

# Rotational energy cluster formation in $XY_3$ molecules: Excited vibrational states of $BiH_3$ and $SbH_3$

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## Abstract

Previous theoretical work on energy cluster formation at high rotational excitation in the vibrational ground state of  $PH_3$  [S.N. Yurchenko, W. Thiel, S. Patchkovskii, P. Jensen, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 7 (2005) 573] is extended to  $BiH_3$  and  $SbH_3$ . By means of variational calculations of the rotation–vibration energies based on *ab initio* potential energy surfaces, we analyze the rotational energy clustering of  $BiH_3$  and  $SbH_3$  at  $J \leq 70$  for a number of vibrational states. We show that  $BiH_3$  and  $SbH_3$ , with their pronounced local mode behaviour, exhibit cluster formation already at moderate rotational excitation. In addition, owing to its quasi-spherical-top character,  $BiH_3$  undergoes an imperfect bifurcation at high  $J$ . This gives rise to an energy cluster type not present in  $PH_3$  and  $SbH_3$ . We present a semi-classical approach to the construction of the rotational energy surfaces for vibrationally excited states.

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## 1. Introduction

We have recently demonstrated by theoretical calculation [1] that in the vibrational ground state of  $PH_3$ , the highly excited rotational states form near-degenerate energy clusters. We have also computed the line strengths for transitions involving these cluster states [2]. In the present work, we study theoretically the energy-cluster formation in  $BiH_3$  and  $SbH_3$ . In these molecules, in particular in  $BiH_3$ , the energy clusters form at lower rotational excitation than in  $PH_3$  and, in consequence, the theoretical calculation of the cluster energies is computationally less demanding. Because of this, we have been able to extend the study of the cluster phenomenon to the vibrationally excited states of  $BiH_3$  and  $SbH_3$ .

The formation of rotational energy clusters in a molecule provides a good example of how a system, which is

completely described by quantum mechanics at low energy, approaches the classical limit, at least for the rotational motion, with increasing excitation. The parameter governing the transition is the angular momentum quantum number  $J$  (see, for example, Ref. [3]). By studying the rotational motion of the molecule from  $J = 0$  to  $J \gg 1$ , we can follow the continuous change from an entirely quantum mechanical system to one where the rotational motion is classical. This transition connects two modelling paradigms: At the low-energy, quantum-mechanical limit, the molecular rotation is described by a simple rigid-rotor model, whereas at very high energy, another simple model, involving classical trajectories, is applicable. Between the two limits there is an intermediate region with a dense and disordered energy structure which is difficult to interpret.

In highly excited rotational states, we typically find that characteristic ‘stable’ axes of rotation emerge, about which the molecule prefers to rotate. This type of rotation tends to simplify the rotational energy level pattern since, when several symmetrically equivalent stable axes are present, the rotational energy levels form clusters, that is, groups

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of quasi-degenerate energy levels. Dorney and Watson [4] were the first to realize this; they explained the energy cluster formation in spherical top molecules in terms of classical rotation about symmetrically equivalent axes. Subsequently, Harter and co-workers (see, for example, Refs. [5,6]) have developed extensive classical models for the qualitative description of rotational-energy cluster formation in  $XY_N$  molecules. They introduced the now well-known concept of a *rotational energy surface* (RES), defined as the classical (or semi-classical) rotational energy of a molecule obtained as a function of the direction (relative to the molecule) of the classical angular momentum vector, which is taken to have a length of  $|\mathbf{J}| = \sqrt{J(J+1)}\hbar$ . The topology of the RES (in particular its stationary points) defines the patterns of the rotational energy levels. Pavlichenkov and Zhilinskiĭ [7] illustrated how the bifurcation of stationary points on the RES affects the formation of rotational energy clusters. The role of symmetry in the cluster formation process has been also studied in great detail (see, for example, [8]).

In addition to the classical studies there have been many quantitative, quantum-mechanical studies of the rotational cluster formation (see, for example, the reviews [9,10]). This work was concerned with dihydrides  $H_2X$  and, to a lesser extent, with methane-type spherical top molecules  $XY_4$ . As mentioned above we have recently extended this work to  $XY_3$  molecules in that we have shown by variational, quantum-mechanical calculation that rotational energy clusters form in the vibrational ground state of  $PH_3$ . We have characterized two basic types of rotational clusters for  $PH_3$ : Two- and sixfold clusters. The twofold clusters are associated with classical rotation about an axis close to the  $C_3$  rotational symmetry axis for a  $PH_3$  molecule at equilibrium; this axis is found to be stable at any value of  $J$ . The sixfold energy clusters can be understood as result-

ing from (clockwise or anti-clockwise) rotation about three symmetrically equivalent axes  $A$  (see Fig. 1). These axes lie in planes close to the three planes of reflection of a  $PH_3$  molecule at equilibrium. As  $J$  increases, each axis approaches one of the P–H bonds. Thus, in a somewhat simplistic picture, we can think of the rotation in the cluster states at  $J \rightarrow \infty$  as taking place about the three P–H bonds in  $PH_3$ . In this situation, the P–H localized rotation is naturally orthogonal to any other degree of freedom and, thus, reaches the highest degree of separation from these. We know that separations of this kind between vibrational degrees of freedom cause local-mode behaviour [10,11] and it was discussed for triatomic dihydrides  $H_2X$  in Ref. [10] how the local mode behaviour is intimately related to the phenomenon of energy clustering. An  $H_2X$  molecule whose vibration is well described by a local-mode model will have rotational energy clusters at relatively low rotational excitation. We expect that analogously,  $XH_3$  molecules with pronounced local-mode behaviour will exhibit sixfold energy clusters at relatively low rotational excitation. The  $PH_3$  molecule, however, whose cluster formation has been studied in Refs. [1,2], is far from being an ideal local-mode molecule, and therefore it is not an ideal case for studying cluster formation. The ultimate limit of complete mode separation, achieved by rotational excitation, is physically inaccessible for  $PH_3$ : Before it is reached, centrifugal distortion breaks the P–H bonds [1].

In our search for ‘ideal’ local-mode  $XY_3$  molecules with ‘perfect’ energy clustering effects, we consider here the molecules  $BiH_3$  and  $SbH_3$ .  $BiH_3$  is a typical local-mode molecule [12] with a heavy central Bi atom bound to three much lighter H atoms. It has small intermode coupling and bond angles very close to  $90^\circ$ . The large ratio of the Bi mass to the proton mass, the small intermode coupling, and the near- $90^\circ$  bond angles are all conducive to local mode behaviour [10]. The fact that the Bi–H bonds are almost orthogonal makes them ideally oriented for stable rotations. As mentioned above, for  $BiH_3$  and  $SbH_3$  it is viable to compute highly excited rotational energies in excited vibrational states, and so we can study the cluster formation in these states. Local-mode theory predicts that stretching excitation accelerates the stabilization of the rotational axes [10] and, therefore, it makes the rotational energy clusters form at lower  $J$  values than in the vibrational ground state. We show in the present work that the  $BiH_3$  and  $SbH_3$  cluster formation indeed is ‘faster’ in this sense than that of  $PH_3$ . It is even more interesting that the rotational energy level patterns of  $BiH_3$  exhibit special cluster features not found in the case of the less pronounced local-mode molecule  $PH_3$ . An important reason for the differences in cluster formation between  $PH_3$  and  $BiH_3$  is that  $BiH_3$  is an almost perfect, accidental spherical top [13]. In order to see how this affects the rotational cluster formation, we compare the results for  $BiH_3$  with those obtained for  $SbH_3$ .  $SbH_3$  has local-mode properties very similar to those of  $BiH_3$ , but it has a less pronounced spherical top character.

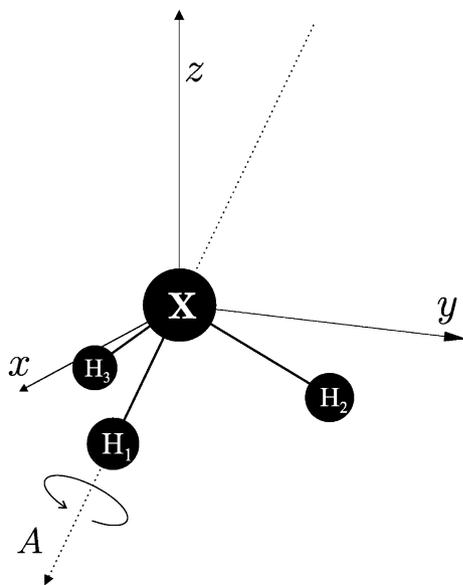


Fig. 1. The labeling of the nuclei chosen for  $XH_3$ , the molecule-fixed  $z$  axis, and the localization axis  $A$  (see text).

In the present work, we solve variationally the quantum-mechanical Schrödinger equation for the rotation and vibration of the molecules studied to obtain the corresponding energies and wavefunctions. The details of the method used can be found in Refs. [1,14]. For the qualitative description of the cluster formation we also take a classical approach, in which we generate rotational energy surfaces and characterize their stationary points. In order to describe excited vibrational states we employ a ‘semi-classical’ (or, perhaps more appropriately, ‘semi-quantum’) analysis, where we use quantum-mechanical techniques to construct an analogue of the classical RES. The classical analysis of the rotational cluster formation in vibrationally excited states was first considered in Refs. [6,15]. The work by van Hecke et al. [16] should also be mentioned as a fairly recent, detailed classical study of the rotational cluster formation in vibrationally excited states of P<sub>4</sub>.

The paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, we introduce potential energy surfaces for BiH<sub>3</sub> and SbH<sub>3</sub> together with the analytical representations that we employ. The variational method used for the term value calculations is briefly discussed in Section 3. Rotational term value diagrams for different vibrational states of BiH<sub>3</sub> and SbH<sub>3</sub> are presented and discussed, with special emphasis on the energy cluster formation, in Section 4. In Section 5, we present a classical analysis of the rotational dynamics for BiH<sub>3</sub> based on the RES method. Finally, in Section 6 we offer conclusions.

