\omega}{2}\alpha'^2 & \frac{\omega}{2}\alpha'' + \omega\alpha'\frac{\partial}{\partial Q} \\ -\frac{\omega}{2}\alpha'' - \omega\alpha'\frac{\partial}{\partial Q} & -\frac{\omega}{2}\alpha'^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

for $T_k = -\frac{\omega}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial Q^2}$.

The meaning of the momentum coupling can be understood by means of α' as the velocity of change of the rotation angle between the diabatic and the adiabatic representations.

The terms $-\frac{\omega}{2}\alpha'^2$ correspond to the on-diagonal mass-dependent corrections which can be added to the adiabatic potential.

Expression for the adiabatic potential $V_{1,2}$:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} W_{11} - V_1 & W_{12} \\ W_{12} & W_{22} - V_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

Its solution can be obtained immediately from the traceless matrix:

$$V_{1,2} = \frac{W_{11} + W_{22}}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{W_{11} - W_{22}}{2}\right)^2 + W_{12}^2}$$

where we have implicitly defined the following energetic ordering:

- upper symbols $\rightarrow$ upper surface

- lower symbols $\rightarrow$ lower surface

In order to complete the diabatic-adiabatic basis transformation: eigenvectors provide the potentials and eigenvalues provide the coupling $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$.

Both representations are formally equivalent.

When energy differences between states are large, the the adiabatic representation is better (˜diagonal), however for small differences the diabatic representation (analytic) should be used.

B.2) A simple model of vibronic coupling

Use a diabatic electronic basis and expand coupling terms:

$$\mathcal{H} = T_K \mathbf{1} + \boldsymbol{W}$$

$$W_{nn}(Q) = V_0(Q) + E_n + \sum_i k_i^{(n)} Q_i + \sum_{i,j} \gamma_{ij}^{(n)} Q_i Q_j + \cdots$$

$$W_{nn'}(Q) = \sum_i \lambda_i^{(nn')} Q_i + \cdots \qquad (n \neq n')$$

with Q_i: normal coordinates of $V_0(Q)$,
and, for instance, $\quad k_i^{(n)} = (\partial V_n / \partial Q_i)_{Q=0}$.

$k_i^{(n)}$ is the gradient of the excited potential energy surface at the Franck-Condon zone centre.

Analogously for the other coupling constants.

The coupling constants can therefore be determined from *ab initio* calculations (few points are needed).

Selection rule for $\lambda_i^{(nn')}$

$$\Gamma_n \times \Gamma_Q \times \Gamma_{n'} \supset \Gamma_A$$

a) *Hamiltonian for a two-state case:*

$$\mathcal{H} = \left(-\frac{1}{2}\sum \omega_i \frac{\partial^2}{\partial Q_i^2} + \frac{1}{2}\sum \omega_i Q_i^2\right)\mathbf{1} + \left(\begin{array}{cc} E_g + \sum k_j^{(g)} Q_j & \sum \lambda_l Q_l \\ \sum \lambda_l Q_l & E_u + \sum k_j^{(u)} Q_j \end{array}\right)$$

Electronic states with different symmetries $\rightarrow$ Modes l and j are different.

For a first insight into the phenomena, the g mode will be dropped and only one term will be considered in the off-diagonal element:

$$\mathcal{H} = \left(-\frac{\omega_u}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial Q_u^2} + \frac{\omega_u}{2}Q_u^2\right)\mathbf{1} + \left(\begin{array}{cc} E_g & \lambda Q_u \\ \lambda Q_u & E_u \end{array}\right)$$

This is almost the simplest case that one can think of, but it still shows many of the representative effects of vibronic interactions.
In the diabatic representation $\mathcal{H}$ is not too descriptive. Let us have a look then at the adiabatic potential energy curves:

$$E = \frac{E_g + E_u}{2} \quad ; \quad \Delta E = \frac{E_g - E_u}{2}$$

$$\Longrightarrow V_\pm = \frac{\omega_u}{2}Q_u^2 + E \pm \sqrt{\Delta E^2 + \lambda^2 Q_u^2}$$

If $Q_u = 0$ then $V_\pm = E \pm \Delta E = \begin{cases} E_g \\ E_u \end{cases}$,

i.e., the diabatic and the adiabatic potential energy curves are identical (how it should be). $Q_u \neq 0$ yields repulsion between the potential energy curves. A qualitative picture is displayed next,
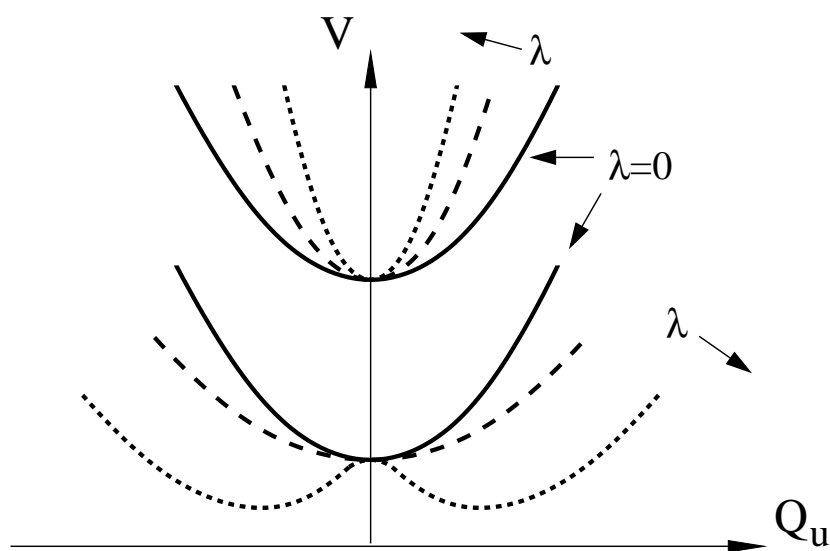
The upper potential energy curves, V_+, are always steeper due to the interaction.

For V_- a double minimun can be obtained for strong couplings: Symmetry breaking.

Repulsion of potential energy curves and symmetry lowering (linear $\rightarrow$ non-linear; planar $\rightarrow$ non-planar) are important signs of vibronic interaction with other electronic states.

Calculation of the curvature using Taylor expansion:

$$V_\pm = E + \frac{\omega_u}{2}Q_u^2 \pm \Delta E \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\lambda^2 Q_u^2}{\Delta E^2} + ...\right)$$

$$= E + \frac{\omega_u}{2}Q_u^2 \pm \Delta E \pm \frac{\lambda^2 Q_u^2}{2\Delta E^2}$$

$$= E \pm \Delta E + \frac{1}{2}\left(\omega_u \pm \frac{\lambda^2}{\Delta E}\right)Q_u^2$$

$$\boxed{\implies \omega_u^\pm = \omega_u \pm \frac{\lambda^2}{\Delta E}}$$

The change in the curvature is symmetric, as the repulsion of the potential energy curves. The expression for ω_u^- holds only for positive frequencies. This yields a critical coupling strength, λ_c, for obtaining a double minimum:

$$\boxed{\lambda_c^2 = \Delta E \cdot \omega_u}$$

If $\lambda > \lambda_c$, $Q_u = 0$ represents a local maximum. The minima are the non-trivial solutions of the equation:

$$0 = \frac{\partial V_-}{\partial Q_u} = \omega_u\, Q_u - \frac{\lambda^2 Q_u}{\sqrt{\Delta E^2 + \lambda^2 Q_u^2}}$$

$$\implies Q_u^o = \pm\sqrt{\frac{\lambda^2}{\omega_u^2} - \frac{\Delta E^2}{\lambda^2}}$$

The solutions are real and $\neq 0$ if $\lambda > \lambda_c$. The stabilization energy, E_s, represents the lowering of the minimum of the lower potential energy curve relative to the minimum in the absence of vibronic coupling ($\lambda = 0$) due to an asymmetric distortion:

$$E_s = V_-(0) - V_-(Q_u^o) = \frac{\omega_u}{2} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\omega_u} - \frac{\Delta E}{\lambda} \right)^2$$

This expression is formally always defined, but holds only for $\lambda > \lambda_c$.

Beside the potential energy curves, we are interested also in the non-adiabatic couplings, given by the derivative of the rotation angle, α':

$$\alpha(Q_u) = \frac{1}{2} \arctan \frac{2\, W_{12}}{W_{11} - W_{22}}$$

Substituting and differentiating:

$$\alpha(Q_u) = \frac{1}{2} \arctan \frac{\lambda Q_u}{\Delta E}$$

$$\implies \alpha' = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\lambda^2 Q_u^2}{\Delta E^2}} \cdot \frac{\lambda}{\Delta E} = \frac{\lambda \Delta E / 2}{\Delta E^2 + \lambda^2 Q_u^2}$$

One obtains a Lorentzian curve with a width and a height given by $hwhm = \frac{\Delta E}{\lambda}$ and $\alpha'(0) = \frac{\lambda}{2\Delta E}$, respectively.

The area under the $\alpha'(Q_u)$ curve has to be $\frac{\pi}{2}$ and, therefore, the limits for $\alpha(\pm\infty)$ are $\pm\frac{\pi}{4}$.
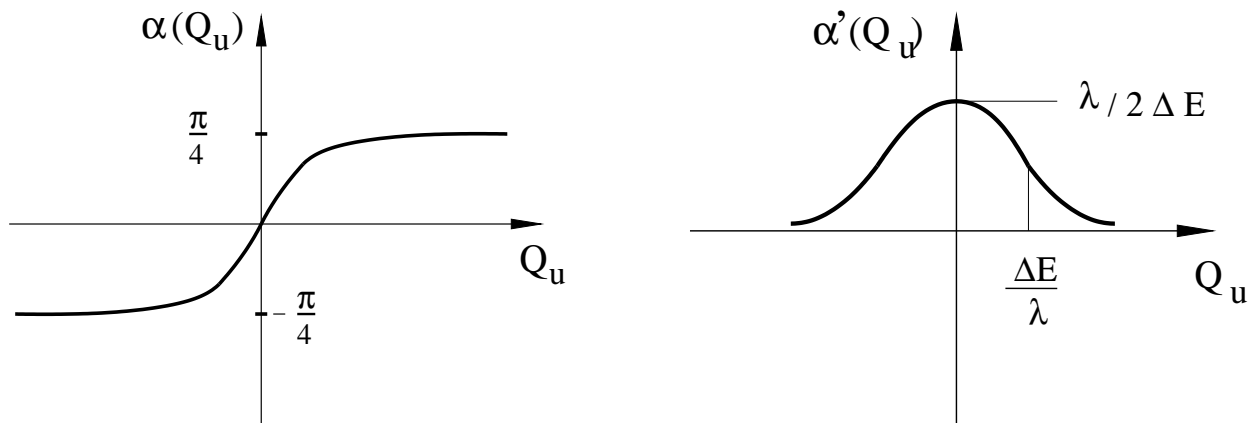
One can see from this expression that for fixed values of λ and ω_u, the non-adiabatic effects increase with decreasing ΔE.

Comparison of criteria:

Double minimum:	$\lambda^2 > \omega_u \cdot \Delta E$
Non-adiabatic effects:	$\lambda > \Delta E,\ \omega_u \geq \Delta E$

For $\omega_u < \Delta E$, the criterion for the double minimum is easier to fulfil than for non-adiabatic effects.

$\longrightarrow$ different validity of the diagonal approximation in the adiabatic and the diabatic basis!

