

# Nonresonant Raman spectra of the methyl radical $^{12}\text{CH}_3$ simulated in variational calculations

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## ABSTRACT

We report first-principles variational simulation of the non-resonant Raman spectrum for the methyl radical ( $^{12}\text{CH}_3$ ) in the electronic ground state. Calculations are based on a high level *ab initio* potential energy and dipole moment surfaces of  $\text{CH}_3$  and employ the accurate variational treatment of the ro-vibrational dynamics implemented in the general code TROVE [S. N. Yurchenko, W. Thiel, and P. Jensen, *J. Mol. Spectrosc.* 245, 126–140 (2007); A. Yachmenev and S. N. Yurchenko, *J. Chem. Phys.* 143, 014105 (2015)]. TROVE can be applied to arbitrary molecules of moderate size and we extend here its capabilities towards simulations of Raman spectra. The simulations for  $\text{CH}_3$  are found to be in a good agreement with the available experimental data.

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## 1. Introduction

In a recent publication [1] we reported the computation, by variational methods, of a so-called line list, i.e., a catalogue of absorption lines, valid up to temperatures of 1500 K for the methyl radical  $\text{CH}_3$  in the electronic ground state. The computations were based on high level *ab initio* potential energy and dipole moment surfaces. In addition, we have previously studied theoretically the hyperfine coupling constant (HFCC) of  $\text{CH}_3$  isotopologues [2], confirming previous results that for this radical, vibrational motion must be considered in order that accurate HFCC values be obtained.

As explained in Ref. [1] (to which the reader is referred for details and references), the methyl radical is important in combustion processes and as an intermediate in many chemical reactions of industrial and/or environmental interest. Also, it has been observed in interstellar space and in planetary atmospheres.

Experimental observations of  $\text{CH}_3$  are most often done in absorption or emission. Owing to the importance of  $\text{CH}_3$  in diverse areas it is of interest to use observed spectra to determine its concentrations or column densities in remote environments such as interstellar space. For obtaining concentrations or column densities from observed intensities, however, the transition moments

of the observed transitions must be known (see, for example, Ref. [3]). In order to measure the transition moments in the laboratory, one must prepare a sample of molecules at a known concentration. This is in itself difficult in the case of unstable, short-lived molecules such as  $\text{CH}_3$  (and it is also difficult to reach concentrations large enough for detection), and so the concentration determinations often rely on theoretical predictions of the transition moments [4,5]. The ExoMol project by Yurchenko, Tennyson and co-workers [6,7] aims at providing theoretically computed transition moments and simulated spectra for (small to medium-sized) general polyatomic molecules of astrophysical and/or -chemical interest.

The remote-sensing tools used for probing environments such as interstellar space, atmospheres of the Earth and exoplanets, the outer layers of cool stars, etc., are absorption or emission spectra with intensities generated by the molecular electric dipole moment operator. Thus, work aimed at facilitating the interpretation of remote-sensing spectra, such as that carried out in the ExoMol project [6,7], is focused on absorption and emission spectroscopy. However, the corresponding molecular transitions are subject to fairly restrictive selection rules (see, for example, Chapter 14 of Ref. [8]). To obtain spectra with a larger selection of transitions, one can change the experimental method. Raman spectroscopy (see, for example, Section 14.3 of Ref. [8]) is an example of a spectroscopic technique with selection rules less restrictive than those of absorption and emission spectroscopy [9]. It is

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illusory, however, to imagine the observation of remote-sensing Raman spectra of, say, interstellar space; the Raman spectra are much too weak for that. The theoretical prediction of transition probabilities for Raman transitions, analogous to the theoretical calculations of transition moments for absorption and emission, assists the determination of molecular concentrations from Raman spectra recorded in the laboratory. An example of astrophysically interesting molecules being characterized by Raman spectra is the recent work on dimethyl ether by Fernández et al. [10].

The development of electronic-structure and nuclear-motion methods for computing Raman intensities is an active area of research, not only for gas phase spectra [11], but also for investigating new phenomena like hyper-Raman scattering [12,13], characterizing new crystalline materials [14] and understanding surface-enhanced Raman scattering [15].

In 1928, the Raman effect was discovered in liquids by Raman and his student Krishnan [16] and, independently, in crystals by Landsberg and Mandelstam [17]. The effect had been predicted theoretically by Smekal in 1923 [18]. A more recent development of ‘standard’ Raman spectroscopy (also called *nonresonant Raman spectroscopy*) is the *resonance Raman* (RR) technique [19–23]. An RR experiment makes use of a frequency-tunable laser for producing the incident radiation, whose frequency is selected to coincide with an electronic transition of the molecule. This leads to a dramatic increase of the Raman intensity and a corresponding decrease in the molecular concentrations detectable in Raman experiments. Another advantage of RR experiments is that it is possible to select to enhance the intensity of transitions to a particular vibrational level of the molecule.