## 2. Potential energy surfaces

In order that we can simulate the rotational dynamics of an XH<sub>3</sub> molecule, we need to define its potential energy surface (PES). We employ a Morse-type parameterized potential energy function, expected to provide an accurate description over a broad range of molecular geometries in terms of a small number of parameters (PES type A in Ref. [14])

$$\begin{aligned} V(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3, \xi_{4a}, \xi_{4b}; \sin \bar{\rho}) \\ = V_e + V_0(\sin \bar{\rho}) + \sum_j F_j(\sin \bar{\rho}) \xi_j + \sum_{j \leq k} F_{jk}(\sin \bar{\rho}) \xi_j \xi_k \\ + \sum_{j \leq k \leq l} F_{jkl}(\sin \bar{\rho}) \xi_j \xi_k \xi_l + \sum_{j \leq k \leq l \leq m} F_{jklm}(\sin \bar{\rho}) \xi_j \xi_k \xi_l \xi_m. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

This function is expressed in terms of the stretching variables

$$\xi_k = y_k = 1 - \exp[-a(r_k - r_e)], \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \quad (2)$$

where  $a$  is a Morse parameter, the symmetrized bending variables

$$\xi_{4a} = S_{4a} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(2\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 - \alpha_3), \quad (3)$$

$$\xi_{4b} = S_{4b} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\alpha_2 - \alpha_3) \quad (4)$$

and the variable

$$\sin \bar{\rho} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \sin[(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3)/6] \quad (5)$$

for the ‘umbrella’ motion. Here,  $r_i$  is the instantaneous value of the distance between the central X nucleus (where X is Bi or Sb) and H<sub>*i*</sub>, where H<sub>*i*</sub> is the proton labeled  $i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ , or  $3$ );  $\alpha_i$  denotes the bond angle  $\angle(\text{H}_j \text{XH}_k)$ , where  $(i, j, k)$  is a permutation of the numbers  $(1, 2, 3)$ . The quantity  $r_e$  is the common equilibrium value of the three distances  $r_i$ . The functions  $V_0(\sin \bar{\rho})$  and  $F_{jk\dots}(\sin \bar{\rho})$  in Eq. (1) are defined as

$$V_0(\sin \bar{\rho}) = \sum_{s=1}^4 f_0^{(s)}(\sin \rho_e - \sin \bar{\rho})^s, \quad (6)$$

$$F_{jk\dots}(\sin \bar{\rho}) = \sum_{s=0}^N f_{jk\dots}^{(s)}(\sin \rho_e - \sin \bar{\rho})^s, \quad (7)$$

where  $\sin \rho_e$  is the equilibrium value of  $\sin \bar{\rho}$  and the quantities  $f_0^{(s)}$  and  $f_{jk\dots}^{(s)}$  in Eqs. (6) and (7) are expansion coefficients. The summation limits in Eq. (7) are  $N = 3$  for  $F_j(\sin \bar{\rho})$ ,  $N = 2$  for  $F_{jk}(\sin \bar{\rho})$ ,  $N = 1$  for  $F_{jkl}(\sin \bar{\rho})$ ,  $N = 0$  for  $F_{jklm}(\sin \bar{\rho})$ . In total there are 47 symmetrically unique potential parameters  $f_{jk\dots}^{(s)}$ .

The values of the parameters  $f_{ij\dots}^{(s)}$  in Eqs. (6) and (7), that define the analytical PES of BiH<sub>3</sub>, are obtained from the high-level *ab initio* potential energy surface P4 reported in Ref. [17]. The P4 PES is given in Ref. [17] as a standard ‘force-constant’ expansion (truncated after the quartic terms) in internal displacement coordinates  $r_i - r_e$  and  $\alpha_i - \alpha_e$  ( $i = 1, 2$ , or  $3$ ), where  $\alpha_e$  is the common equilibrium value of the three  $\alpha_i$ . We determine the values of the coefficients  $f_{ij\dots}^{(s)}$  in Eqs. (6) and (7) by analytical transformation of the P4 PES. Towards this end, we generate Taylor expansions of the internal coordinates  $r_i$  and  $\alpha_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3$ ) in terms of the variables  $\xi_j$  ( $j = 1, 2, 3, 4a, 4b$ ) and  $\sin \rho_e - \sin \bar{\rho}$ , and we insert these Taylor expansions in the P4 function. In the work on SbH<sub>3</sub> reported below, we employ a PES obtained in an analogous manner from the force constants given in Ref. [18]. For both BiH<sub>3</sub> and SbH<sub>3</sub>, the Morse parameter  $a$  has been adjusted to produce an analytical PES, given by Eq. (1), that reproduces as well as possible the original force-constant expansions [17,18] truncated after second order. The equilibrium parameter  $\rho_e$  is given in terms of the equilibrium bond angle  $\alpha_e$

$$\rho_e = \pi - \arcsin \left[ \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \sin \frac{\alpha_e}{2} \right]. \quad (8)$$

We list the determined values of the parameters  $f_{jk\dots}^{(s)}$ ,  $a$ ,  $r_e$ , and  $\alpha_e$  in Table 1. In order to investigate the quality of the corresponding analytical PES’s, we variationally calculate the vibrational term values for SbH<sub>3</sub> and BiH<sub>3</sub>, using the parameter values in Table 1 as input. The results are presented in Table 2, where we compare them to the available experimental data. In the present

Table 1  
Potential energy parameters<sup>a</sup> (in cm<sup>-1</sup> unless otherwise indicated) for the electronic ground states of BiH<sub>3</sub> and SbH<sub>3</sub>

Parameter	SbH <sub>3</sub>	BiH <sub>3</sub>
$\alpha_e/\text{deg}^b$	91.56	90.32
$r_e/\text{\AA}^b$	1.70001	1.77834
$a/\text{\AA}^{-1}$	1.40	1.39
$f_0^2$	269405.57	239198.30
$f_0^3$	-649168.93	-563131.75
$f_0^4$	2061132.21	1853073.22
$f_1^1$	-9028.96	-5631.20
$f_1^2$	-14578.68	-26820.53
$f_1^3$	-60823.94	3529.62
$f_{11}^0$	29495.17	25497.17
$f_{11}^1$	-143.23	1851.26
$f_{11}^2$	-45323.31	-50721.08
$f_{12}^0$	-125.68	-112.04
$f_{12}^1$	8919.27	9222.87
$f_{12}^2$	-16778.55	-14420.65
$f_{14}^0$	-852.00	-552.96
$f_{14}^1$	-18374.76	-17449.72
$f_{14}^2$	-23586.82	-19734.08
$f_{44}^0$	15449.71	14120.47
$f_{44}^1$	40167.63	38787.43
$f_{44}^2$	-27953.96	-9828.90
$f_{111}^0$	-628.58	-344.99
$f_{111}^1$	1423.76	1181.10
$f_{112}^0$	-205.28	-29.93
$f_{112}^1$	2657.88	601.43
$f_{114}^0$	284.72	436.76
$f_{114}^1$	-19309.12	-19163.77
$f_{123}^0$	-178.02	-91.37
$f_{123}^1$	3106.59	707.57
$f_{124}^0$	1455.91	1418.35
$f_{124}^1$	5434.55	5422.32
$f_{144}^0$	-1777.50	-1670.09
$f_{144}^1$	-7851.91	-8647.05
$f_{155}^0$	-4786.81	-4529.54
$f_{155}^1$	-9114.78	-12169.70
$f_{455}^0$	-6471.25	-6803.50
$f_{455}^1$	-59547.70	-61254.58
$f_{1111}^0$	1338.38	1170.93
$f_{1112}^0$	-96.07	73.46
$f_{1114}^0$	330.41	108.45
$f_{1122}^0$	188.31	386.11
$f_{1123}^0$	-130.86	-104.45
$f_{1124}^0$	203.69	-66.26
$f_{1125}^0$	260.17	-119.89
$f_{1144}^0$	-1720.44	-1524.71
$f_{1155}^0$	-4900.62	-4727.73
$f_{1244}^0$	836.25	811.35
$f_{1255}^0$	1603.72	1442.39
$f_{1444}^0$	-869.92	-915.85
$f_{1455}^0$	652.48	519.92
$f_{4444}^0$	2537.99	2712.09

<sup>a</sup> Only symmetrically unique parameters are given.

<sup>b</sup> Experimental values from Refs. [18] (SbH<sub>3</sub>) and [19] (BiH<sub>3</sub>).

study, we do not aim for an extremely high numerical accuracy; the purpose of the work is a more qualitative analysis of the energy level patterns resulting from the cluster formation. In view of this, we find the agreement between theory and experiment in Table 2 to be satisfactory.

### 3. Variational calculations

We calculate rovibrational energies of BiH<sub>3</sub> and SbH<sub>3</sub> by means of a variational approach described in detail in Ref. [14]. This approach is designed for the simulation of rotation–vibration spectra of XY<sub>3</sub> pyramidal molecules (for the calculation of intensities, see Refs. [21,22]). The approach is based on the Hougen–Bunker–Johns formalism [23] and applicable to isolated electronic states of any pyramidal XY<sub>3</sub> molecule. The vibrational motion is viewed as producing displacements from a flexible *reference configuration* defined by Eckart–Sayvetz conditions [24,25]. The reference configuration follows the ‘umbrella’ motion of the molecule, it has  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}$  geometrical symmetry and the molecule-fixed axis system [3] is attached to it. In the Hougen–Bunker–Johns approach, the rotation–vibration coordinates are chosen to provide maximum separation between the different types of molecular motion: Rotation, umbrella motion, and the other vibrations. The molecule-fixed  $z$  axis is a  $C_3$  rotational symmetry axis of the molecule at the reference configuration. The  $x$ -axis is defined so that the  $xz$  plane contains the X nucleus (Bi or Sb) and the proton H<sub>1</sub> with the  $x$  coordinate of H<sub>1</sub> being positive. The coordinate system is shown in Fig. 1.

We do not give any technical details of the variational calculation here; these details can be found in Ref. [14]. Suffice it to say that we diagonalize a matrix representation of the rotation–vibration Hamiltonian set up in a suitable basis set. The basis functions are labeled by the principal quantum numbers ( $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4$ ), where  $v_1$  and  $v_3$  are associated with the stretching basis functions,  $v_2$  describes the ‘umbrella’ excitation, and  $v_4$  describes the excitation of the small-amplitude bending mode. The basis set is truncated according to

$$P = 2(v_1 + v_3) + v_2 + v_4 \leq P_{\max}. \quad (9)$$

We use the value  $P_{\max} = 6$  for the semi-quantitative analysis of rovibrational spectra at high  $J$  (here,  $J$  up to 70). The basis set truncation errors are found to be about 0.03 cm<sup>-1</sup> for the vibrational ground state and 0.25, 0.4, 1, and 10 cm<sup>-1</sup> for the  $v_2/v_4$ ,  $v_1/v_3$ ,  $2v_2/v_2 + v_4/2v_4$ , and  $2v_1/(v_1 + v_3)/2v_3$  vibrational manifolds, respectively. The effect of the basis set extension appears to be a systematic, simultaneous lowering of all energies, so that all ‘local’ energy distributions remain qualitatively unchanged as the basis set is enlarged.