$$\omega_u\, \Delta E < \lambda^2 < \Delta E^2$$

Double minimum / adiabatic app. valid

# B.3) Conical intersection and vibronic dynamics in the ethene radical cation, $C_2H_4^+$

Schematic representation of the relevant vibrational normal modes and molecular orbitals of $C_2H_4^+$
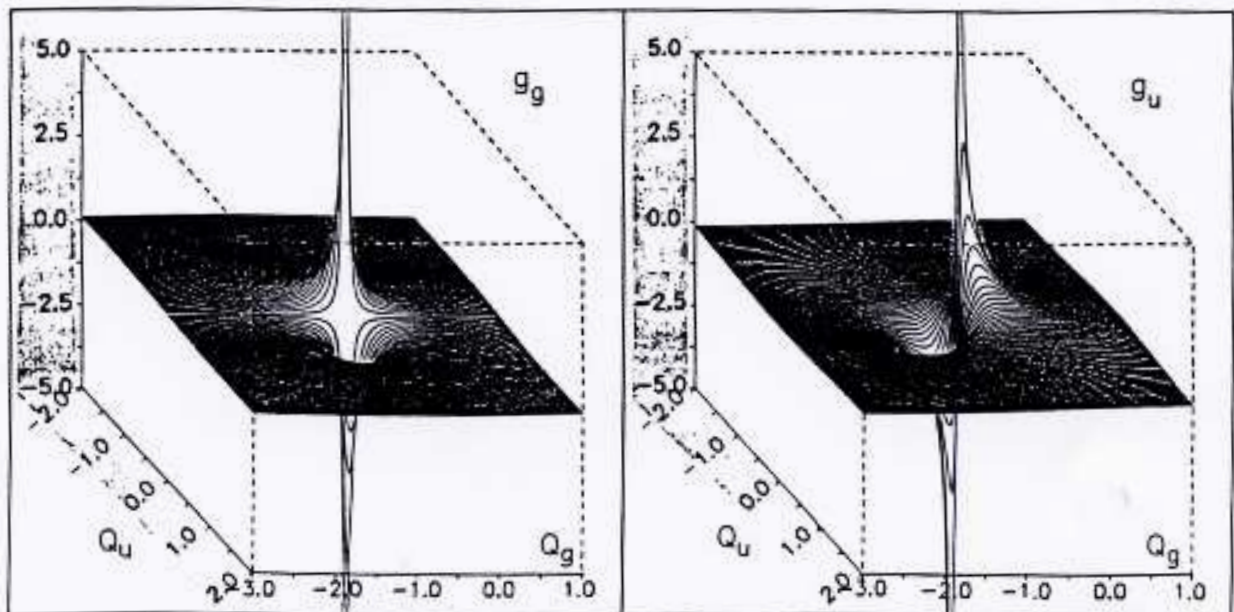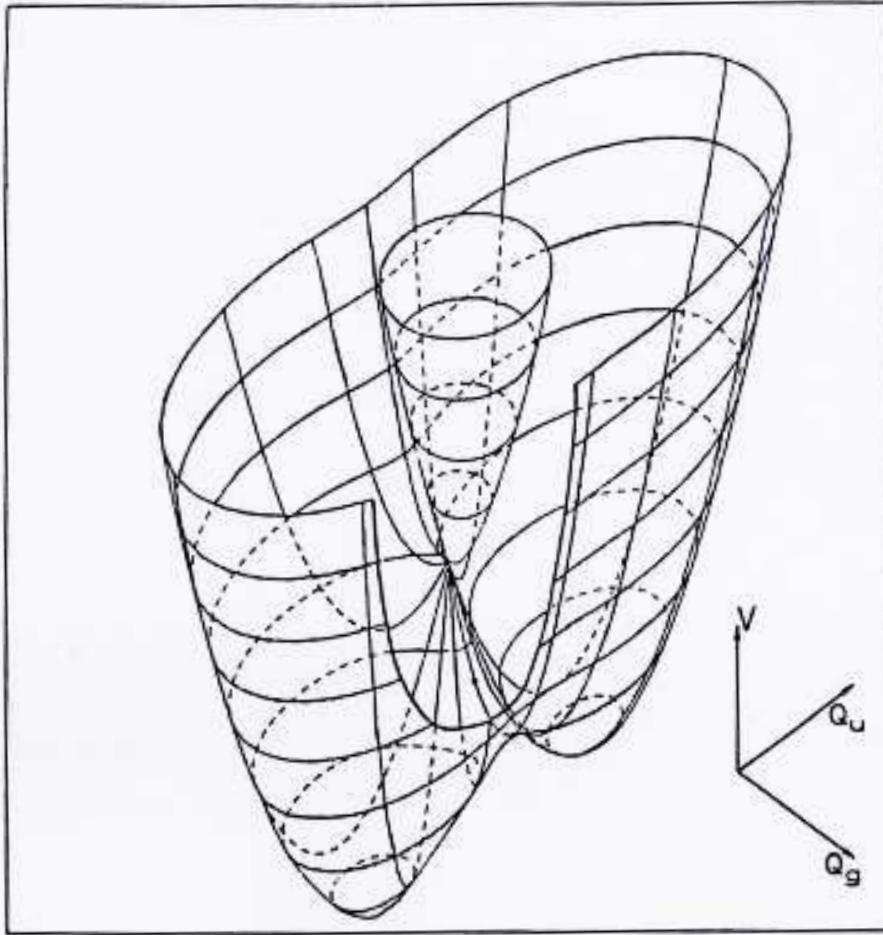(Mode 1-3: totally symmetric modes, Mode 4: Torsion)

$\omega_1 = 0.3915$ $\omega_2 = 0.2054$ $\omega_3 = 0.1710$ eV

$\pi(b_{2u})$

$\pi_{CH_2}(b_{2g})$

$^2B_{2u}$ $^2B_{2g}$

$\Delta E \approx 1.9\,eV$
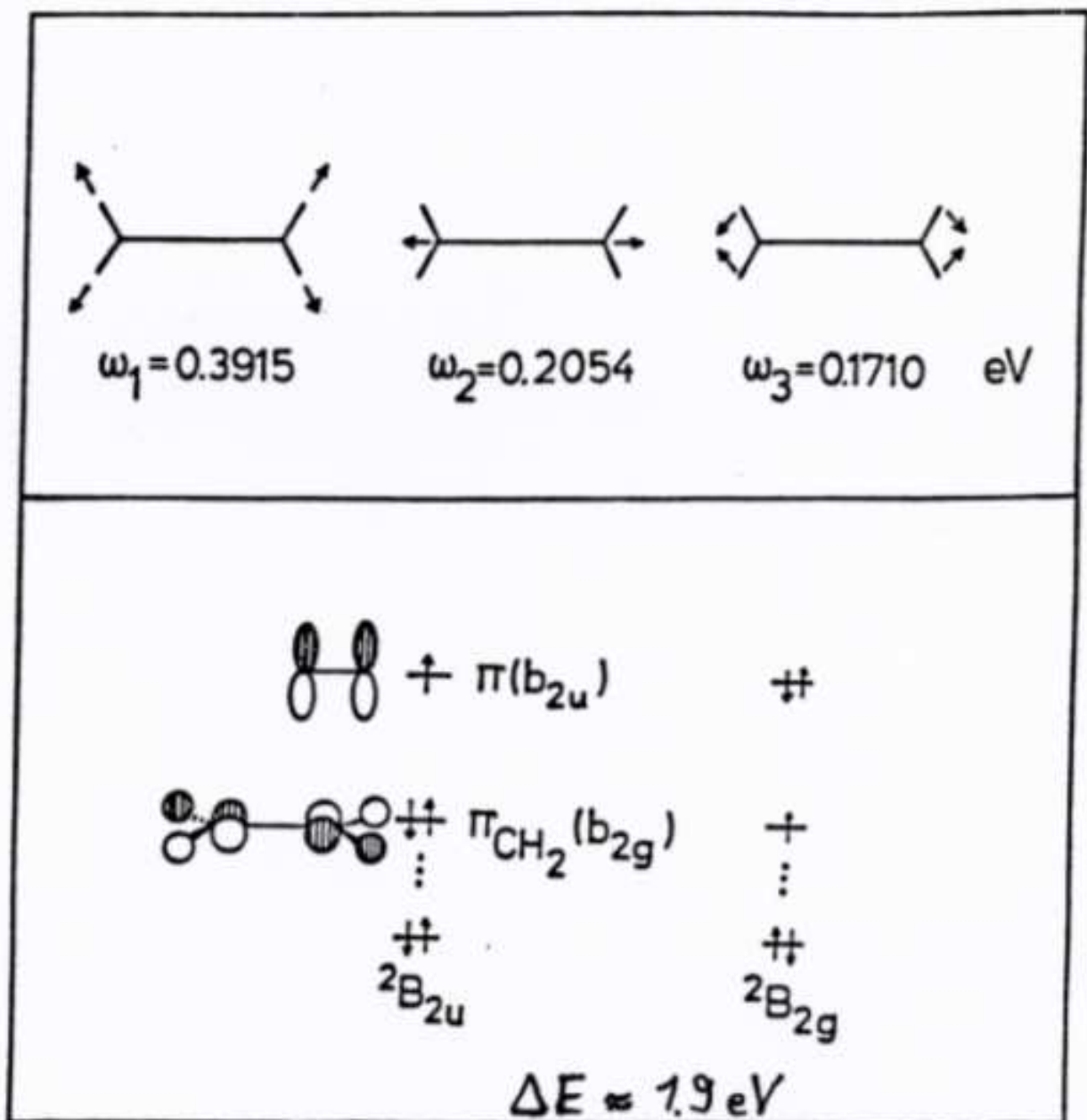
$\underline{B_{2u} \times B_{2g} = A_u \,(Torsion)}$