The existing computational procedures for simulating nonresonant Raman spectra, in particular those implemented in electronic-structure (*ab initio*) programs, neglect rotational motion and treat the vibronic motion in the so-called double-harmonic approximation. In this approximation, the potential energy function is harmonic, i.e., it is represented as a second-order Taylor expansion in the vibrational coordinates, and the analogous expansions of the polarizability tensor elements are truncated after the linear terms. Present-day simulations of absorption and emission spectra, however, are made in an approximation highly superior to the double-harmonic one, taking into account rotation and employing ‘fully coupled’, variationally determined rovibronic wavefunctions, and the corresponding rovibronic energies, for computing the spectra. For example, in much of the absorption/emission simulation work carried out within the ExoMol project, high-level, variationally computed rovibronic wavefunctions from the TROVE [24,25] program are used. In the present work, we develop a theoretical approach to simulate nonresonant Raman spectra in terms of rovibronic wavefunctions from TROVE [24,25]. With the resulting computational procedure, we are able to simulate nonresonant Raman spectra in the same high-level approximation currently routinely employed for absorption and emission spectra. Developments of the traditional, nonresonant Raman-spectroscopy technique, such as the resonance Raman [19–23] and hyper-Raman scattering [12,13] techniques mentioned above, together with coherent anti-Stokes Raman (CARS) spectroscopy [26], and coherent Raman photofragment spectroscopy [27], have higher sensitivity than the traditional Raman method, and the present work can be seen as a first step towards the development of theoretical methods to simulate the corresponding spectra.

We have employed the newly developed theoretical approach for simulating the nonresonant Raman spectrum of CH<sub>3</sub>. For this radical, the three fundamental bands  $\nu_1$ ,  $\nu_3$ , and  $\nu_4$  are observable by Raman spectroscopy;  $\nu_1$  is only observable as Raman transition, whereas  $\nu_3$  and  $\nu_4$  are also observable in absorption and emission. The calculations of the present work are based on high-level *ab initio* potential energy and polarizability surfaces.

## 2. Theory and computational details

### 2.1. Potential energy surface

For this work we employ a high level *ab initio* potential energy surface (PES) of CH<sub>3</sub> from Ref. [2], computed using the partially spin-restricted open-shell explicitly correlated coupled cluster theory RCCSD(T)-F12b [28] in conjunction with the F12-optimized correlation consistent valence basis set cc-pVQZ-F12 [29]. The PES is represented by a Taylor series expansion around equilibrium geometry in terms of the symmetry-adapted combinations of valence bond coordinates [30].

### 2.2. Polarizability surfaces

The electronically averaged polarizability surfaces for CH<sub>3</sub> were computed using the MOLPRO [31] program package. Frozen-core calculations were carried out for 19361 symmetry-unique geometries using the spin-restricted open-shell coupled cluster theory RCCSD(T) [32] and the augmented correlation consistent valence basis set aug-cc-pVTZ [33,34], employing the three-point stencil finite difference formula for the second derivative with the electric field strength of 0.002 a.u.

To represent the electronically averaged polarizability surfaces analytically, we use a representation analogous to the so-called symmetry-adapted molecular bond (SMB) representation described for the dipole moment in Ref. [35]. For a molecule with  $D_{3h}(M)$  (see Table A-10 of Ref. [8]) symmetry, the SMB dipole moment is described in terms of symmetrized projections of the dipole moment vector onto the normalized molecular bond vectors

$$\mathbf{e}_j = \frac{\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{r}_4}{|\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{r}_4|}, \quad j = 1, 2, 3, \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{r}_j$  is the position vector of proton  $j$  in the molecule-fixed axis system  $xyz$ , and  $\mathbf{r}_4$  is the position vector of the C nucleus. The vectors  $\mathbf{e}_j$  are understood as row ( $1 \times 3$ ) matrices.

For the components of the polarizability tensor, we introduce analogous, analytical SMB functions by following the procedure presented in Refs. [35–38]. The polarizability tensor for a molecule with  $D_{3h}(M)$  symmetry spans the reducible representation  $2A_1' \oplus E' \oplus E''$  and functions generating the individual irreducible representations are given as

$$\bar{\alpha}_{A_1'}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(\bar{\alpha}_{11} + \bar{\alpha}_{22} + \bar{\alpha}_{33}), \quad (2)$$

$$\bar{\alpha}_{E_a'}^{(2a)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(\bar{\alpha}_{12} - \bar{\alpha}_{13} - \bar{\alpha}_{23}), \quad (3)$$

$$\bar{\alpha}_{E_b'}^{(2b)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\bar{\alpha}_{13} - \bar{\alpha}_{23}), \quad (4)$$

$$\bar{\alpha}_{A_1'}^{(3)} = \bar{\alpha}_{44}, \quad (5)$$

$$\bar{\alpha}_{E_a''}^{(4a)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(2\bar{\alpha}_{14} - \bar{\alpha}_{24} - \bar{\alpha}_{34}), \quad (6)$$

$$\bar{\alpha}_{E_b''}^{(4b)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\bar{\alpha}_{24} - \bar{\alpha}_{34}), \quad (7)$$

where

$$\bar{\alpha}_{ij} = \mathbf{e}_i \cdot (\bar{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \mathbf{e}_j^T), \quad i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4 \quad (8)$$