The kinetic energy operator, given by the factor  $G_{\lambda\mu}$ , and the pseudo-potential function  $U$  are truncated after the 4th order of the expansion [14]. The potential energy function Eq. (1) is transformed into a 6th order expansion (PES type B in Ref. [14]) in terms of the linearized coordinates that are used to describe the vibrational motion in the approach of Ref. [14].

Table 2  
Variationally calculated term values (in  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) of  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$ , compared to the available experimental data [12,19,20]

State	$\text{SbH}_3$			$\text{BiH}_3$		
	Obs.	Calc.	Obs. – Calc.	Obs.	Calc.	Obs. – Calc.
$v_2$	782.13	798.90	–16.77	726.70	733.91	–7.21
$v_4$	827.83	836.84	–9.01	751.24	759.52	–8.28
$v_1$	1890.40	1893.82	–3.42	1733.25	1742.40	–9.14
$v_3$	1894.38	1899.14	–4.76	1734.47	1746.29	–11.82
$v_1 + v_3$	3719.64	3730.59	–10.95	3406.36	3428.31	–21.95
$2v_1$	3719.71	3730.60	–10.89	3406.70	3428.43	–21.73
$3v_3$	5479.93	5500.49	–20.56			
$3v_1$	5479.93	5500.60	–20.67			
$2v_1 + 2v_3$	7173.37	7209.74	–36.37			
$4v_1$	7173.39	7209.75	–36.36			

#### 4. Rotation–vibration energies. A quantum-mechanical study of the rotational cluster formation

##### 4.1. The vibrational ground state

We have computed rovibrational term values of  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$  for  $J \leq 70$ . As mentioned above, the present study is semi-quantitative only and so, throughout the paper we prefer to present the results in diagrams rather than in tables. We denote a calculated term value by  $E_{v,Jk}$ , where  $v$  is a short-hand notation for the vibrational quantum numbers ( $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4$ ) with  $v = 0$  identifying the vibrational ground state, and  $k$  is the projection of the angular momentum onto the molecular  $z$  axis (see, for example, Ref. [3]). In order to visualize the cluster formation, we plot rotational term value spacings  $E_{v,Jk} - E_{v=0,J}^{\max}$  against  $J$ , where  $E_{v=0,J}^{\max}$  is the maximum energy in a given  $J$  multiplet of the  $v = 0$  state. Term value diagrams of this type for the vibrational ground states of  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$  are given in Fig. 2. In the figure, we indicate for each energy level its value of  $(K_{\text{lc}}/J) \leq 1$ , where  $K_{\text{lc}} \geq 0$  ('lc' stands for 'largest contribution') is the  $K$ -value ( $K = |k|$ ) of the basis function with the largest contribution to the eigenfunction of the state in question; the determination and significance of  $K_{\text{lc}}$  are discussed in detail below.

In the vibrational ground states of  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$ , the rotational energies at the top of the  $J$  manifolds form clusters of four distinct energies. In Fig. 2, we identify these clusters by circles; a cluster is indicated when the four term values in it lie within a  $0.1\text{-cm}^{-1}$  interval. The states in a cluster span the reducible representation

$$\Gamma_{\text{Cluster}} = A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus 2E \quad (10)$$

of the Molecular Symmetry Group  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}(\text{M})$  [3]. The states of highest and lowest energy in each cluster span the representation  $A_1 \oplus A_2$ ; the two 'inner'  $E$  states are sandwiched between these 'outer' states. Since the  $E$  irreducible representation is doubly degenerate, each cluster comprises six rotation–vibration states. The energy clusters are readily

<sup>1</sup> Where, for  $J$  even, the state at highest energy has  $A_1$  symmetry and that at lowest energy  $A_2$  symmetry. For  $J$  odd it is the other way around.

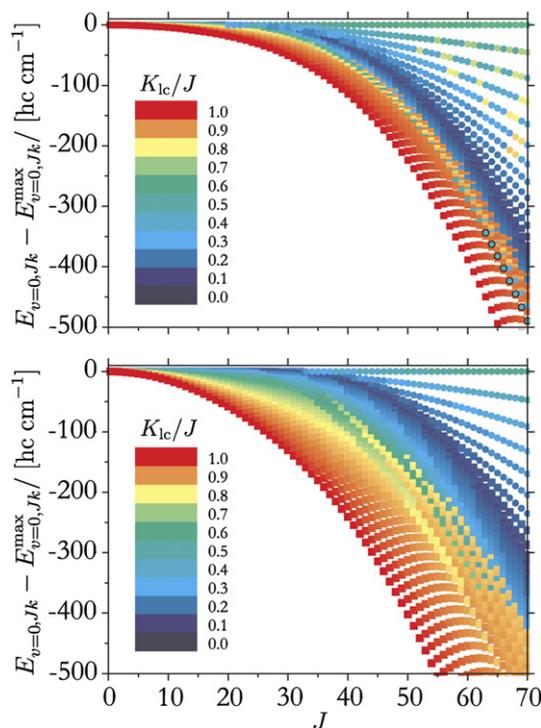


Fig. 2. Rotational term value spacings  $E_{v=0,Jk} - E_{v=0,J}^{\max}$  for the vibrational ground states of  $\text{BiH}_3$  (top) and  $\text{SbH}_3$  (bottom). For each energy level, the value of  $K_{\text{lc}}/J$  is indicated;  $K_{\text{lc}}$  is the  $K$ -value of the basis function with the largest contribution to the eigenfunction of the state in question (see text).

recognized in Fig. 3 where we enlarge the top parts of the two displays in Fig. 2. The clusters are analogous to those described for  $\text{PH}_3$  in Ref. [1] but, in particular in  $\text{BiH}_3$ , they form at significantly lower  $J$  values than in  $\text{PH}_3$ . As mentioned above, in the semi-classical limit the states in a six-fold cluster correspond to six equivalent stable rotations about three symmetrically equivalent axes  $A$ . For each axis, clockwise and anti-clockwise rotation can take place so that the three axes give rise to a total of six equivalent states. At  $J \rightarrow \infty$  each axis tends to coincide with an  $\text{X-H}_i$  bond [1].

Fig. 4 shows the *cluster spread* (i.e., the difference between the highest and lowest term values of the sixfold cluster) for the 'top' clusters (the clusters at highest energy

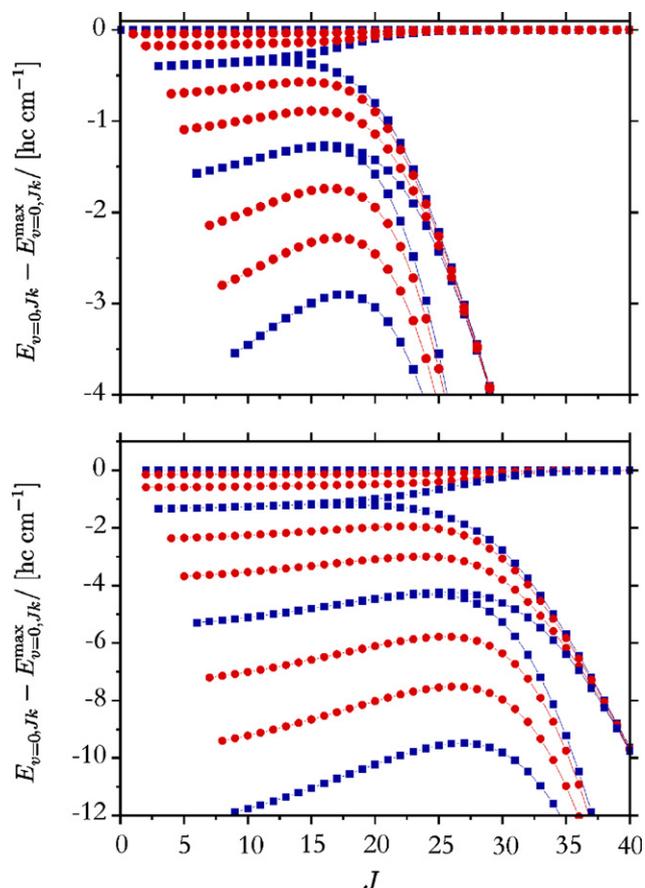


Fig. 3. Rotational term value spacings  $E_{v=0,Jk} - E_{v=0,Jk}^{\max}$  for the highest rotational energies in the vibrational ground states of  $\text{BiH}_3$  (top) and  $\text{SbH}_3$  (bottom). Squares indicate levels of  $A_1$  or  $A_2$  symmetry in  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}(\text{M})$  [3]; circles indicate levels of  $E$  symmetry.

in the  $J$  manifold) for various vibrational states of  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$ . A detailed analysis of the data in the figure shows that at high  $J$ , the cluster spread decreases exponentially with  $J$  for both molecules as already discussed for  $\text{PH}_3$  in Ref. [1]. The exponential decrease has been explained by Harter and Patterson [5] in terms of RES theory. In  $\text{BiH}_3$ , the clusters obviously form at lower  $J$  than in  $\text{SbH}_3$  (note the different ordinate scales in the two displays of Fig. 4). This is not simply a consequence of the Bi nucleus

being heavier than the Sb nucleus. Instead, it is caused by the fact that  $\text{BiH}_3$  is a near-spherical top. For a ‘true,’ rigid spherical top, all energies in a given  $J$  manifold are degenerate. Thus, the energies in the  $J$  manifolds of  $\text{BiH}_3$  are very closely spaced, and relatively little centrifugal distortion is required to bring about the cluster formation. For a given  $J$  value, the energies in the corresponding  $J$  manifold in the vibrational ground state of  $\text{SbH}_3$  lie in an energy interval typically about twice as large as that containing the energies in the same  $J$  manifold of  $\text{BiH}_3$ . However at high  $J$  values, the  $\text{SbH}_3$  cluster spreads are comparable to those of  $\text{BiH}_3$ . The strong centrifugal forces associated with the high rotational excitation destroy the spherical-top character of  $\text{BiH}_3$  so that its rotational motion becomes similar to that of  $\text{SbH}_3$ .