Potentialkurven (links) und Durchschneidungssaum (rechts) von $C_2H_4^+$ ($\tilde{X}$, $\tilde{A}$)
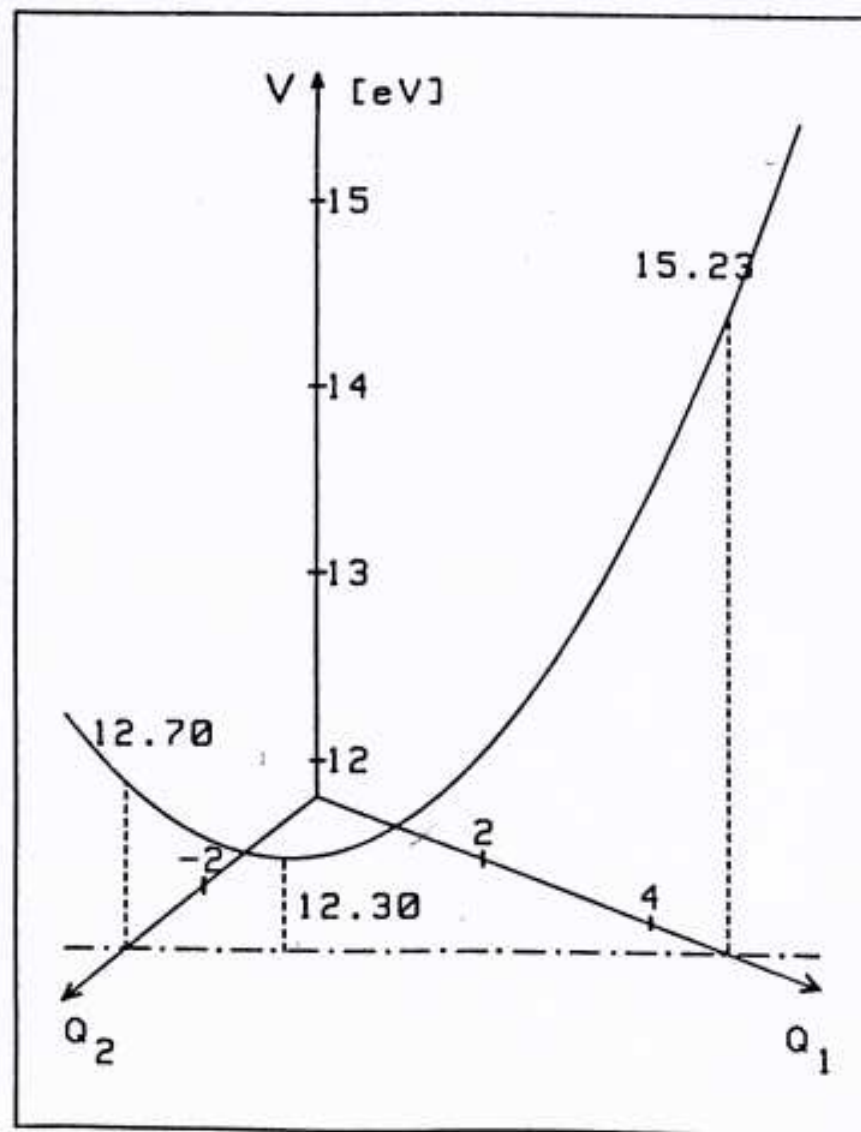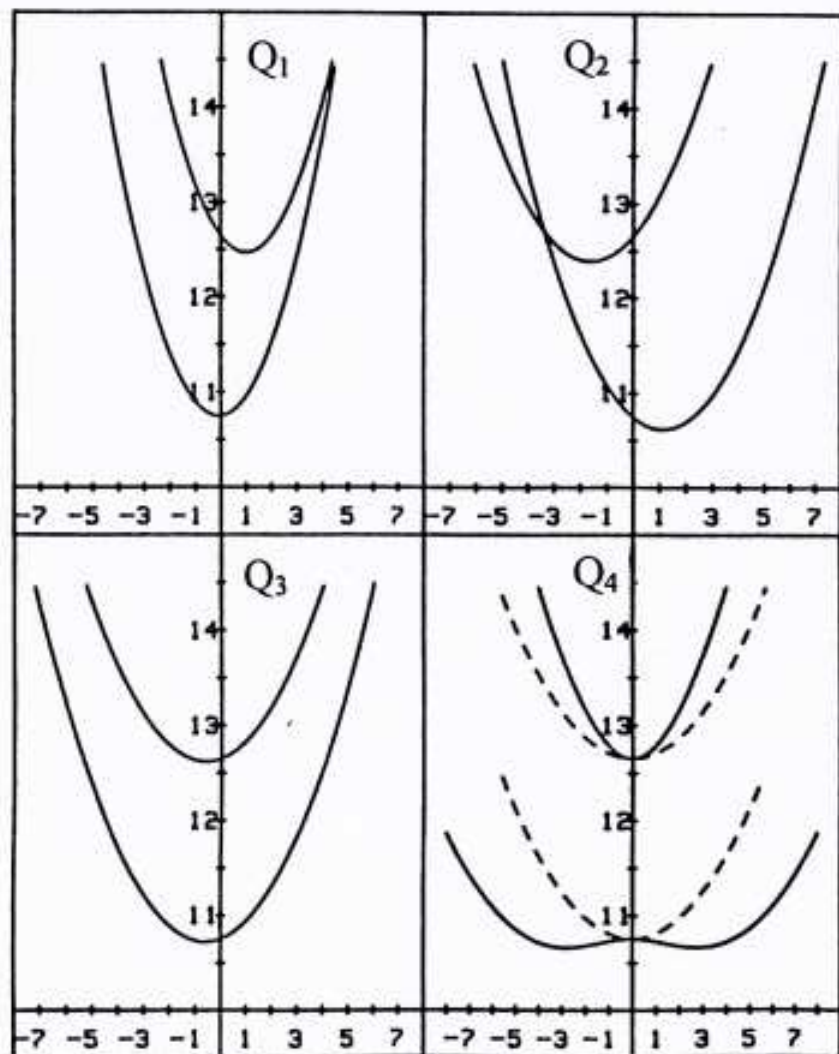
Perspektiv. Darstellung der konischen Durchschneidung
und nichtadiabatischen Kopplungselemente des Prototyp
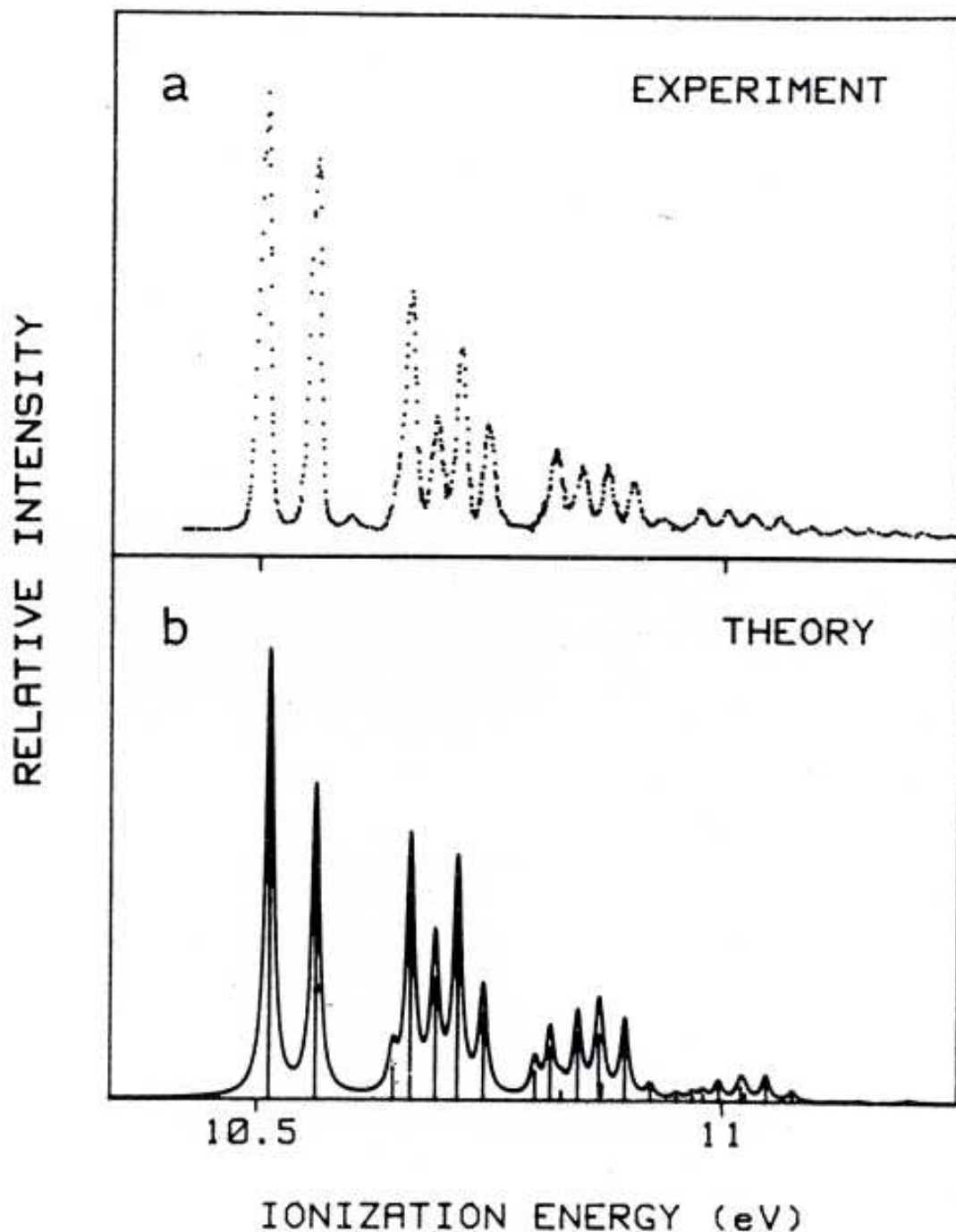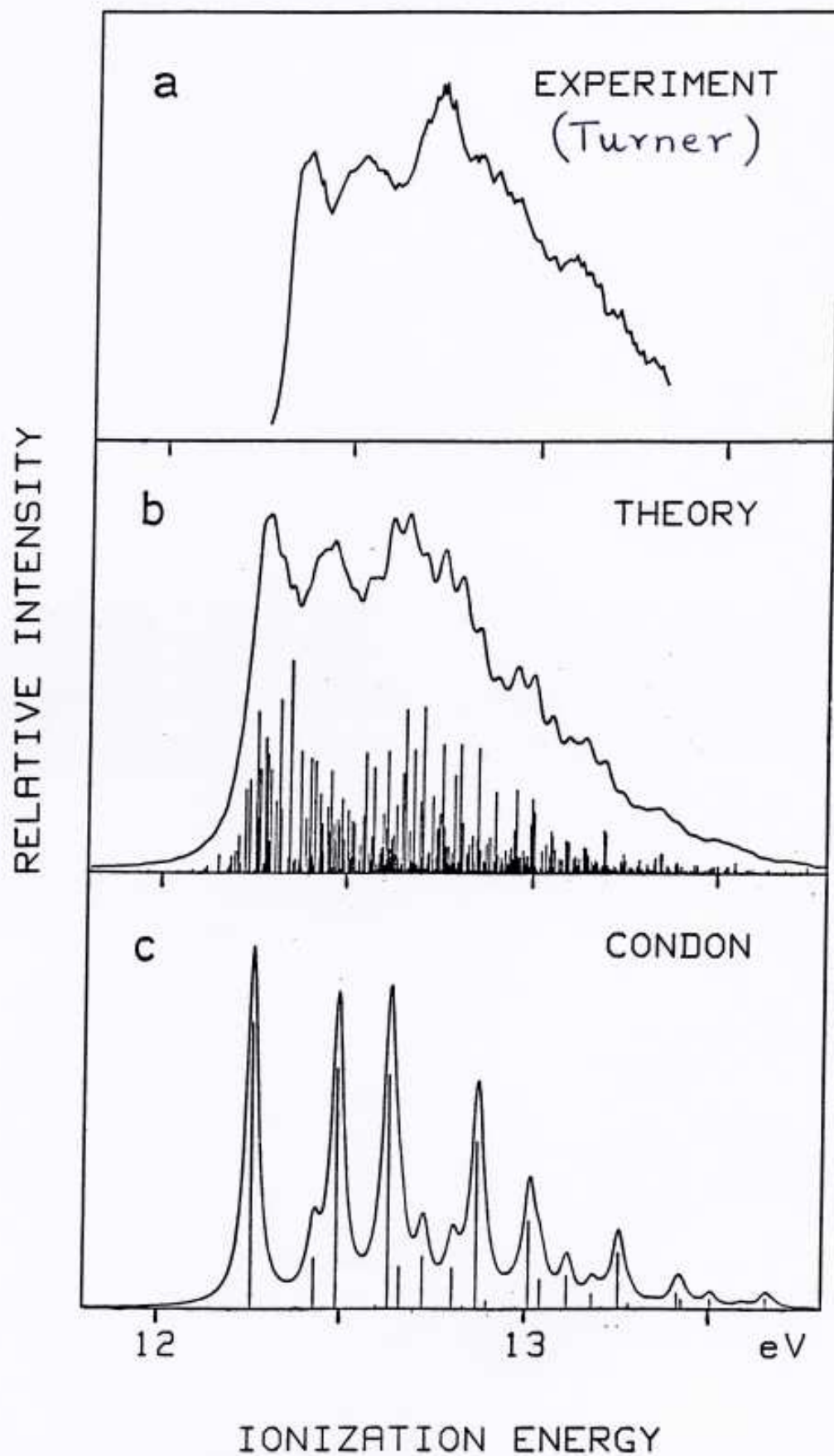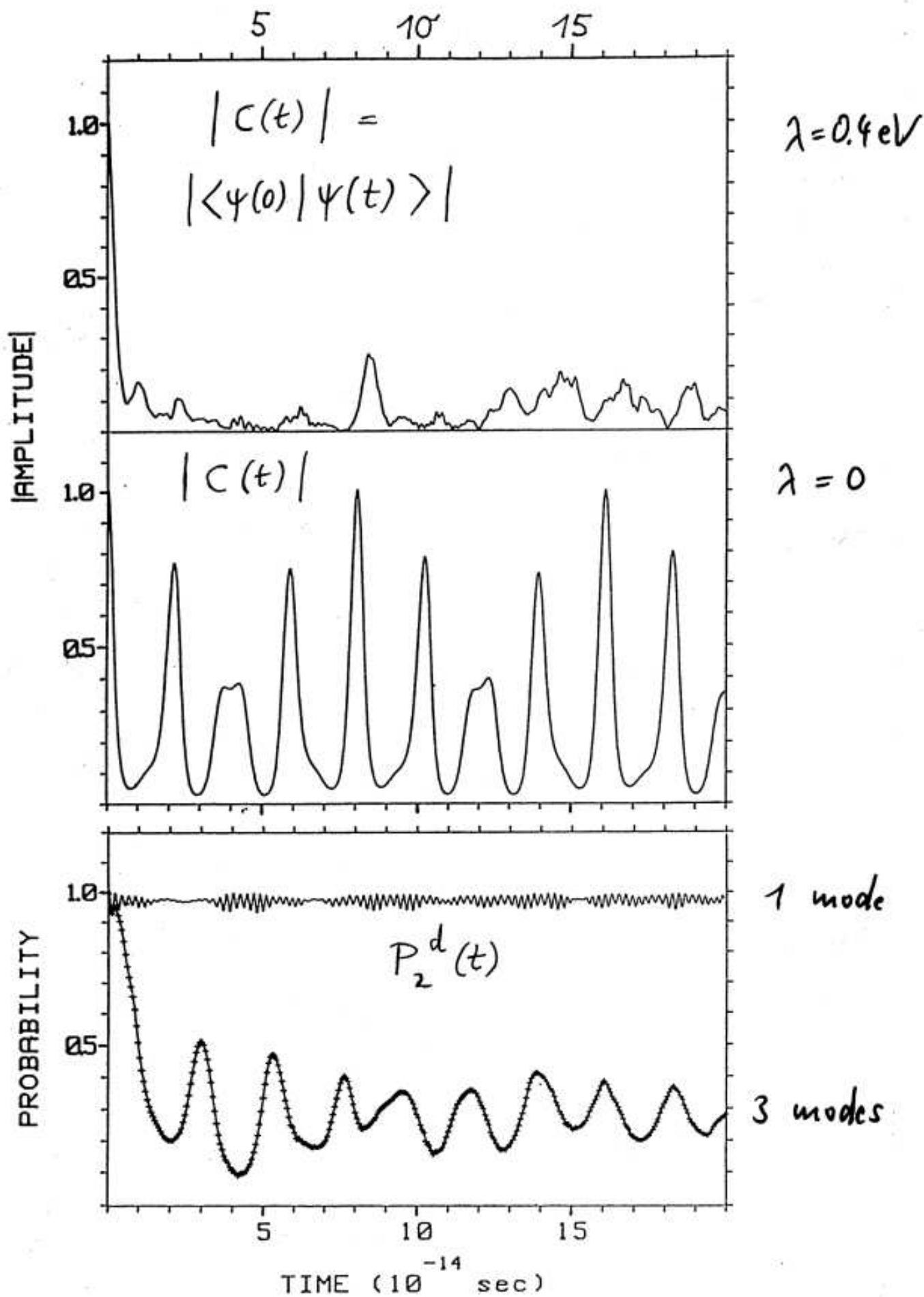g-u - Problems : $C_2 H_4^+$ $(\tilde{X}, \tilde{A})$

3. 26. The first band in the photoelectron spectrum of ethylene. (a) The experime
ing according to Pollard et al.[209] (b) The result of the vibronic coupling calculation
fwhm = 0.01 eV). For the values of the parameters see Table V.