If  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$  were rigid molecules, the  $K_{1c}$ -values indicated in Fig. 2 would be equal to  $K_c$ , the absolute value of the projection, in units of  $\hbar$ , of the angular momentum onto the  $z$  axis (equal to the  $c$  principal axis [3]) for a rigid, oblate symmetric rotor. In the rigid-rotor case the lowest energy in each  $J$  manifold would have  $K_c = J$  and, as the energies within the manifold increase,  $K_c$  would decrease so that the highest energy has  $K_c = 0$ . We consider here a vibrating molecule for which  $K_c$  is no longer a good quantum number. The ‘effective’  $K$ -labeling in Fig. 2 is obtained by considering the rotation–vibration wavefunctions  $\psi_n^{J,\Gamma}$  for the states in question. In our model, these wavefunctions are given as linear combinations of the basis functions  $\phi_{v,K}^{J,m}$

$$\psi_n^{J,\Gamma}(r_1, r_2, r_3, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \theta, \phi, \chi) = \sum_{K=0}^J \sum_v C_{v,K}^{n,J,\Gamma} \phi_{v,K}^{J,m}, \quad (11)$$

where the  $C_{v,K}^{n,J,\Gamma}$  are expansion coefficients,  $v$  is again a short-hand notation for the vibrational quantum numbers ( $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4$ ),  $\Gamma$  is the  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}(\text{M})$  symmetry of  $\psi_n^{J,\Gamma}$ , and  $n$  is a running index used to distinguish eigenfunctions with the same values of  $J$  and  $\Gamma$ . The  $K$ -value  $K_{1c}$  given in Fig. 2 is that for which  $|C_{v,K}^{n,J,\Gamma}|^2$  is largest in Eq. (11). That is, it is the  $K$ -value of the basis function  $\phi_{v,K}^{J,m}$  with the largest contribution to the eigenfunction  $\psi_n^{J,\Gamma}$ .

The distribution of  $K_{1c}$ -values shown in Fig. 2 is found to be very different from that predicted in the rigid-rotor

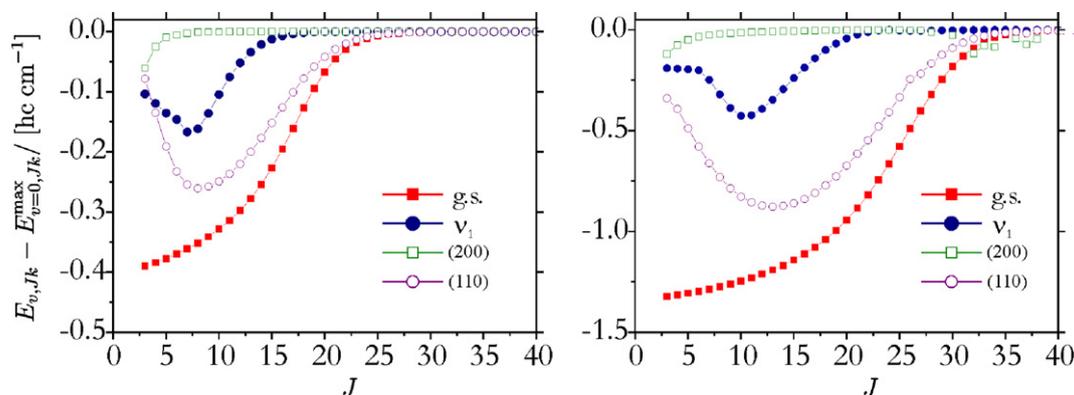


Fig. 4. Cluster spreads (see text) for  $\text{BiH}_3$  (left) and  $\text{SbH}_3$  (right).

model. For both  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$ , the lowest energies in the  $J$  manifolds have  $K_{\text{lc}} = K_c = J$  as expected, and as the energies within the manifold increase,  $K_{\text{lc}}$  decreases. However,  $K_{\text{lc}}$  reaches values near zero before we arrive at the highest energy with the given value of  $J$ ; there is a region with  $K_{\text{lc}} \approx 0$  in the middle of the manifolds. For the states with term values above this region,  $K_{\text{lc}}$  has intermediate values between, say,  $0.5J$  and  $0.8J$ . These states are the sixfold cluster states; they are indicated by circles in Fig. 2. The states with  $K_{\text{lc}} = J$  at the bottom of the  $J$  manifolds correspond to twofold clusters ( $k_c = \pm K_c = \pm J$ ; see Ref. [3]) associated with rotation about the  $z$  (or  $C_3$ ) axis. In the following, we refer to the twofold clusters below the  $K_{\text{lc}} = 0$  ‘separation’ region as Type A clusters, whereas the sixfold clusters above the separation region are called Type B clusters.

For  $\text{BiH}_3$  only, we find in Fig. 2 a progression of sixfold clusters with  $J > 60$  situated below the  $K_{\text{lc}} = 0$  ‘separation’ region. These cluster states have  $K_{\text{lc}}/J \approx 0.4$ , whereas the states surrounding them in the diagram have  $K_{\text{lc}}/J \approx 0.9$ . Analogous clusters have not been found for  $\text{PH}_3$  in the theoretical study of Ref. [1]. We refer to these ‘new’  $\text{BiH}_3$  clusters as Type C clusters. The cluster states span the  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}(\text{M})$  representation given in Eq. (10), that is, also Type C clusters are formed by two  $E$ -symmetry levels approaching an  $A_1/A_2$  level pair. A detailed analysis of the formation of these clusters show that they emerge by coalescence of three twofold clusters. In the following section, we analyse the Type C clusters in terms of RES theory [5]. As usual, the  $n$ -fold cluster states are related to  $n$  stable rotational axes  $A$  corresponding to  $n$  stationary points on the RES.

## 4.2. Excited vibrational states

Term value diagrams with the rotational energy structure in excited vibrational states  $\nu_2/\nu_4$ ,  $\nu_1/\nu_3$ ,  $2\nu_1/2\nu_3/(v_1 + v_3)$  and  $2\nu_2/(v_2 + v_4)/2\nu_4$  are shown in Fig. 5 for  $\text{BiH}_3$  and in Fig. 6 for  $\text{SbH}_3$ . In both figures, sixfold clusters are represented by filled circles. We indicate clusters whose cluster spreads are  $0.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  or less. The term value diagrams for  $\text{SbH}_3$  in Fig. 6 are obviously rather similar to those for  $\text{BiH}_3$  in Fig. 5 (with the sixfold energy clusters forming at lower  $J$ -values in  $\text{BiH}_3$ ). In view of this similarity, we concentrate on  $\text{BiH}_3$  in the discussion of the cluster structure.

### 4.2.1. Bending excitation: The $\nu_2/\nu_4$ and $2\nu_2/(v_2 + v_4)/2\nu_4$ polyads

In  $\text{BiH}_3$ , the experimentally determined vibrational term values for the  $\nu_2$  and  $\nu_4$  fundamental levels are  $726.7$  and  $751.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively. The  $\nu_2$  normal mode has  $A_1$  symmetry in  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}(\text{M})$ , whereas  $\nu_4$  has  $E$  symmetry. In the  $\nu_2/\nu_4$  display of Fig. 5, at very low  $J$  the term values group into a  $\nu_2$  component at low energy and a  $\nu_4$  component at higher energy. Since the  $\nu_4$  state is degenerate, Coriolis coupling effects cause the  $\nu_4$  component to split into two sub-components at  $J > 5$ , this is similar to the splittings of the  $E$ -state energy distributions seen in theoretical calculations for  $\text{SiH}_4$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  [26]. It is interesting that at  $J$  values above 30 the entire  $\nu_2/\nu_4$  system coalesces into one component; there is no longer any clear distinction between the  $\nu_2$  manifold and the two Coriolis-split components of the  $\nu_4$  manifold. This is analogous to the findings of Kozin and Jensen for the  $\nu_1/\nu_3$  manifolds of  $\text{H}_2\text{Se}$  [27] and other dihydrides  $\text{H}_2\text{X}$  [9]:

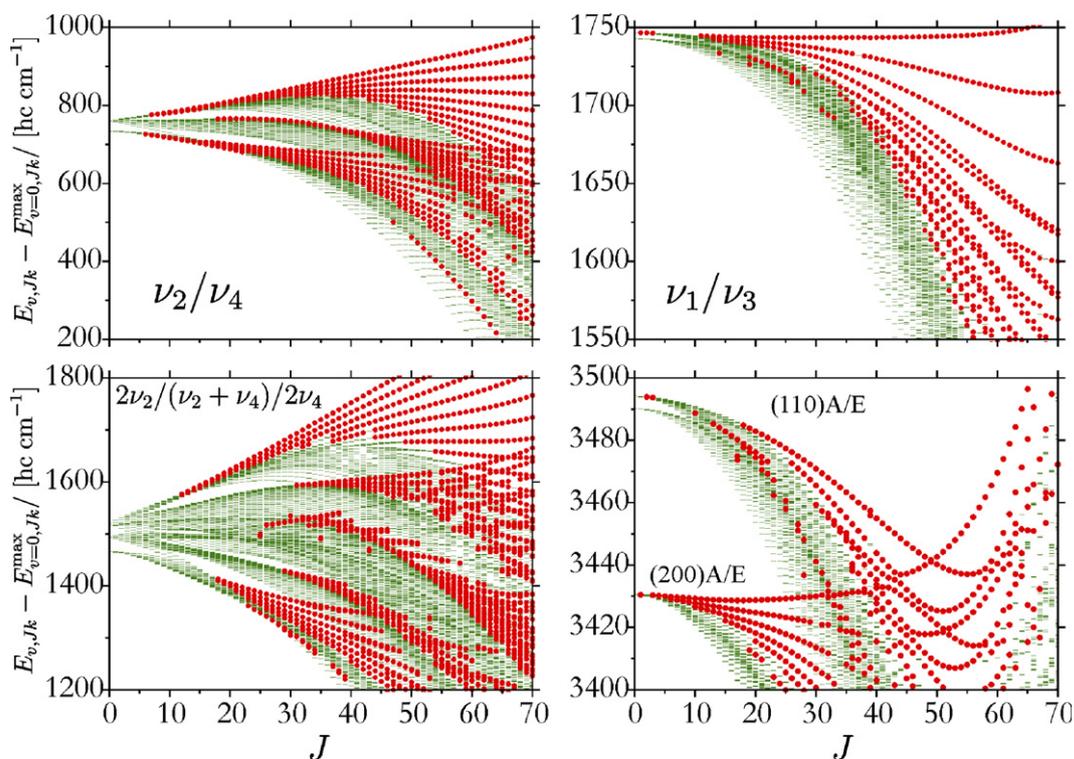


Fig. 5. Rotational energy levels for  $\text{BiH}_3$  in excited vibrational states. For notation, see Fig. 2.

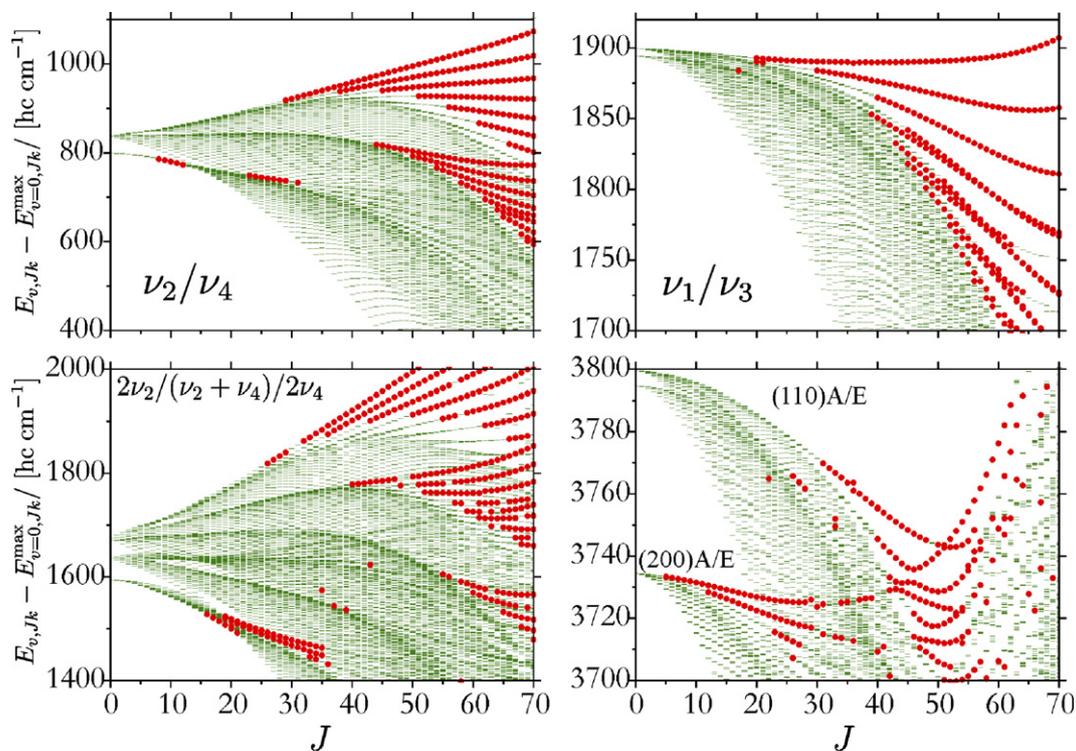


Fig. 6. Rotational energy levels for  $\text{SbH}_3$  in excited vibrational states. For notation, see Fig. 2.

Rotational excitation removes the distinction between the normal-mode vibrational states and induces local-mode behaviour. Fig. 5 shows that also for  $\text{BiH}_3$ , the local-mode labeling scheme is appropriate at high  $J$ . All three vibrational components in the  $\nu_2/\nu_4$  display of Fig. 5 develop rotational energy clusters as  $J$  increases. The clusters in the central vibrational component (i.e., the lower Coriolis-split component of the  $\nu_4$  state) appear at higher  $J$  values ( $J \approx 50$ ) than in the other two components.

At very high  $J$ , each  $J$  manifold of the  $\nu_2/\nu_4$  dyad contains very many states, the density of states is thus high and there is ample opportunity for (avoided) crossings and interactions. Although the resulting patterns are highly disordered, in most cases it is still possible to recognize the cluster features. The states with lowest energy in the  $J$  manifolds form twofold clusters (Type A), there is an intermediate, irregular region, and above this region the sixfold clusters of Type B form. A few Type C clusters have been identified among the  $\nu_2$  energies at  $J \approx 55$ .

The energy level structure of the polyad  $2\nu_2/(\nu_2 + \nu_4)/2\nu_4$  of doubly excited bending states is qualitatively similar to that of the dyad  $\nu_2/\nu_4$ . The term values now group into six sub-components and very many clusters form at high  $J$ . However, there is again a high density of states and many more or less accidental interactions. Consequently, only at the top of the  $J$  manifolds for the entire polyad are there unperturbed progressions of sixfold clusters. Rotational excitation removes the distinction between the rotational structures of the individual normal-mode vibrational states also in the case of  $2\nu_2/(\nu_2 + \nu_4)/2\nu_4$  polyad.

#### 4.2.2. Stretching excitation: The $\nu_1/\nu_3$ and $2\nu_1/2\nu_3/(\nu_1 + \nu_3)$ polyads

We now consider the stretching fundamental levels  $\nu_1$  ( $A_1$  symmetry in  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}(\text{M})$ ) and  $\nu_3$  ( $E$  symmetry) together with the polyad  $2\nu_1/2\nu_3/(\nu_1 + \nu_3)$  of overtone and combination levels, for  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$ . We label the overtone and combination levels by local-mode quantum numbers ( $lmn\Gamma_{\text{vib}}$ ), where  $l$ ,  $m$ , and  $n$  are the number of excited quanta in each of the three bond oscillators (see, for example, Ref. [12]), while  $\Gamma_{\text{vib}}$  is the vibrational symmetry in  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}(\text{M})$  [3]. The three overtone and combination levels considered here,  $2\nu_1$ ,  $\nu_1 + \nu_3$ , and  $2\nu_3$ , have the local-mode labels (200A), (200E), and (110A/E), respectively.

The rotational energy level pattern in the  $\nu_1/\nu_3$  polyad of  $\text{BiH}_3$  (Fig. 5) is dominated by the pronounced local mode character of this polyad: The  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_3$  states are nearly degenerate. This leads to the formation of sixfold clusters analogous to the Type II clusters found for triatomic molecules (see Ref. [10] and references therein). These clusters appear at low  $J$  and involve heavy mixing of the  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_3$  vibrational basis functions. In the  $2\nu_1/2\nu_3/(\nu_1 + \nu_3)$  polyad, matters are complicated by local interactions leading to avoided crossings of cluster-state progressions. These avoided crossings are generally between progressions of, on one hand, (200A) and (110A) cluster states and, on the other hand, (200E) and (110E) cluster states. Cluster state progressions originating in A vibrational states generally just cross the progressions originating in E vibrational states. In the avoided crossings, at least on the scale of Fig. 5, the six near-degenerate cluster states appear as

one state, each member of a cluster interacting to the same extent with a partner member of the same symmetry in the other cluster. This effect has already been noted for triatomic molecules [9,27].

We know that local mode behaviour is conducive to energy cluster formation (see, for example, Ref. [10]), and we also know that excited stretching vibrational states with the entire excitation in a single bond, such as (200*A*/*E*), show more pronounced local mode behaviour than the states (110*A*/*E*). Hence it is not surprising that in the (200*A*) and (200*E*) states (which correlate with the  $2\nu_1$  and  $\nu_1 + \nu_3$  states, respectively), sixfold clusters form for BiH<sub>3</sub> and SbH<sub>3</sub> at *J* values lower than those found for the vibrational ground states, as seen from the cluster spreads of Fig. 4. In the (200*A*) (or  $2\nu_1$ ) state, the cluster formation is extremely rapid.

## 5. Classical analysis

In the present section, we discuss the mechanisms leading to the energy cluster formation in terms of classical concepts, most notably in terms of the rotational energy surface [5,6]. We make this analysis for BiH<sub>3</sub> only. The analysis for SbH<sub>3</sub> is essentially a repetition of the classical analysis of the cluster formation in PH<sub>3</sub> reported in Ref. [1]. For BiH<sub>3</sub>, however, there are new aspects of the analysis in that we use the classical theory to explain the Type C clusters not found for PH<sub>3</sub> and SbH<sub>3</sub>.

### 5.1. The rotational energy surface

As mentioned in Section 1, Harter and Patterson [5,6] have shown how, by analysing the topology of the rotational energy surface (or RES), we can explain and predict energy cluster formation. To obtain the RES, we must express the classical rotational energy of the molecule in terms of the orientation of the classical angular momentum vector **J** relative to the molecule. This orientation is conveniently described by a polar angle  $\theta$  and an azimuthal angle  $\phi$  defined in terms of the molecule-fixed axis system *xyz* [3]. In the customary manner,  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  is the angle between **J** and the molecule-fixed *z* axis, and  $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$  is the angle between the *x* axis the projection of **J** in the *xy* plane, measured in the usual positive sense (see, for example, Ref. [3]). The molecular rotation can be understood by analysing the classical trajectories traced by the tip of the vector **J**. The stationary points of the classically defined RES can be used to characterize the cluster phenomena in the quantum-mechanical description: If the RES has *n* symmetrically equivalent stationary points, there will be *n*-fold degenerate energy clusters [5]. The cluster states correlate with the smallest possible, classically allowed trajectories of **J** around the *n* stationary points.

Classical trajectories are defined as solutions of the equations of motion for the classical rovibrational Hamiltonian  $H_{rv}$  with the *xyz* components of the quantum-

mechanical angular momentum operator **J** substituted by their classical analogues

$$J_x = \sqrt{J(J+1)} \sin \theta \cos \phi \quad (12)$$

$$J_y = \sqrt{J(J+1)} \sin \theta \sin \phi \quad (13)$$

$$J_z = \sqrt{J(J+1)} \cos \theta, \quad (14)$$

and the generalized momenta  $p_n = \partial T / \partial \dot{q}_n$  set to zero [28]. Here *T* is the classical kinetic energy and the momentum  $p_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, 6$ , is conjugate to the generalized coordinate  $q_n \in \{r_1, r_2, r_3, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3\}$ . The classical Hamiltonian  $H_{rv}$  is defined in terms of the same kinetic-energy expansion coefficients  $G_{\lambda\mu}$ , the pseudo-potential *U*, and the potential energy *V* [14] that we use for the quantum-mechanical, variational calculations presented above.