Zweite Photoelektronenbande von Ethen:
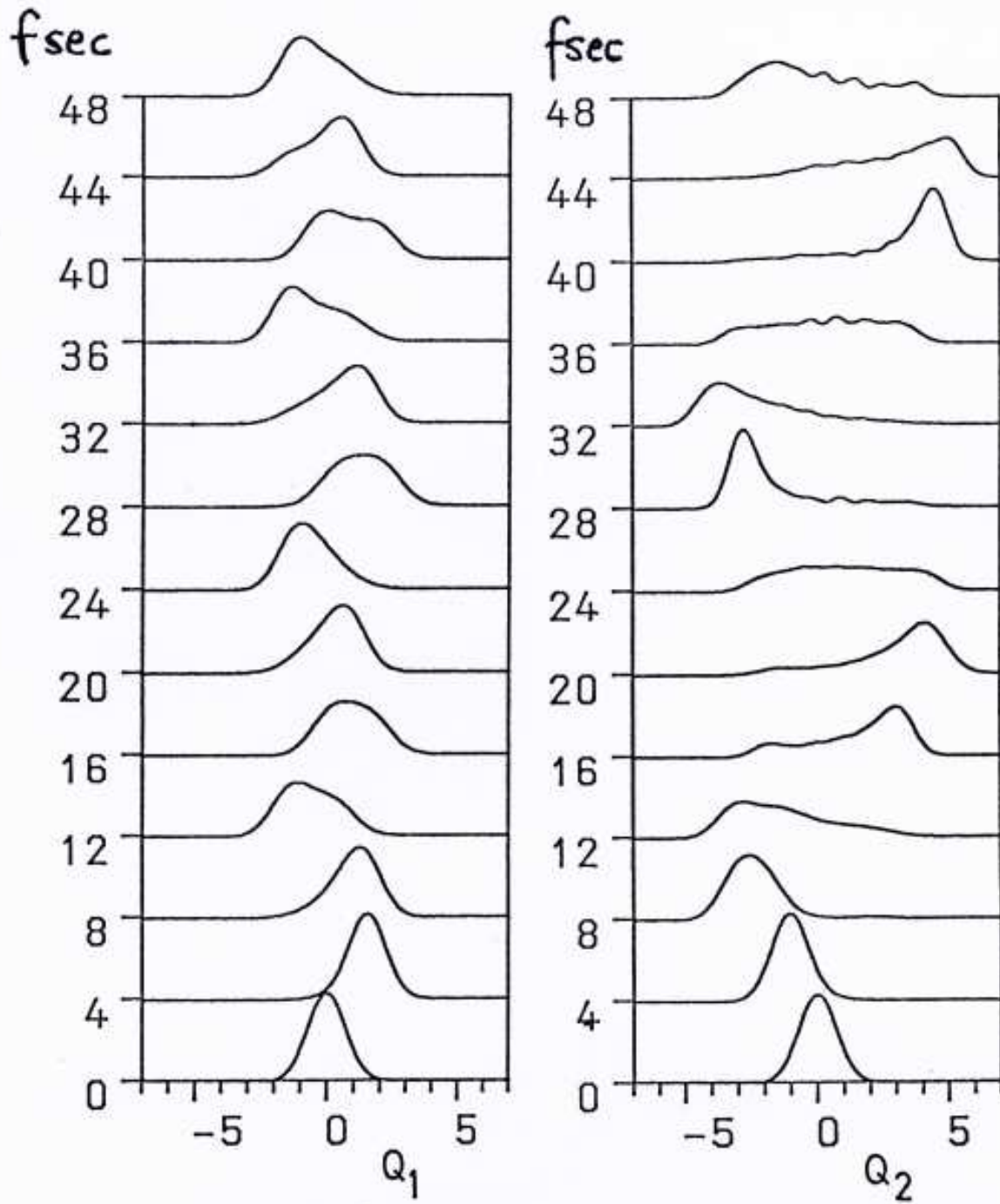## Vergleich Theorie - Experiment

Wavepackets dynamics for $C_2H_4^+$ ($\tilde{X}$,$\tilde{A}$)

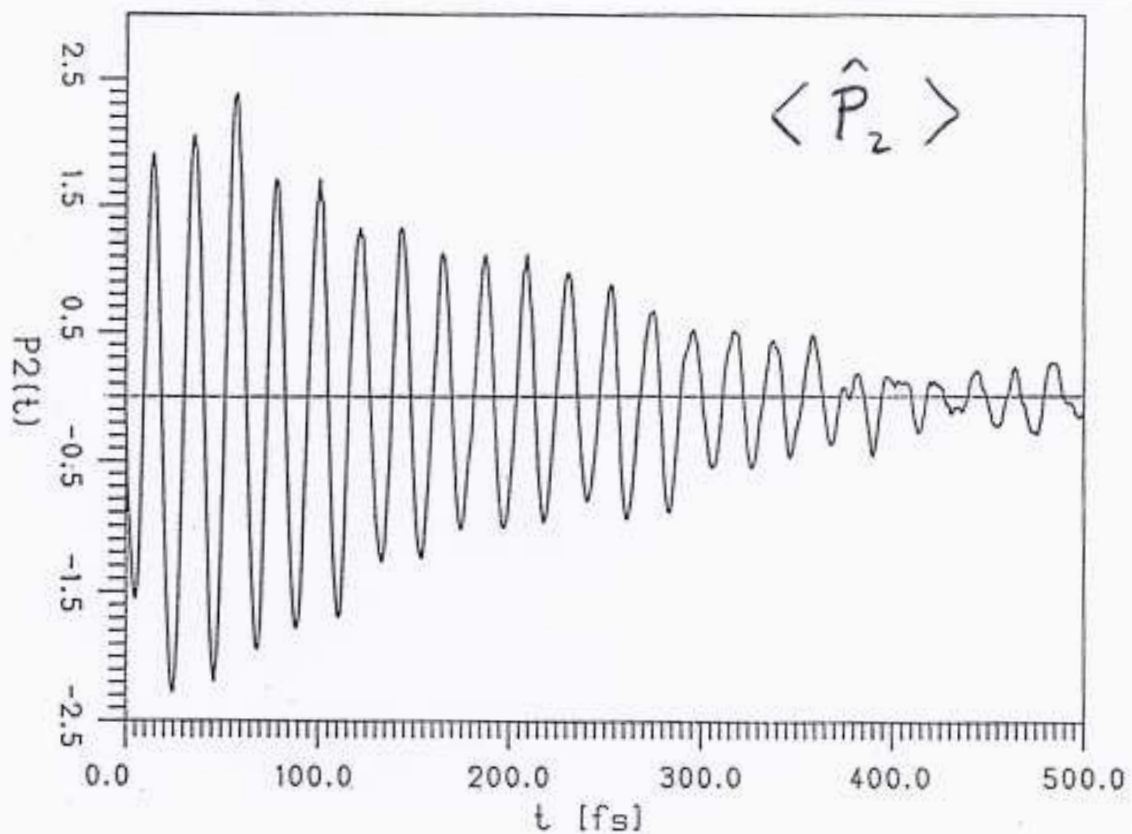# Short-time dynamics for $C_2H_4^+$ $(\tilde{X},\tilde{A})$

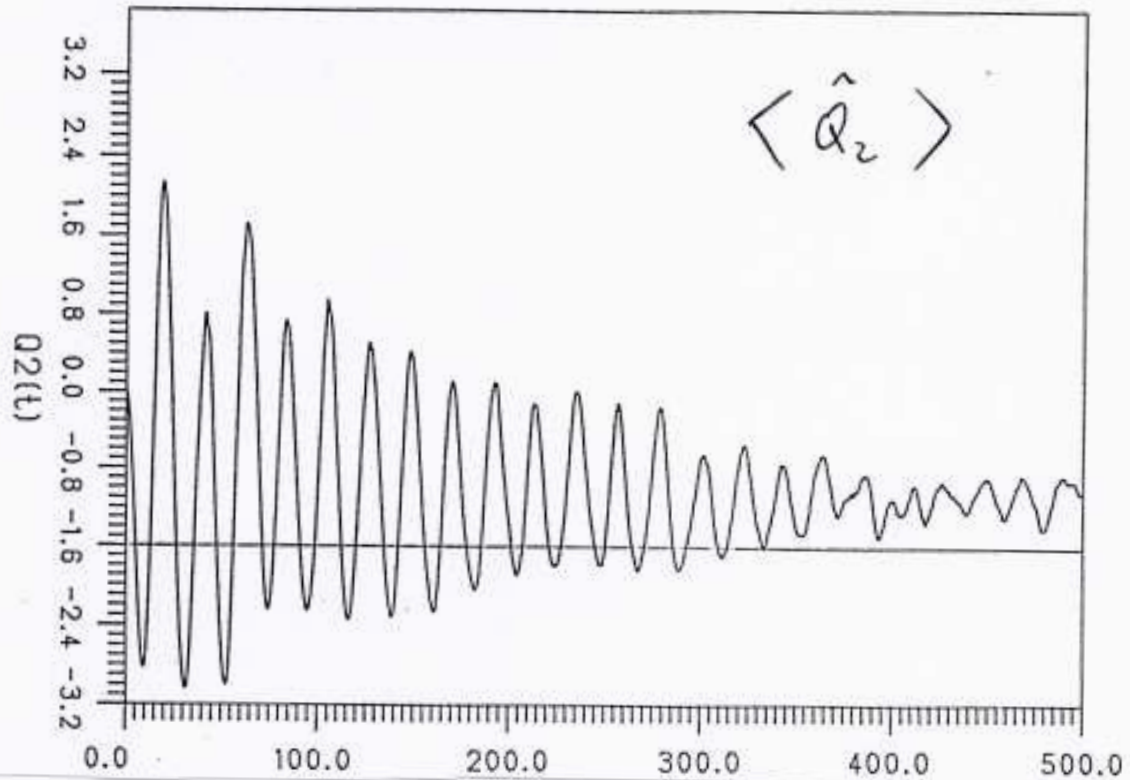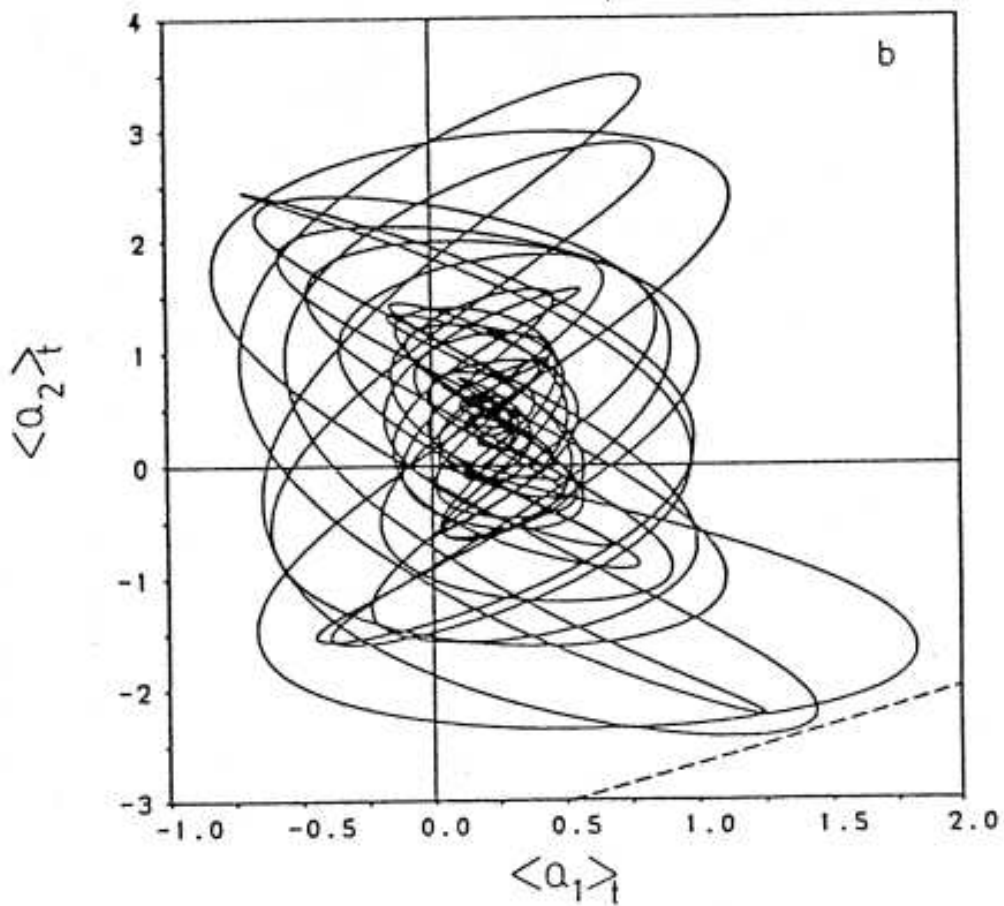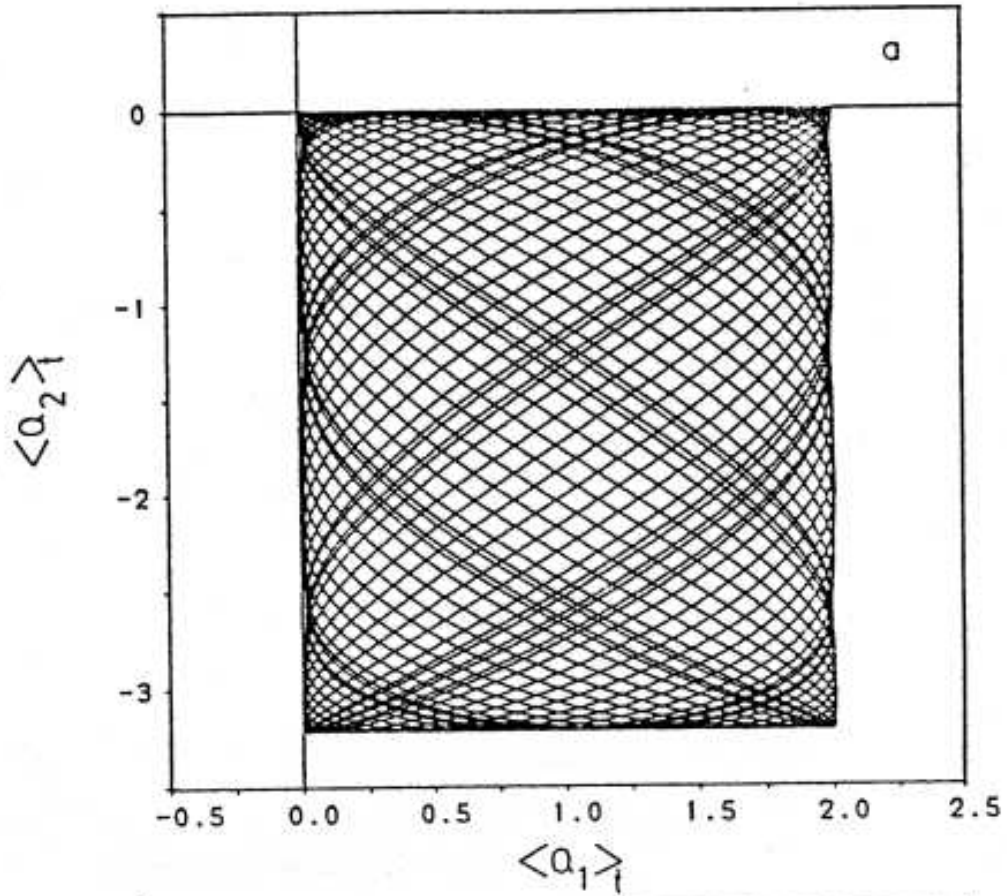Coherent motion for Q_1 and Q_2