In practice, we construct the rotational energy surface  $E_J(\theta, \phi)$  as follows. We choose a regular grid of angle points  $\theta_m, \phi_m$  and optimize the molecular structure (defined by the geometrical parameters  $r_i$  and  $\alpha_i$ , see above) at each grid point by minimizing the classical energy  $E = H_{rv}(r_i, \alpha_i, \theta_m, \phi_m)$ . The rotational energy surface  $E_J(\theta_m, \phi_m)$  is then given by

$$E_J(\theta_m, \phi_m) = H_{rv}(J, r_i = r_i^{\text{opt}}, \alpha_i = \alpha_i^{\text{opt}}, \theta_m, \phi_m), \quad (15)$$

where the classical Hamiltonian function  $H_{rv}$  is calculated at the optimized geometries  $r_i^{\text{opt}}, \alpha_i^{\text{opt}}$  for each orientation of the angular momentum defined by the polar and azimuthal angles  $(\theta_m, \phi_m)$ . The RES  $E_J(\theta_m, \phi_m)$  is constructed in such a manner that the vibrational motion, or at least the way that the vibration is influenced by centrifugal forces, is incorporated to some extent.

In Fig. 7, we show the RES obtained for BiH<sub>3</sub> at *J* = 60. The stationary points on the RES define stable rotational axes *A*—we also speak about *local rotational equilibria* in this situation. The RES in Fig. 7 has six distinct equivalent maxima corresponding to local rotational equilibria. The six maxima can be organized in three pairs where the two members of each pair describe clockwise and anti-clockwise rotation, respectively, about the same rotational axis, and so the six maxima define three stable rotational axes only. We always find one stable axis in the plane with  $\phi = 0^\circ$  (it has  $\theta > 90^\circ$  so that it ‘points downwards’), and we can obtain the two other stable axes by letting the  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}$

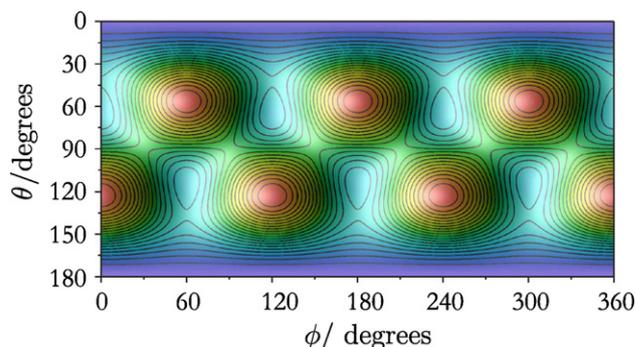


Fig. 7. Rotational energy surfaces for BiH<sub>3</sub> calculated for *J* = 60.

point group operations  $C_3$  and  $C_3^2$  [3] act on this initial axis; they have the same value of  $\theta$  as the initial axis, but  $\phi = 120^\circ$  and  $240^\circ$ , respectively. At  $J = 60$ , the initial stable axis for  $\text{BiH}_3$  with  $\phi = 0^\circ$  has  $\theta = 122.9^\circ$  (see Fig. 7).

We have analyzed RES's of  $\text{BiH}_3$  for  $J$  up to 120. The six maxima discussed above appear at any value of  $J > 0$ . Even at low rotational excitation, centrifugal distortion breaks the  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}$  geometrical symmetry of the molecule and the three equivalent rotation axes emerge. As found for  $\text{PH}_3$  [1], however, the average molecular geometry associated with rotation about the stable axes has  $\mathcal{C}_s$  geometrical symmetry: The two bonds, which are not near the stable rotation axis, are equally stretched. At very high  $J$  ( $>60$ ), the stationary axes tend to coincide with one of the Bi–H bonds, with the two other bonds being almost perfectly orthogonal to this bond and to each other. As  $J$  increases, centrifugal distortion keeps elongating the two bonds orthogonal to the rotation axis until they break at  $J > 120$ .

In addition to the six equivalent maxima just discussed, we find on the RES for any  $J$ -value two minima with  $\theta = 0^\circ$  and  $180^\circ$ , respectively. That is, the RES has a minimum when the  $\mathbf{J}$  vector points in the positive or negative  $z$  direction. These minima correspond to rotations about the  $z$ -axis with the  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}$  geometrical symmetry conserved. The six maxima and two minima have already been reported in our analysis of the energy cluster formation in  $\text{PH}_3$  [1]. However, on the RES of  $\text{BiH}_3$  (Fig. 7) we can identify six further minima which were not found in case of  $\text{PH}_3$  [1]. These six local rotational equilibria define three additional stable rotational axes that lie in the  $\mathcal{C}_{3v}$  planes of reflection. For  $J = 60$  one of the additional axes is found at  $\theta = 65.6^\circ$ ,  $\phi = 0^\circ$  (i.e., it ‘points upwards’) and we obtain the two other axes by letting  $C_3$  and  $C_3^2$  [3] act on the first one. The corresponding optimized molecular structure has  $\mathcal{C}_s$  geometrical symmetry with  $\alpha_1=95.8^\circ$ ,  $\alpha_2=\alpha_3=85.6^\circ$ ,  $r_1 = 1.81 \text{ \AA}$ , and  $r_2 = r_3 = 1.82 \text{ \AA}$ . In total, we have found  $6 + 6 + 2 = 14$  rotational equilibria for  $\text{BiH}_3$ , this number is in accordance with the predictions of Ref. [29].

We can appreciate from the discussion of Fig. 7 that all important features of the RES are found in the planes with  $\phi = 0^\circ$ ,  $120^\circ$ , and  $240^\circ$ , respectively. Furthermore, the features at  $\phi = 120^\circ$  and  $240^\circ$  are ‘repetitions’ of those at  $\phi = 0^\circ$ , obtained by applying the point group operations  $C_3$  and  $C_3^2$  [3] to the  $\phi = 0^\circ$  plane. All RES points with  $\phi = 0^\circ$  have zero  $\phi$ -gradients

$$\left. \frac{\partial E_J}{\partial \phi} \right|_{\theta, \phi=0} = 0. \quad (16)$$

For  $\phi = 0^\circ$ , we have minima at  $\theta = 0$  and  $180^\circ$ , respectively, one of the six equivalent maxima at  $\theta > 90^\circ$ , and one of the six equivalent minima at  $\theta < 90^\circ$ . Owing to the  $C_3$  rotational symmetry of the RES, we can obviously focus on the plane with  $\phi = 0^\circ$  in the analysis. In Fig. 8, we show one-dimensional cuts through the RES of  $\text{BiH}_3$  with  $\phi = 0^\circ$  and  $J = 20, 40, 60, 80, 100$ , and  $120$ . At  $J > 120$  the classical analysis is no longer possible; the molecule has

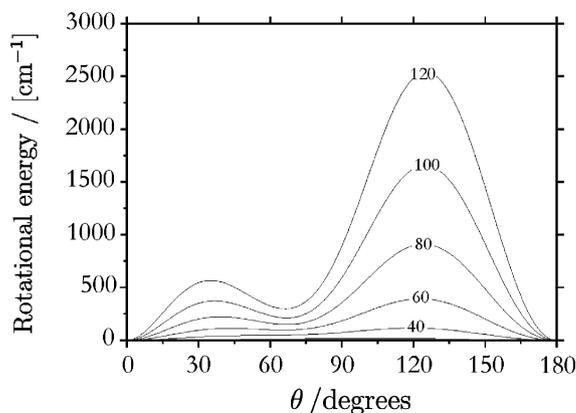


Fig. 8. One-dimensional cuts (for  $\phi = 0^\circ$ ) through the rotational energy surfaces of  $\text{BiH}_3$  calculated for  $J = 20, 40, 60, 80, 100$ , and  $120$ . The  $J = 20$  line is very close to the abscissa and can hardly be seen.

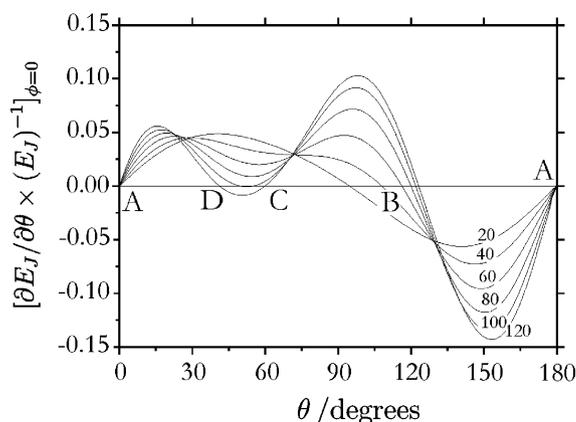


Fig. 9. The function  $F_J(\theta) = \partial E_J / \partial \theta \times E_J^{-1}|_{\phi=0}$  for  $\text{BiH}_3$  (see text).

dissociated and no stationary geometries can be determined. To identify more clearly the stationary points on the  $\text{BiH}_3$  RES, we plot in Fig. 9 the function

$$F_J(\theta) = \left. \frac{\partial E_J}{\partial \theta} \frac{1}{E_J} \right|_{\phi=0} \quad (17)$$

for  $J = 20, 40, 60, 80, 100$ , and  $120$ , respectively.<sup>2</sup> At each stationary point, we have  $F_J(\theta) = 0$ , and at these points we further calculate the determinant of the Hessian matrix

$$D = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 E_J}{\partial \theta^2} & \frac{\partial^2 E_J}{\partial \theta \partial \phi} \\ \frac{\partial^2 E_J}{\partial \theta \partial \phi} & \frac{\partial^2 E_J}{\partial \phi^2} \end{vmatrix}. \quad (18)$$

This quantity characterizes stability of the stationary rotational axes and describes the precessional motion of the molecule in their vicinity:  $D > 0$  for minima and

<sup>2</sup> The function  $F_J(\theta)$  is introduced to identify the points with  $\partial E_J / \partial \theta = 0$ . The division by  $E_J$  is a ‘normalization’ made so that  $F_J(\theta)$  functions with a wide range of  $J$  values can be conveniently plotted in the same diagram.

maxima and  $D < 0$  for a saddle point. If  $D = 0$ , tests involving third- and higher-order derivatives must be used to determine the nature of the stationary point.

Each function  $F_J(\theta)$  in Fig. 9 has nodes at  $\theta = 0^\circ$  and  $\theta = 180^\circ$ ; these nodes are labeled ‘A’ in the figure. Also, each function has one node (labeled ‘B’ in the figure) in the interval  $90^\circ < \theta < 180^\circ$ . The low- $J$  functions have these three nodes only, but as  $J$  increases, two additional nodes (‘C’ and ‘D’) appear in the interval  $0^\circ < \theta < 90^\circ$ . The latter two nodes are associated with the fact that for  $J > 40$  the one-dimensional cuts in Fig. 8 develop a second maximum around  $\theta \approx 35^\circ$  and this maximum must necessarily be accompanied by a minimum separating it from the ever-present maximum at  $\theta \approx 120^\circ$ . The determinant of the Hessian matrix is zero for the A points in Fig. 9, positive for B and C, and negative for D. The saddle point D separates the localization regions around the points A and C.