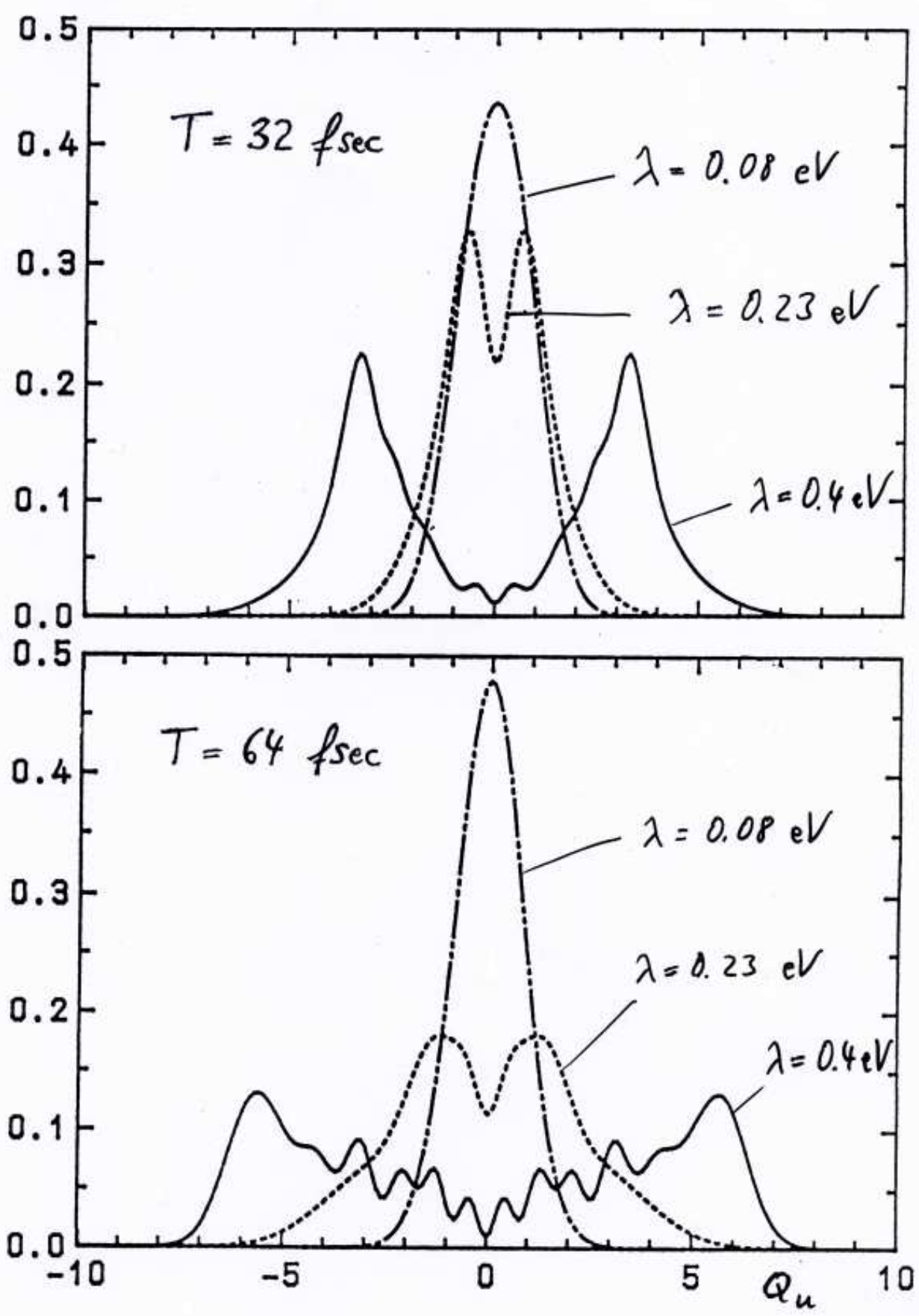# Long-time dynamics for $C_2H_4^+$ $(\tilde{X},\tilde{A})$

Damping of the coherent motion in Q_2

Trajektorien im Raum $Q_1 - Q_2$ für $C_2H_4^+(\check{X}, \tilde{A})$ [22]

$C_2H_4^+(\tilde{X}, \tilde{A})$: *Wahrscheinlichkeitsdichte entlang der Koordinate Q_4 der koppelnden Mode [23]*

B.4) Conical intersections of potential energy surfaces

Ample numerical experience shows that degeneracies are usually of conical shape
(degeneracy is lifted in 1st order of the nuclear displacements)
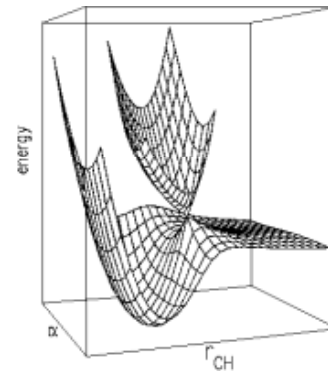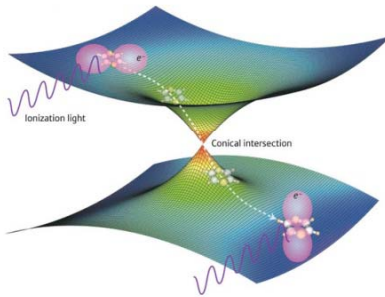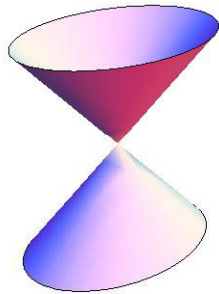
See also: D. Truhlar and A. Mead, Phys. Rev. A 68 (2003) 032501

W. Domcke, D. R. Yarkony and H. Köppel (Eds.)

- *Conical Intersections: Electronic structure,*
  dynamics and spectroscopy
- *Conical Intersections: Theory, computation and experiment*

(World Scientific, Singapore, 2004 & 2011)
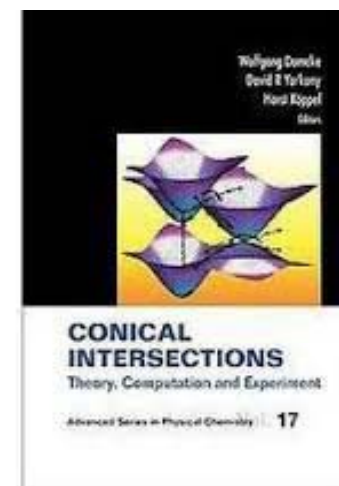
The noncrossing rule and its generalization

Consider a quasi-degeneracy of potential energy surfaces; at a neighboring geometry the electronic wavefunctions are written as

$$\phi_\pm = c_1 \phi_1^0 + c_2 \, \phi_2^0$$

(with the functions ϕ_1^0 and ϕ_2^0 from the reference geometry). The potential energies $V_\pm$ result from solving

$$\begin{pmatrix} H_{11}-V_\pm & H_{12} \\ H_{12} & H_{22}-V_\pm \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad \text{with} \quad H_{ij} = < \phi_i^0 | \hat{H}_{el} | \phi_j^0 >$$

One has:

$$V_\pm = \frac{H_{11} + H_{22}}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{H_{11} - H_{22}}{2} \right)^2 + H_{12}^2}$$

Degeneracy requires: **$H_{11} = H_{22}$ and $H_{12} = 0$**,

i.e., in general the variation of **two** parameters.

==> **In diatomic molecules no curve crossing of states with the same symmetry.**

For *n* nuclear coordinates:

Dimension of subspace of degeneracy = *n-2* .

Potential Energy

Branching Space Coordinate $X_1 X_2$ **(2D → 1D)**

S_1

x_1 x_2

Double cone

S_0

UV

Seam

x_1 x_2

Reactant

Product

X_3 Intersection Space Coordinate
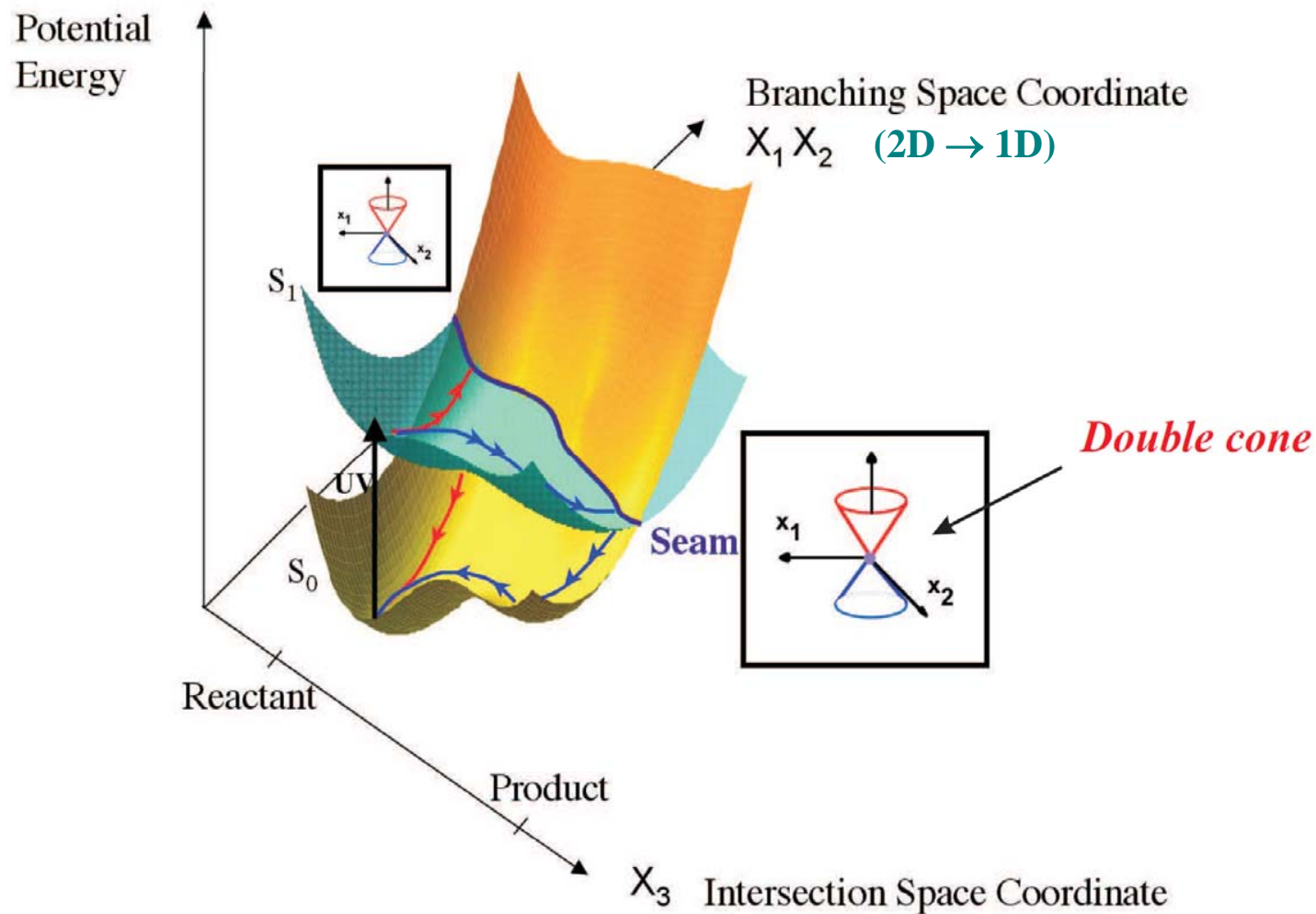
The conical intersection hyperline traced out by a co-ordinate X_3 plotted in a space containing the co-ordinate X_3 and one co-ordinate from the degeneracy-lifting space $X_1 X_2$

B.5) The theorem of Jahn and Teller

Theorem (1937):
'Any molecule in a spatially degenerate electronic state is unstable unless the degeneracy is accidental or the molecule is linear.'

Or alternatively:
'Any non-linear molecule undergoes distortion when its electronic state is degenerate by symmetry.'

Remarks:
-Spin degeneracy is not considered.
-When the degeneracy comes from an orbital that contributes weakly to the bond, the distortion will be small.

In other words:
'At the equilibrium geometry of a non-linear molecule the electronic state cannot be degenerate by symmetry.'

Formal:
The instability comes from linear terms of the potential energy matrix, which are missing in the case of linear molecules.

Proof:

We will point out here just the basic ideas.

Principle: (Group theory)

Let E_o be the energy of the equilibrium geometry in a degenerate electronic state, i.e., the geometry is optimized with respect to the totally symmetric modes:

$$\mathcal{H}_o \phi_l^o = E_o \phi_l^o \qquad (\text{e.g.} \quad 1 \le l \le 3)$$

where $\mathcal{H}_o$ and ϕ_l^o are the Hamiltonian and the wavefunction of the system, respectively, in the high-symmetry situation.

Let us consider a small displacement, δQ_r, along the non-totally symmetric modes:

$$\mathcal{H}(\delta Q_r) = \mathcal{H}_o + \mathcal{H}_r \cdot \delta Q_r + \mathcal{O}(\delta Q_r^2)$$

$$E(\delta Q_r) = E_o + E_r \cdot \delta Q_r + \mathcal{O}(\delta Q_r^2)$$

with

$$\det \ |\langle \phi_l^o | \mathcal{H}_r | \phi_m^o \rangle - E_r \delta_{lm}| = 0$$

that is, E_r are the eigenvalues of this secular equation.

The energy correction is negative for $\delta Q_r \longrightarrow -\delta Q_r$. The first-order contribution yields instability. It vanishes when all the matrix elements are zero. Using the symmetry selection rules, the matrix elements are, therefore, non zero when:

$$(\Gamma(\phi^o) \times \Gamma(\phi^o))_{sym} \times \Gamma(Q_r) \supset \Gamma_{A_1}$$

where *sym* refers to the symmetrized direct product.

Group theory shows that the symmetrized direct product, $(\Gamma(\phi^o) \times \Gamma(\phi^o))_{sym}$, also contains non-totally symmetric representations.

Jahn and Teller (1937):

In all molecular point groups, except for $C_{\infty v}$ and $D_{\infty h}$, there are non-totally symmetric modes that are contained in the symmetrized direct product of any degenerate irreducible representation.

Proof: Enumerative!
One considers the minimum number of equivalent points for all topologically distinct realisations of a point group and its irreducible representations.

Examples:

1. <u>Linear Molecules, $C_{\infty v}$ and $D_{\infty h}$:</u>   [5]

   For all the degenerate irreducible representations,
   $E_1(= \Pi), E_2(= \Delta), \cdots, E_k$,

   $k =$
   ang. mom.

   $$(E_k)^2_{sym} = A_1 + E_{2k}$$

   $$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} \Pi \times \Pi = \\ \Sigma^+ + [\Sigma^-] + \Delta \end{array}}$$

   Let us consider the irreducible representation corresponding to the bending mode:

   $$\Gamma(Q_2) = E_1(= \Pi)$$

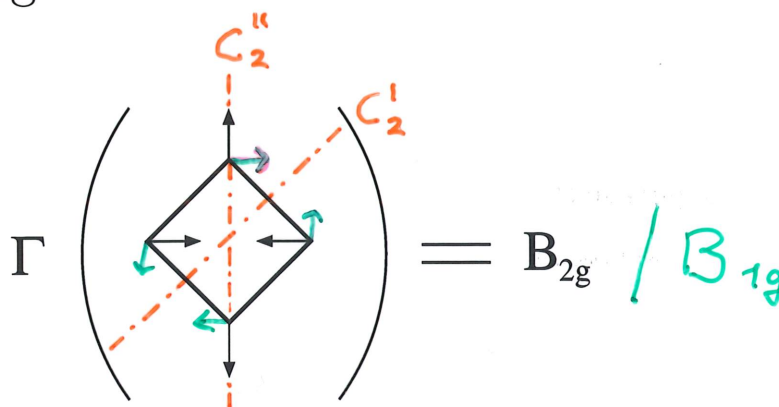   so that $(E_k)^2_{sym} \times \Gamma(Q_2) \not\supseteq \Gamma_{A_1} \implies$
   <u>no linear coupling terms are possible.</u>

2. <u>Planar X_4-systems, D_{4h}:</u>

   Two doubly-degenerate irreducible representations,

   $$(E_g)^2_{sym} = (E_u)^2_{sym} = A_{1g} + B_{1g} + B_{2g}$$

   The following vibrational mode transforms like B_{2g}.

$$\Gamma\left(\right) = B_{2g} \Big/ B_{1g}$$

3. Planar X$_3$-systems, D_{3h}:

Two doubly-degenerate irreducible representations

$$(E')^2_{sym} = (E'')^2 = A' + E'$$

The following normal mode transforms like E'.
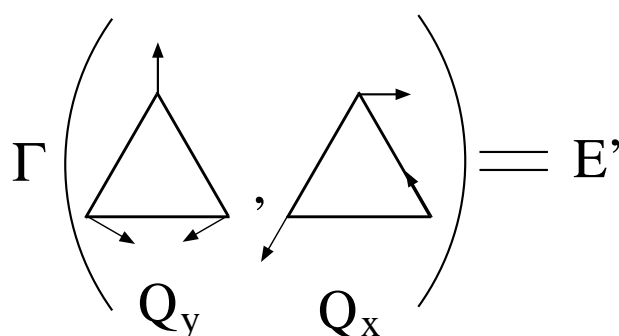
Comments:

Most of the Jahn-Teller active modes are degenerate, cf., D_{3h}. The tetragonal point groups are, however, exceptions: C_4, C_{4v}, C_{4h}, D_4, D_{4h}, S_4, D_{2d}. For them, there are non-degenerate modes that are Jahn-Teller active. The latter is due to the symmetry selection rules and not to the lack of degenerate normal modes.

B.6) The $E \otimes e$ Jahn-Teller effect

a) *The $E \otimes e$ Hamiltonian:*
As a starting point, the common case will be considered, i.e., a three-fold axis in a C_{3v} or a D_{3h} point group. The simplest system to think of would be a triatomic molecule in an E electronic state, whose atoms are located at the corners of an equilateral triangle. For example, the H_3, Li_3 or Na_3 molecule.
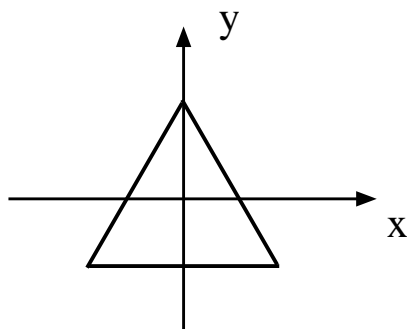
In such a molecule, as also in NH_3 or BF_3, there is a degenerate vibrational normal mode of E symmetry. The components transform like (x, y) and they will be hereafter denoted as (Q_x, Q_y).

In this situation it is convenient to use polar coordinates in the x,y plane.

$$Q_x = \rho \, \cos \chi, \qquad Q_y = \rho \, \sin \chi$$

Next, we are going to define the complex coordinates, Q_+ and Q_-,

$$\underline{Q_+ = Q_x + iQ_y} = \rho \left(\cos \chi + i \sin \chi \right) = \underline{\rho \, e^{i\chi}}$$
$$\underline{Q_- = Q_x - iQ_y} = \rho \left(\cos \chi - i \sin \chi \right) = \underline{\rho \, e^{-i\chi}}$$

Let us now consider the effect of the C_3 operation on the coordinates, that is, a $\frac{2\pi}{3}$ rotation.

$$C_3 \, Q_x = \cos \left(\frac{2\pi}{3} \right) Q_x - \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{3} \right) Q_y$$
$$C_3 \, Q_y = \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{3} \right) Q_x + \cos \left(\frac{2\pi}{3} \right) Q_y$$

so that

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_3 \, Q_+ &= \cos \left(\frac{2\pi}{3} \right) Q_x - \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{3} \right) Q_y \\
&= i \, \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{3} \right) Q_x + i \, \cos \left(\frac{2\pi}{3} \right) Q_y \\
&= e^{\left(\frac{+2\pi i}{3} \right)} Q_x + i \, e^{\left(\frac{+2\pi i}{3} \right)} Q_y \\
&= \underline{e^{\left(\frac{+2\pi i}{3} \right)} Q_+}
\end{aligned}
$$

and also,

$$C_3 \, Q_- = \underline{e^{\left(\frac{-2\pi i}{3} \right)} Q_-}$$

A $(2\pi/3)$ rotation yields the multiplication of the complex coordinates with a complex phase factor $e^{(\frac{\pm 2\pi i}{3})}$. We can express the transformation in a matrix form as

$$C_3 \begin{pmatrix} Q_+ \\ Q_- \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{\frac{+2\pi i}{3}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\frac{-2\pi i}{3}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Q_+ \\ Q_- \end{pmatrix}$$

The components of the electronic states transform also like (x,y) and will be denoted here as Φ_x, Φ_y. As done for the nuclear coordinates, we define also a set of complex functions:

$$\underline{\Phi_+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\Phi_x + i\Phi_y)}, \qquad \underline{\Phi_- = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\Phi_x - i\Phi_y)}$$

(The factor $1/\sqrt{2}$ comes from the fact that both sets, Φ_x, Φ_y and Φ_+, Φ_-, must be normalized.)

A rotation by $2\pi/3$ yields,

$$\boxed{C_3\Phi_\pm = e^{\pm 2\pi/3}\ \Phi_\pm}$$

$Q_\pm$ and $\Phi_\pm$ are the most suitable coordinates and functions to use, since they are adapted to the symmetry of the problem.

Let us consider now the matrix elements of the electronic Hamiltonian in the $\Phi_\pm$ basis set up to second order in the coordinates $Q_\pm$. We have:

$$\int dx\ \Phi_+^{*o}\ H_{el}\ \Phi_+^o\ =\ W^{(0)} + W_+^{(1)}Q_+ + W_-^{(1)}Q_-$$

$$+\frac{1}{2}W_{++}^{(2)}Q_+Q_+\ +\ \frac{1}{2}W_{--}^{(2)}Q_-Q_- + W_{+-}^{(2)}Q_+Q_-$$

By applying C_3 to this equation, the left side is multiplied by

$$\left(e^{+2\pi i/3}\right)^*\ e^{+2\pi i/3} = 1$$

since $\mathcal{H}_{el}$ is invariant. Thus the left side is also invariant. On the right side, all the $W's$, for which the combination of the $Q's$ is not invariant, have to vanish, i.e.,

$$W_+^{(1)} = W_-^{(1)} = W_{++}^{(2)} = W_{--}^{(2)} = 0$$

So that:

$$\int dx\ \Phi_+^{*o}\ H_{el}\ \Phi_+^o = W^{(0)} + W_{+-}^{(2)}Q_+Q_-$$

and also

$$\int dx\ \Phi_-^{*o}\ H_{el}\ \Phi_-^o = W^{(0)} + W_{+-}^{(2)}Q_+Q_-$$

with the same coefficients.

The off-diagonal matrix elements are:

$$\int dx\ \Phi_+^{*o}\ H_{el}\ \Phi_-^o\ =\ V^{(0)} + V_+^{(1)}Q_+ + V_-^{(1)}Q_- + \frac{1}{2}V_{++}^{(2)}Q_+Q_+$$
$$+\ \frac{1}{2}V_{--}^{(2)}Q_-Q_- + V_{+-}^{(2)}Q_+Q_-$$

Applying C_3 to the l.h.s. yields a factor

$$\underline{e^{-2\pi i/3}e^{-2\pi i/3}} = e^{-4\pi i/3} = \underline{e^{+2\pi i/3}},$$

so that we finally get:

$$\underline{V^{(0)} = V_-^{(1)} = V_{++}^{(2)} = V_{+-}^{(2)} = 0}$$

i.e.,

$$\underline{\int dx\ \Phi_+^{*o}\ H_{el}\ \Phi_-^o = V_+^{(1)} + \frac{1}{2}V_{--}^{(2)}Q_-Q_-}$$

We have thus determined the non-vanishing coefficients. Abbreviations:

$$\begin{aligned}
W^{(0)} &= 0 \ \text{(zero of energy)} \\
W_{+-}^{(2)} &= \tfrac{\omega}{2} \\
V_+^{(1)} &= k \\
V_{--}^{(2)} &= g
\end{aligned}$$

Finally, the electronic Hamiltonian in the $\Phi_\pm$ basis set is:

$$\boxed{\mathcal{H}_{el} = \tfrac{\omega}{2}\ Q_+Q_-\ \mathbf{1} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & kQ_+ + \frac{1}{2}gQ_-^2 \\ kQ_- + \frac{1}{2}gQ_+^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}}$$

or with $\qquad Q_+ = \rho\ e^{i\chi}, \qquad Q_- = \rho\ e^{-i\chi}$

$$\mathcal{H}_{el} = \tfrac{\omega}{2}\rho^2 \, \mathbf{1} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & k\rho e^{i\chi} + \tfrac{1}{2}g\rho^2 e^{-2i\chi} \\ k\rho e^{-i\chi} + \tfrac{1}{2}g\rho^2 e^{2i\chi} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This is a Diabatic Representation, where the electronic Hamiltonian matrix, $\mathcal{H}_{el}$ is not diagonal.

The total $E \otimes e$-JT Hamiltonian is formed by adding the kinetic operator for the nuclear motion:

$$T_k = -\frac{\omega}{2}\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial Q_x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial Q_y^2} \right)$$

In polar coordinates (ρ, χ) T_k reads as:

$$T_k = -\tfrac{\omega}{2\rho^2}\left(\rho\frac{\partial}{\partial\rho}\rho\frac{\partial}{\partial\rho} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial\chi^2} \right)$$

$$\mathcal{H} = \left(T_k + \tfrac{\omega}{2}\rho^2\right)\mathbf{1} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & k\rho e^{i\chi} + \tfrac{1}{2}g\rho^2 e^{-2i\chi} \\ k\rho e^{-i\chi} + \tfrac{1}{2}g\rho^2 e^{2i\chi} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The term $k\rho e^{i\chi}$ is called linear JT-coupling.
The term $\tfrac{1}{2}g\rho^2 e^{-2i\chi}$ is called quadratic JT-coupling.

b) *The adiabatic potential energy surfaces*
   and wavefunctions:

The JT-Hamiltonian in the form specified above is the easiest one from symmetry considerations and most suitable for the calculation of spectra, but is not, however, too descriptive. Therefore, for a better understanding of the problems, we will consider also the adiabatic representation.