The emergence of the two ‘new’ stationary points C and D at  $J \approx 40$  in Fig. 9 represents a process customarily known as a ‘bifurcation.’ We illustrate this further in the so-called ‘bifurcation diagram’ of Fig. 10. The diagram shows, as functions of  $J$ , the  $\theta$  values of the B points as a solid line, and those of the points C and D as a dashed line. The dotted line gives the  $\theta$  values for a set of points at which the determinant of the Hessian matrix is found to vanish. These points suddenly appear at  $J \approx 20$  and constitute a ‘separatrix’ giving rise to the local rotational equilibria C and D at  $J \approx 40$  through a so-called ‘imperfect bifurcation’ [30]. The imperfect bifurcation is evident here because of the characteristic ‘pitchfork’ signature in Fig. 10 (cf. Fig. 9 of Ref. [31]).

As already mentioned, the points C and D were not encountered in our analysis of the cluster formation in  $\text{PH}_3$  [1] and so they are especially interesting. They are obviously formed in a bifurcation process. The stable axis corresponding to point C has  $\theta \approx 65^\circ$  at  $J = 60$ . The optimized geometry for this local rotational equilibrium has all bond lengths approximately equal and angles significantly changed relative to the geometry obtained for the Type B clusters above:  $\alpha_2 = \alpha_3$  are increased and  $\alpha_1$  is

decreased. At high  $J$ , the unstable point D ( $\theta \approx 35^\circ$ ) can be associated with classical rotation about an axis bisecting the  $\text{H}_2\text{BiH}_3$  angle. During this rotation, centrifugal distortion has the largest effect on the Bi–H<sub>1</sub> bond and the angles  $\alpha_2$  and  $\alpha_3$ , while  $r_2$ ,  $r_3$ , and  $\alpha_1$  undergo smaller changes.

The classical trajectories on the RES are closely related to the quantum-mechanical energy values [1,6]. The correlation is very simple—since the energy is necessarily conserved, the trajectory arises as the intersection of the RES with an ‘equi-energetic’ surface of the given energy, and this surface is a sphere when the RES is presented as a radial plot [6]. Thus, for each of the  $\text{BiH}_3$  energy clusters shown in Fig. 2, we can easily find the corresponding classical trajectory: The twofold clusters (Type A) correspond to trajectories around stationary points A with  $\theta = 0^\circ$  and  $\theta = 180^\circ$ . The sixfold clusters of Type B found in the top-right part of Fig. 2 correspond to trajectories circumscribing the maxima on the RES, i.e., the stationary points B. The additional clusters of Type C found at  $J > 50$  correspond to trajectories encircling the six minima on the RES, that is, the stationary points C. When this correspondence is established we can also compare, for each cluster type, the average geometries derived from the quantum-mechanical cluster wavefunctions with the geometries obtained from the classical analysis. The former are obtained as quantum-mechanical expectation values of  $r_i$  and  $\alpha_i$  [1], while the latter are the optimized geometries from the minimization of the classical vibration–rotation energy  $E_{v,J}(r_i, \alpha_i, \theta, \phi)$ . As in the case of  $\text{PH}_3$  [1], we have found very good agreement between the ‘classical’ and ‘quantum-mechanical’ geometries.

### 5.2. Semi-classical analysis: $\theta_k$ -values

The rotational energy surfaces introduced above give a classical picture of the molecular rotation in the vibrational ground state of a molecule. In order to determine a RES for a vibrationally excited state, special considerations are

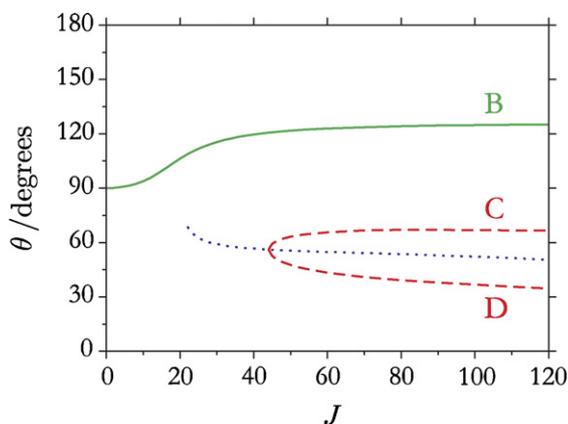


Fig. 10. Values of the polar angle  $\theta$  for stationary points on the RES's of  $\text{BiH}_3$  obtained at different  $J$ -values.

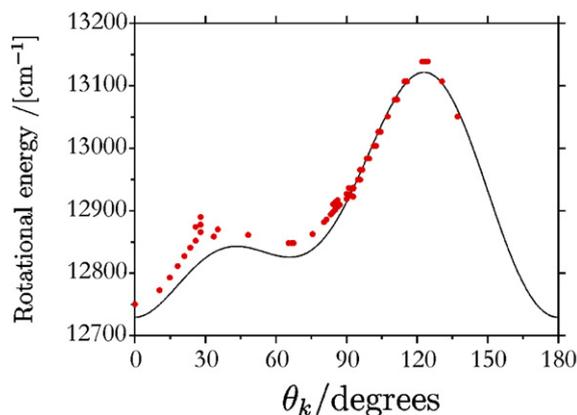


Fig. 11. Energy points ( $\theta_k, E_{v,Jk}$ ) (filled circles) and classical rotational energy as a function of  $\theta_k$  (solid curve) for the vibrational ground state of  $\text{BiH}_3$  at  $J = 60$  (see text).

necessary [16]. We employ here a semi-classical approach to obtain a RES for excited vibrational states of BiH<sub>3</sub>.

The so-called  $k$ -probability [27,32] was found to be very useful for identifying the localized rotation axes. In Refs. [27,32], the molecule-fixed axis system was rotated until the  $z$ -axis of the rotated axis system coincided with the localized rotation axis; this coincidence manifested itself in an optimally ‘sharp’  $k$ -distribution with one  $k$ -value (normally  $k = +J$  or  $-J$ ) having a probability close to unity. In the present work, we do not make such rotations of the molecule-fixed axis system. In our model [14] the  $K$ -value measures the projection of the angular momentum onto the molecule-fixed  $z$  axis (see Fig. 1), *not* the projection onto the rotation axis  $A$ . The quantity  $K_{\text{lc}}$  is determined quantum-mechanically as the  $K$ -value of the basis function  $\phi_{v,K}^{J,m}$  with the largest contribution to the eigenfunction  $\psi_n^{J,\Gamma}$  (see Eq. (11) and the associated discussion). As discussed previously [1], for the clusters at highest energy in the  $J$  manifolds the projection of the angular momentum onto

the localized rotation axis  $A$  is  $J\hbar \approx \sqrt{J(J+1)}\hbar$  for  $J$  large. Consequently, we have approximately [1]

$$K_{\text{lc}}\hbar = J\hbar |\cos(\theta_k)| = \sqrt{J(J+1)}\hbar |\cos(\theta_k)|, \quad (19)$$

where  $\theta_k$  is the angle between the  $z$  axis and the localized axis of rotation  $A$ . Since  $K_{\text{lc}}$  is the absolute value of the projection of the angular momentum onto the  $z$  axis, we cannot determine the sign of  $\cos(\theta_k)$ . From Eq. (19) (see also Harter [5]), we derive

$$\theta_k = \arccos\left(\frac{\pm K_{\text{lc}}}{\sqrt{J(J+1)}}\right). \quad (20)$$

In the classical limit,  $\theta_k$  defines the orientation of the classical rotation axis relative to the  $z$  axis; this angle is identical to the angle  $\theta$  introduced in Section 5.1. Each eigenfunction  $\psi_n^{J,\Gamma}$  can be associated with the rotation axis defined by  $\theta_k$ ; this angle is obtained ‘semi-classically’ since Eq. (20) is derived by classical considerations while the