The adiabatic potential energy surfaces are obtained as follows

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & x \\ x^* & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0, \qquad x = k\rho e^{i\chi} + \frac{1}{2}g\rho^2 e^{-2i\chi}$$

and:

$$\lambda^2 - |x|^2 = 0 \longrightarrow \lambda_{1,2} = \pm|x|$$

Then,

$$V_{1,2} = \frac{\omega}{2}\rho^2 \pm \lambda_{1,2} = \frac{\omega}{2}\rho^2 \pm |k\rho e^{i\chi} + \frac{1}{2}g\rho^2 e^{-2i\chi}|$$

$$\boxed{V_{1,2} = \frac{\omega}{2}\rho^2 \pm \left|k\rho + \frac{1}{2}g\rho^2 e^{-3i\chi}\right|}$$

In most of the situations the quadratic coupling terms
are smaller than the linear ones. If we set $g = 0$, we ob-
tain the potential energy surfaces of the linear JT-effect:

$$V_{1,2} = \tfrac{\omega}{2}\rho^2 \pm k\rho$$

Within this approach the potential energy surface shows
a rotational symmetry, i.e, it is χ-independent. This
surface is the prototype of a so-called conical intersection
of potential energy surfaces.

Including the quadratic coupling term we have:

$$V_{1,2} = \tfrac{\omega}{2}\rho^2 \pm \sqrt{k^2\rho^2 + \tfrac{1}{4}g^2\rho^4 + gk\rho^3 cos(3\chi)}$$

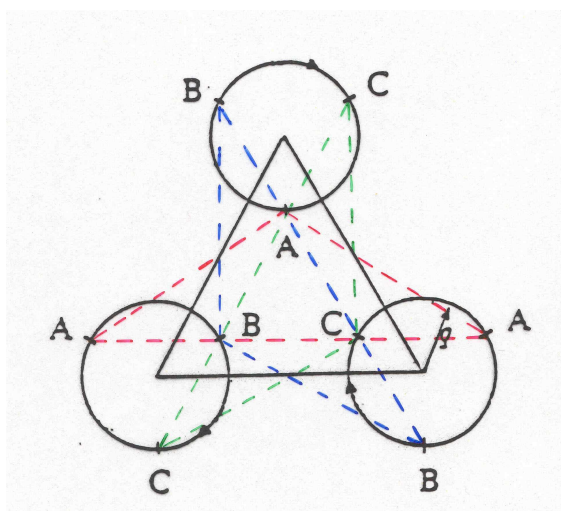For small displacements, the ρ^4 term can be dropped
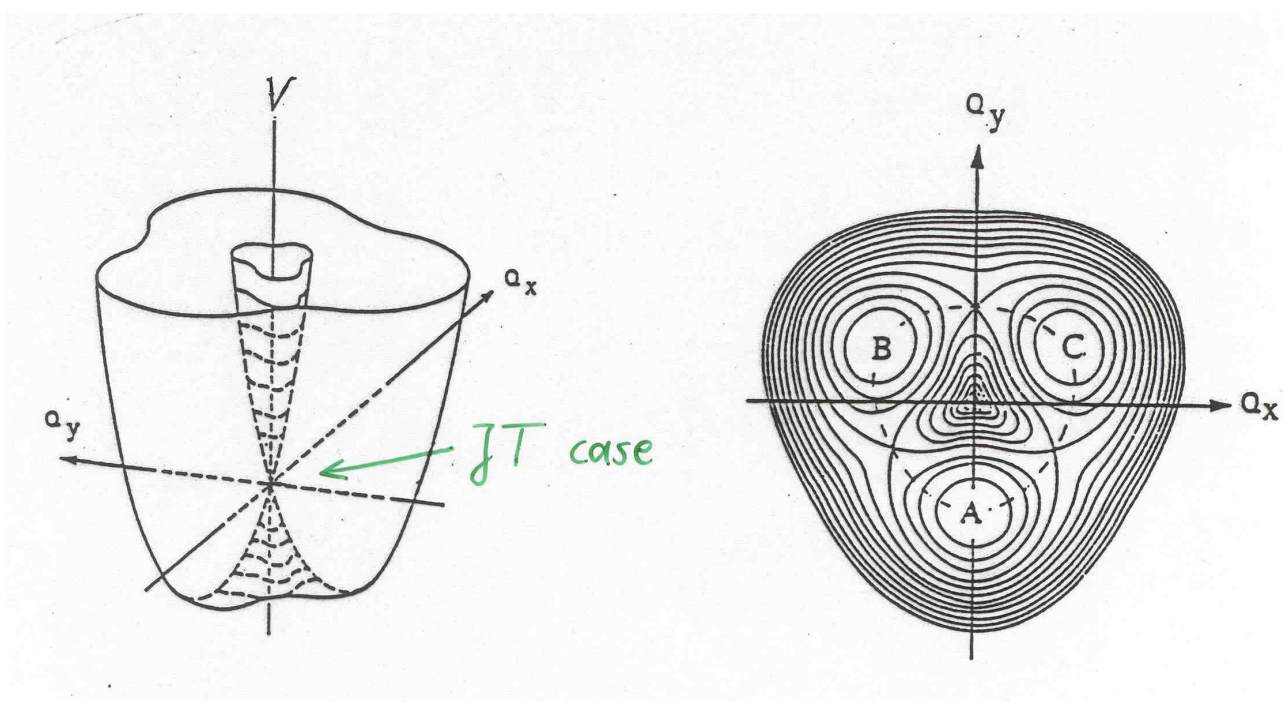out:

$$V_{1,2} = \tfrac{\omega}{2}\,\rho^2 \pm k\,\rho\sqrt{1 + \tfrac{g}{k}\rho\,\cos{(3\chi)}}$$

By expansion of the square root:

$$V_{1,2} = \tfrac{\omega}{2}\,\rho^2 \pm k\,\rho + \tfrac{1}{2}\,g\,\rho^2\,cos(3\chi)$$

In the linear + quadratic JT-effect, the potential energy
surfaces have a threefold symmetry. The lower surface
has three minima and three saddle points.

Coordinates and JT surfaces for X_3 molecules

$C_{2v} \leftarrow Q_y$

$Q_x \rightarrow C_s$

V

Q_x

Q_y

JT case

Q_y

Q_x

B   C

A

B   C

A

B   C

A   A

B   C
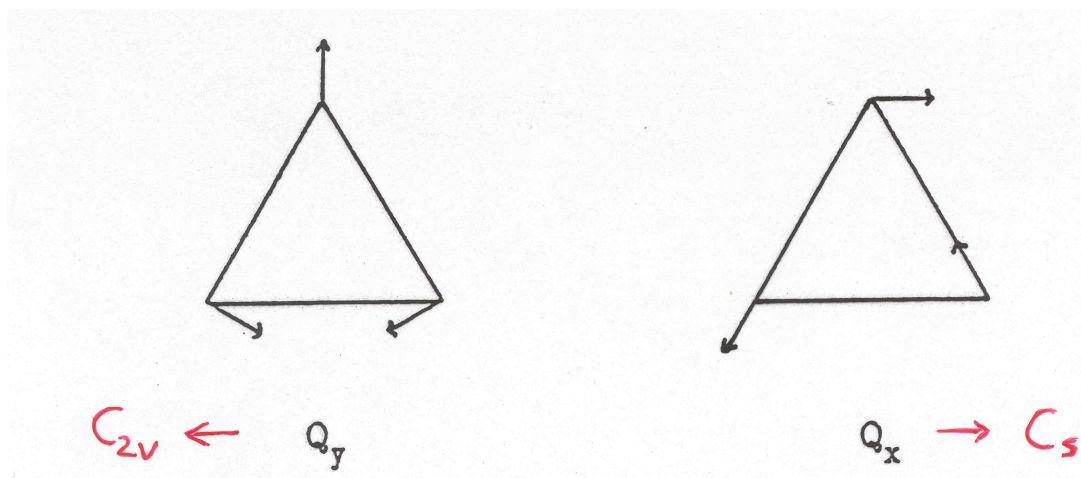
For the calculation of the adiabatic wavefunctions and the non-adiabatic coupling terms, we are going to consider just the linear JT-effect. We have

$$S^+ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & k\rho e^{i\chi} \\ k\rho e^{-i\chi} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad S = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\quad \lambda_1 = k\rho \quad$ and $\quad \lambda_2 = -k\rho.$

Obtaining the eigenvectors:

(a) $\quad \lambda_1$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} -k\rho & k\rho e^{i\chi} \\ k\rho e^{-i\chi} & -k\rho \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} s_{11} \\ s_{21} \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$-s_{11} + e^{i\chi} s_{21} = 0$$
$$s_{21} = e^{-i\chi} s_{11}$$

With $\quad s_{11} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e^{i\chi/2} \longrightarrow s_{21} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e^{-i\chi/2}.$

(b) $\quad \lambda_2$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} +k\rho & k\rho e^{i\chi} \\ k\rho e^{-i\chi} & +k\rho \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} s_{12} \\ s_{22} \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$e^{-i\chi} s_{12} + s_{22} = 0$$

and $\quad s_{22} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e^{-i\chi/2}; \qquad s_{12} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e^{+i\chi/2}$

we get,

$$\boxed{S = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\chi/2} & -e^{i\chi/2} \\ e^{-i\chi/2} & e^{-i\chi/2} \end{pmatrix}}$$

The adiabatic wavefunctions, $\Phi^{ad}_{1,2}$, are obtained from the diabatic ones, $\Phi_{\pm}$, as,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \Phi^{ad}_1 \\ \Phi^{ad}_2 \end{pmatrix} = S^+ \begin{pmatrix} \Phi_+ \\ \Phi_- \end{pmatrix}$$

$$S^+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\chi/2} & e^{i\chi/2} \\ -e^{-i\chi/2} & e^{i\chi/2} \end{pmatrix}$$

i.e.,

$$\Phi^{ad}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e^{-i\chi/2}\Phi_+ + e^{i\chi/2}\Phi_- \right)$$

$$\Phi^{ad}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(-e^{-i\chi/2}\Phi_+ + e^{i\chi/2}\Phi_- \right)$$

Using $\Phi_+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\Phi_x + i\ \Phi_y)$, $\Phi_- = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\Phi_x - i\ \Phi_y)$, we get:

$$\Phi^{ad}_1 = \cos\left(\frac{\chi}{2}\right)\Phi_x + \sin\left(\frac{\chi}{2}\right)\Phi_y$$

$$i\ \Phi^{ad}_2 = -\sin\left(\frac{\chi}{2}\right)\Phi_x + \cos\left(\frac{\chi}{2}\right)\Phi_y$$

It is also interesting to analyze the dependence of the adiabatic wavefunctions on $\chi/2$. When following a 2π-loop around $\rho = 0$, the adiabatic wavefunctions do not transform into themselves, but:

$$\Phi^{ad}_1(2\pi) = -\Phi^{ad}_1(0)$$
$$\Phi^{ad}_2(2\pi) = -\Phi^{ad}_2(0)$$

They transform again into themselves after a 4π-loop. This is the general behaviour for two-dimensional conical intersections.

Finally, we are going to calculate the non-adiabatic coupling operator $\mathbf{\Lambda}$. Since S depends only on the χ angle, we have to consider just the term $-\frac{\omega}{2\rho^2}\partial^2/\partial\chi^2$:

$$T_k \begin{pmatrix} \Phi_1^{ad} \\ \Phi_2^{ad} \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{\omega}{2\rho^2} \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{4} & i\frac{\delta}{\delta\chi} \\ i\frac{\delta}{\delta\chi} & -\frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Phi_1^{ad} \\ \Phi_2^{ad} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \Phi_1^{ad} \\ \Phi_2^{ad} \end{pmatrix} T_k$$
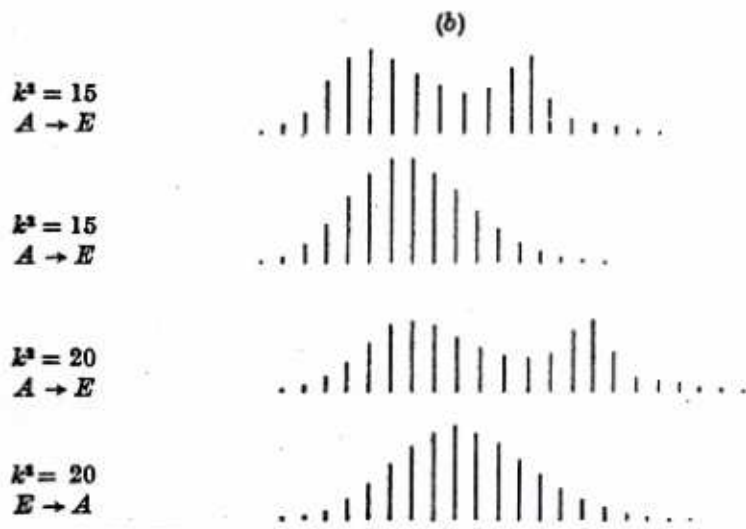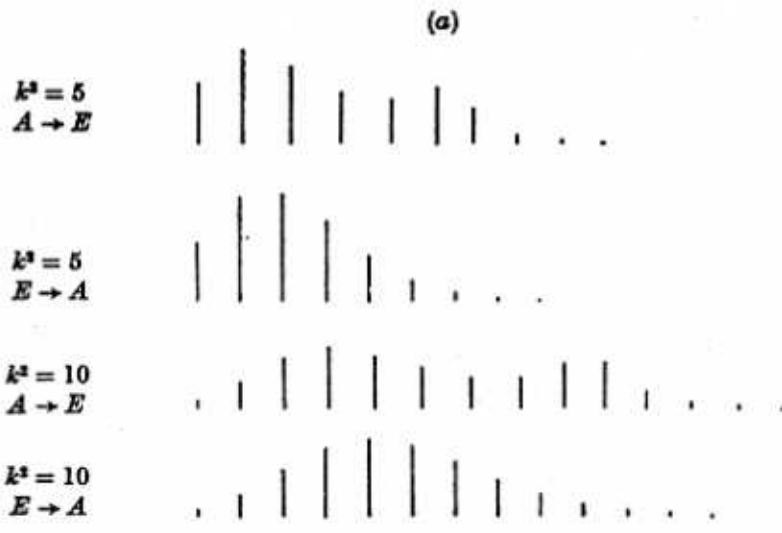
The non-adiabatic coupling operator $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ reads:

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = +\frac{\omega}{2\rho^2} \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{4} & i\frac{\delta}{\delta\chi} \\ i\frac{\delta}{\delta\chi} & -\frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ diverges at $\rho = 0$.