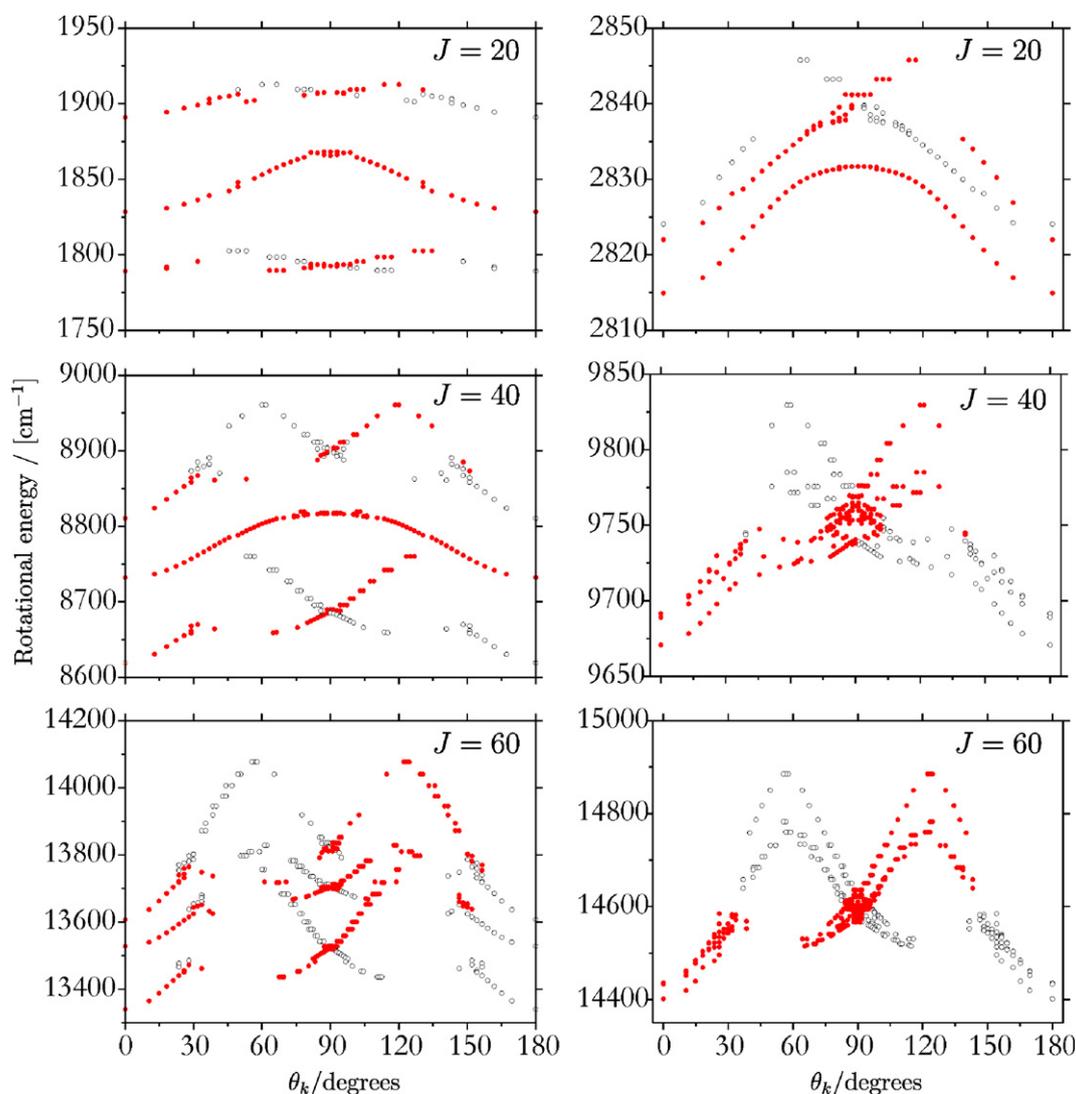


Fig. 12. Energy points ( $\theta_k, E_{v,J,k}$ ) for the  $v_2/v_4$  (left) and  $v_1/v_3$  (right) dyads of BiH<sub>3</sub> (see text).

quantity  $K_{lc}$  in Eq. (20) is determined from the quantum-mechanical solution of the rotation–vibration Schrödinger equation. It should be noted, however, that in determining  $\theta_k$ , we have to choose between  $+K_{lc}$  and  $-K_{lc}$  in Eq. (20). That is, we have to guess whether a given term value  $E_{v,J,K_{lc}}$  corresponds to the ‘northern’ ( $\theta_k < 90^\circ$ ) or ‘southern’ ( $\theta_k > 90^\circ$ ) rotational hemisphere. Guided by the RES in Fig. 8, we have assumed that all term values  $E_{v,J,k}$ , which are below the  $K_{lc} = 0$  ‘separation’ region in Fig. 2, have  $\theta_k < 90^\circ$  while all term values above the  $K_{lc} = 0$  region have  $\theta_k > 90^\circ$ . This rule follows from the discussion above where we showed that the stationary axes B and C always point into opposite  $\theta$ -hemispheres.

In Fig. 11, we plot the data points  $(\theta_k, E_{v,J,k})$ , with  $\theta_k$  calculated from Eq. (20) and  $E_{v,J,k}$  computed quantum-mechanically, for  $J = 60$ . For comparison, we repeat in the figure the one-dimensional RES cut for  $J = 60$  from Fig. 8; it is the classical analogue of the semi-classical distribution  $(\theta_k, E_{v,J,k})$ . It is reassuring that the classical curve very closely follows the semi-classical energy points. Thus, with the calculated  $\theta_k$ -values we can ‘reconstruct’ a one-dimensional cut through the RES for  $\phi = 0^\circ$ . We utilize this fact for the analysis of the excited vibrational states.

Fig. 12 presents the  $(\theta_k, E_{v,J,k})$  distributions for the  $v_2/v_4$  and  $v_1/v_3$  dyads of  $\text{BiH}_3$  (Fig. 2). Now it is no longer straightforward to separate the term values between the two  $\theta$ -hemispheres because of the overlap of the three components in the dyad. Therefore we initially put all the energies into both hemispheres (empty circles in Fig. 12) and, after a visual inspection of the resulting diagram, we indicate possible distributions by filled circles.

We first comment on the results for the bending fundamental states  $v_2/v_4$ . We know that sixfold clusters of Type B correspond to maxima, while clusters of Type C correspond to minima on the RES. As we see in the left displays of Fig. 12 the upper progression of points (which is the upper component of the  $v_4$  state) and the lower progression (the  $v_2$  state) exhibit maxima at any non-zero  $J$ -value. As  $J$  increases, the middle progression (i.e., the lower component of the  $v_4$  state) does not develop such extrema until around  $J = 50$  (the maximum at  $\theta = 90^\circ$  is an artefact of having put all energies into both  $\theta$ -hemispheres and does not correspond to sixfold cluster formation). The lower progression eventually joins the middle progression, which means that the clusters of Type B are shared by the  $v_2$  and  $v_4$  states. Thus, these clusters are analogous to the Type II clusters characterized by Kozin and Jensen for the  $v_1/v_3$  manifolds of  $\text{H}_2\text{Se}$  [27]. At  $J = 60$  all progressions in the left display of Fig. 12 have maxima and minima, which suggests that the corresponding term value diagram in Fig. 5 must contain clusters of Types B and C in all three components of the  $v_2/v_4$  dyad. However, the term value diagram is so dense in this region that the different cluster types cannot be distinguished with certainty.

The interpretation of the  $v_1/v_3$  displays in Fig. 12 is rather straightforward after we have learned how to analyze semi-classical energy distributions. Already at low  $J$ ,

the upper component of the  $v_1/v_3$  system develops a one-maximum distribution, indicative of sixfold (Type B) cluster formation. The resulting clusters are shown in Fig. 5. The lower component is featureless at  $J = 20$ , but by  $J = 40$  it exhibits a pronounced maximum (so that Type B clusters are formed) and a shallow minimum (so that Type C clusters are formed). The  $v_1/v_3$  display for  $J = 60$  shows two very similar profiles, each one resembling that in Fig. 8.

The semi-classical analogues of RES’s shown in Fig. 12 provide sketchy outlines of the classical RES’s for the vibrationally excited states considered. At very high  $J$  values, when the clusters form, the RES’s for excited states are similar to the RES of the ground vibration state, in terms of the characteristic stationary points. Obviously, the vibrational excitations are accompanied by interactions between energetically close-lying RES’s.

## 6. Summary and conclusion

Nowadays, energy clustering in  $\text{XH}_N$  molecules is a well-established and well-studied phenomenon. However, as mentioned above, the work has focused almost exclusively on asymmetric tops  $\text{XH}_2$  and spherical tops  $\text{XH}_4$ . There has been little information available on the symmetric tops  $\text{XH}_3$ . In our recent theoretical work on  $\text{PH}_3$  [1,2] we have tried to remedy this situation. In Ref. [1], we predicted the formation of sixfold near-degenerate energy clusters in the vibrational ground state of  $\text{PH}_3$ , and in Ref. [2] we calculated the line strengths of the transitions involving the cluster states. In the present work, we have extended the characterization of the cluster formation to the molecules  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$ . These molecules are closer to the local-mode limit [10,11] than  $\text{PH}_3$  and so the energy clusters form at lower  $J$ -values than in  $\text{PH}_3$ ; this means that the calculation of the corresponding energies and wavefunctions require less computational effort than the  $\text{PH}_3$  calculations. In consequence, while for  $\text{PH}_3$  [1,2] we have described the rotational energy level structure in the vibrational ground state only, for  $\text{BiH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$  we have been able to analyze the cluster formation also in excited vibrational states.

The mechanism causing the energy cluster formation in  $\text{XH}_3$  molecules is in principle the same, or at least very similar to that responsible for the clustering of energies in  $\text{XH}_2$  and  $\text{XH}_4$  molecules. Thus, the sixfold energy clusters in  $\text{PH}_3$  and  $\text{SbH}_3$  come about by a bifurcation effect at a critical  $J$  value, just as the fourfold clusters in  $\text{XH}_2$  molecules. For  $\text{BiH}_3$ , the bifurcation is present for all  $J > 0$ . For all  $\text{XH}_3$  molecules considered, the bifurcation process is accompanied by a centrifugal-force-induced dynamical symmetry breaking; analogous effects are found for  $\text{XH}_2$  and  $\text{XH}_4$  systems. In the case of the quasi-spherical top  $\text{BiH}_3$ , we have characterized a ‘new’ type of sixfold clusters, called Type C here, which are related to a so-called imperfect bifurcation. A similar phenomenon has been described in connection with symmetry breaking in quasi-spherical top  $\text{XY}_4$  molecules [31].

We have employed a new, semi-classical technique to construct the RES for vibrationally excited states: The  $K_{lc}$ -values and the rotational term values obtained in the quantum-mechanical calculations are used in conjunction with the inherently classical Eq. (20). In obtaining the classical RES for the vibrational ground state, we also use a new approach in that we optimize the geometry (by minimizing the energy) at each considered direction of the classical angular momentum (given by  $\theta_m$  and  $\phi_m$ ).

An important aim of the present paper, and of Refs. [1,2], is to inspire spectroscopic experiments with the purpose of observing cluster states in symmetric tops  $XH_3$ . That is, we are hoping for a repetition of the  $XH_2$  ‘story’ where the so-called Type I clusters [9] were experimentally observed by Kozin et al. [33] in  $H_2Se$  after having been predicted theoretically by Zhilinskiĭ and Pavlichenkov [34], and the Type II clusters [9] were observed in  $H_2Se$  by Flaud et al. [35] after having been independently predicted by Lehmann [36,37] and by Kozin and Jensen [27]. It seems to us that the most promising way of characterizing experimentally the cluster levels in the vibrational ground states of  $XH_3$  molecules is to observe the so-called intra-cluster transitions [2]; these transitions take place between states within the same cluster. As  $J$  increases, the corresponding transition wavenumbers move through the THz, mm-wave, and microwave regions where ultra-high-resolution and ultra-high-sensitivity spectroscopy is possible. We are well aware, however, of the substantial challenges associated with experiments of this type on the  $XH_3$  molecules that we have investigated theoretically. The transitions involving the cluster states are very weak as they start in highly excited rotational states. Furthermore,  $PH_3$  is poisonous and  $BiH_3$  rapidly decomposes at temperatures above  $-40^\circ C$  [38]. Even though our calculations indicate that in  $BiH_3$ , the clusters form at lower  $J$  values than in  $PH_3$  and  $SbH_3$ , so that  $BiH_3$  would seem to be the most promising candidate for the observation of cluster transitions, its instability precludes a heating of the sample which could help populate the initial states of the intra-cluster transitions. Also, the synthesis of  $BiH_3$  is difficult [13,38]. It remains to be seen whether these obstacles can be overcome in future experimental studies.

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