The BO-approximation breaks down in the JT case. Therefore, the diabatic representation is more suitable. The nuclear motion on the adiabatic surfaces V_1 and V_2 is strongly coupled. As a consequence, the vibrational energy levels on the adiabatic energy surfaces have no longer physical meaning.

(a)

$k^2 = 5$
$A \rightarrow E$

$k^2 = 5$
$E \rightarrow A$

$k^2 = 10$
$A \rightarrow E$

$k^2 = 10$
$E \rightarrow A$

(b)

$k^2 = 15$
$A \rightarrow E$

$k^2 = 15$
$A \rightarrow E$

$k^2 = 20$
$A \rightarrow E$

$k^2 = 20$
$E \rightarrow A$

FIGURES 4a and 4b. Vibrational structure of (allowed) electronic transitions $A_{1u} \rightarrow E_{pi}$ and $E_{1i} \rightarrow A_{no}, A_{ni}$. The 0–0 line is that on the left in each diagram.

(c)

$k^2 = 25$
$A \rightarrow E$

$k^2 = 25$
$E \rightarrow A$
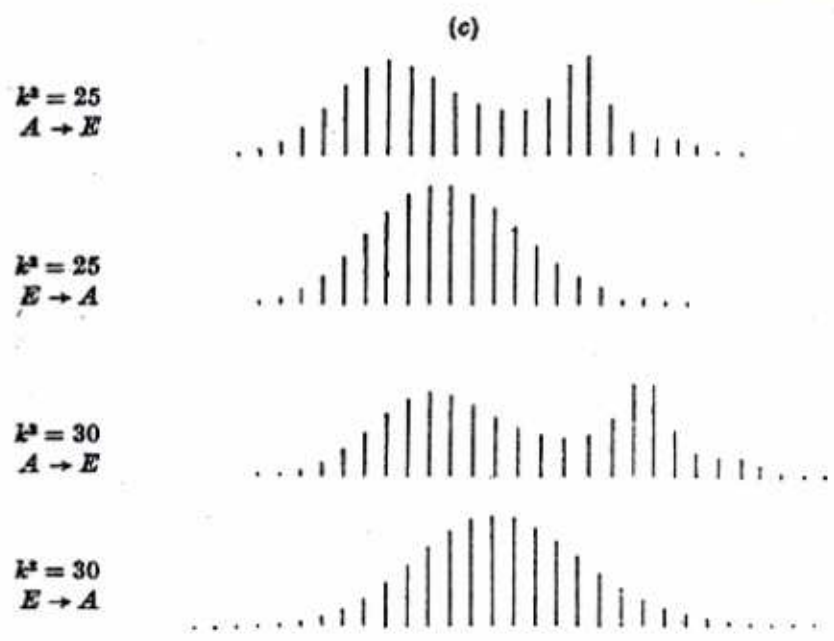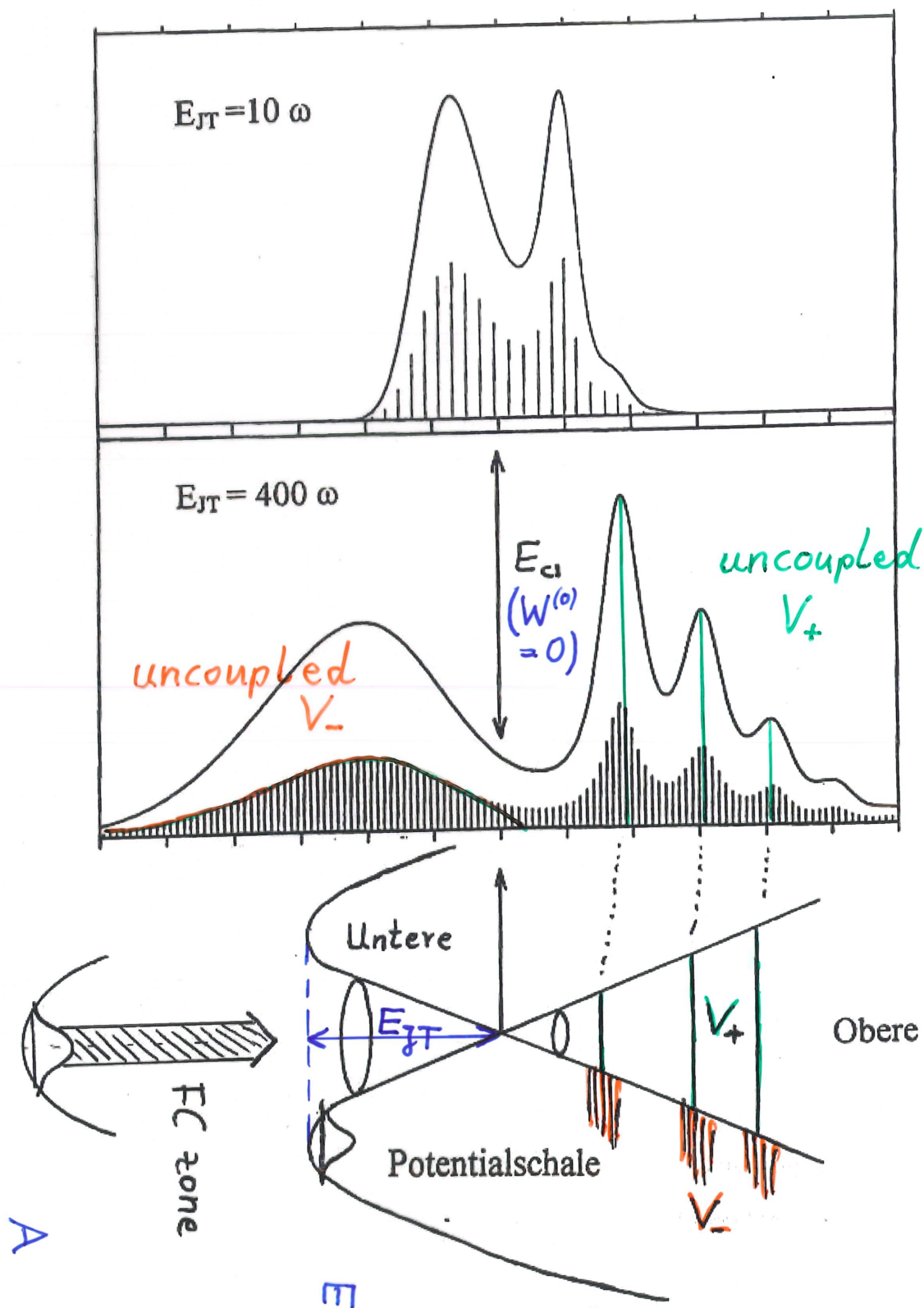
$k^2 = 30$
$A \rightarrow E$

$k^2 = 30$
$E \rightarrow A$

FIGURE 4c. Vibrational structure of (allowed) electronic transitions $A_{1u} \rightarrow E_{pi}$ and $E_{1i} \rightarrow A_{no}, A_{ni}$. For large distortions the 0–0 line is no longer visible.

Vibronic Line Spectrum for an A $\longrightarrow$ E transition
with strong coupling.

$E_{JT} = 10\,\omega$

$E_{JT} = 400\,\omega$

E_{cl}
$(W^{(0)} = 0)$

uncoupled
V_+

uncoupled
V_-

Untere

E_{JT}

V_+ Obere

Potentialschale

V_-

FC zone

A

E

Mol. Phys. 41, 669 (1980)

$$\left(\frac{k}{\omega}\right)^2 = 20$$

$$\left(\frac{k}{\omega}\right)^2 = 800$$
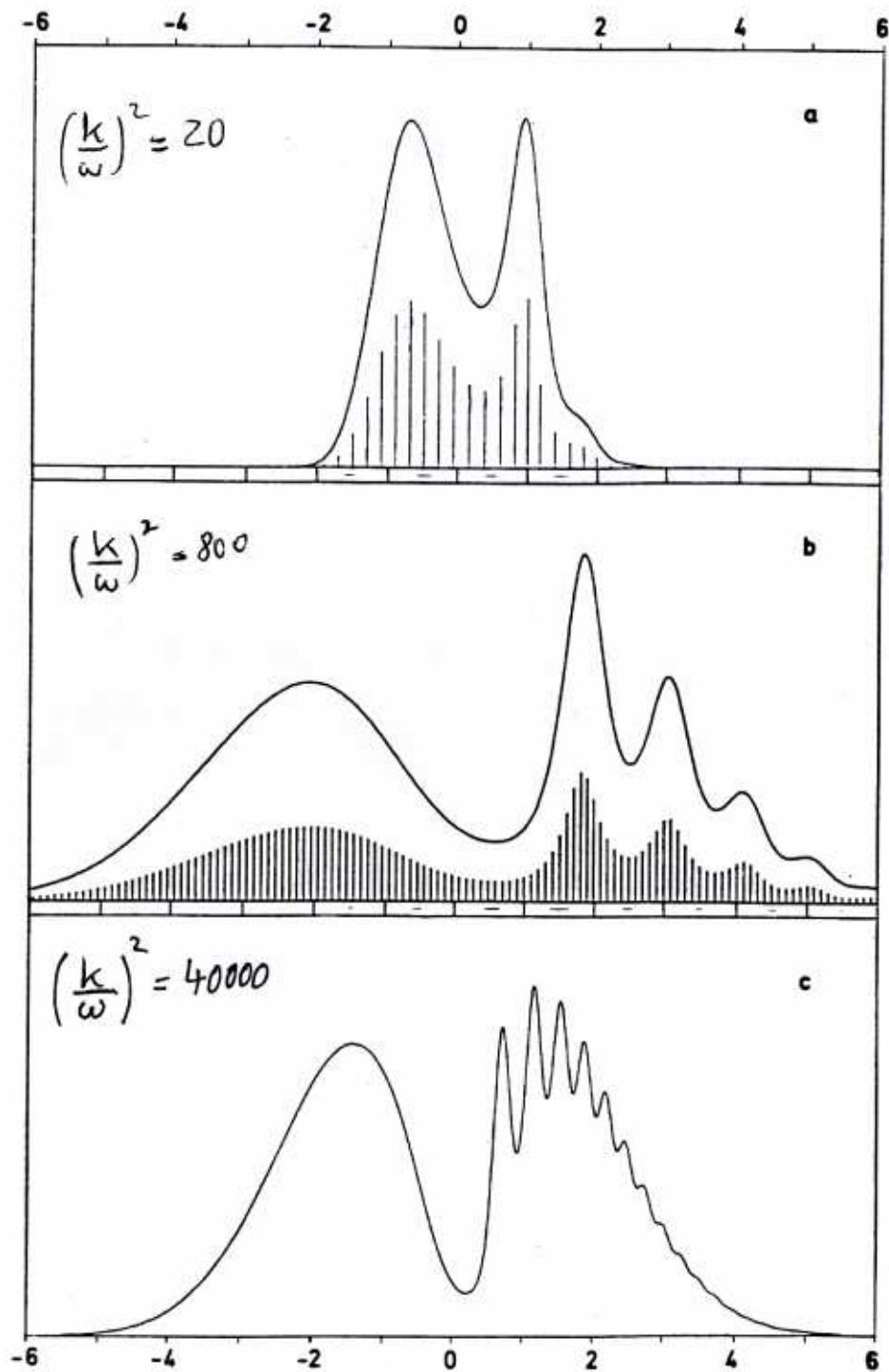
$$\left(\frac{k}{\omega}\right)^2 = 40000$$

Figure 1. Exact JT line spectra and band shape curves. The band shape curves are obtained from the line spectra by convoluting them with Gaussians of width γ. (a) $\omega = 0.1$, $\kappa = \sqrt{0.2}$, $\gamma = 0.1$; (b) $\omega = 0.1$, $\kappa = 2\sqrt{2}$, $\gamma = 0.2$; (c) $\omega = 0.01$, $\kappa = 2$, $\gamma = 0.1$.

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