(with a superscript T denoting transposition) are projections of the  $3 \times 3$  electronically averaged polarizability tensor  $\bar{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}$  onto the molecular bond vectors  $\mathbf{e}_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, 3$ , and a normalized ‘‘threefold symmetry axis vector’’ obtained as the ‘‘trisector’’ [38]

$$\mathbf{e}_4 = \frac{\mathbf{q}_N}{|\mathbf{q}_N|} \quad (9)$$

with

$$\mathbf{q}_N = (\mathbf{e}_1 \times \mathbf{e}_2) + (\mathbf{e}_2 \times \mathbf{e}_3) + (\mathbf{e}_3 \times \mathbf{e}_1). \quad (10)$$

Since the  $E_a$  and  $E_b$  components of an  $E$  pair are connected by a rotation, a total of four symmetry-adapted functions  $\bar{\alpha}_{A_1}^{(1)}$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_{E_a}^{(2a)}$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_{A_1}^{(3)}$  and  $\bar{\alpha}_{E_a}^{(4a)}$  are required to describe the electronically averaged polarizability tensor of  $\text{CH}_3$ . These four functions are represented by polynomial expansions

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\alpha}_\Gamma^{(k)}(\chi_1, \chi_2, \chi_3, \chi_{4a}, \chi_{4b}; \rho) &= \alpha_0^{(\Gamma,k)}(\rho) + \sum_i \alpha_i^{(\Gamma,k)}(\rho) \chi_i \\ &+ \sum_{i < j} \alpha_{ij}^{(\Gamma,k)}(\rho) \chi_i \chi_j + \sum_{i < j < k} \alpha_{ijk}^{(\Gamma,k)}(\rho) \chi_i \chi_j \chi_k \\ &+ \sum_{i < j < k < l} \alpha_{ijkl}^{(\Gamma,k)}(\rho) \chi_i \chi_j \chi_k \chi_l, \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

in terms of the coordinates

$$\chi_k = \Delta r_k \exp[-(\Delta r_k)^2], \quad (k = 1, 2, 3), \quad (12)$$

$$\chi_4 = (2\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 - \alpha_3)/\sqrt{6}, \quad (13)$$

$$\chi_5 = (\alpha_2 - \alpha_3)/\sqrt{2}, \quad (14)$$

where  $r_k$  denotes the C–H<sub>k</sub> bond length and  $\alpha_1$ ,  $\alpha_2$ , and  $\alpha_3$  are three inter-bond angles  $\angle(\text{H}_2\text{--C--H}_3)$ ,  $\angle(\text{H}_1\text{--C--H}_3)$ , and  $\angle(\text{H}_1\text{--C--H}_2)$ , respectively. The expansion coefficients  $\alpha_{ij\dots}^{(\Gamma,k)}(\rho)$  are polynomials of the out-of-plane vibrational coordinate  $\rho$  (with the equilibrium value of  $90^\circ$ )

$$\alpha_{ij\dots}^{(\Gamma,k)}(\rho) = \sum_{s=0}^N \alpha_{ij\dots}^{\Gamma(k,s)} (1 - \sin \rho)^s, \quad (15)$$

where the maximal order of the polynomial is  $N = 6$ .

The expansion coefficients were determined in least-squares fittings to the 19361 *ab initio* data points with root-mean-square deviations of 0.003 a.u. for all four components. The polarizability surface is given as [supplementary data](#) to this paper in the form of a Fortran 90 program and can be also accessed at [www.zenodo.org](http://www.zenodo.org), see Ref. [39].

### 2.3. Raman transitions

In the Placzek approximation [40], non-resonant Raman transition probabilities for a freely rotating molecule are obtained in terms of transition matrix elements of the polarizability tensor between the ro-vibrational wave functions of the initial and final transition states [8]. The Raman intensity for a gas-phase molecule in thermal equilibrium at the absolute temperature  $T$  can be expressed as the differential scattering cross section

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \frac{d\sigma_k}{d\Omega}(\nu_0) \right]_{\text{Stokes}} &= \left( \frac{\pi}{\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \times (\nu_0 - \nu_k)^4 \times \frac{\exp(-E''/kT)}{Q_v} \\ &\times \sum_{FF'} |\langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\alpha}_{FF'} | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle|^2. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

Here,  $F$  and  $F' (= X, Y, Z)$  signify axes of the space-fixed axis system [8],  $\epsilon_0$  is the vacuum permittivity,  $\nu_0$  is the frequency of the incident laser beam,  $\nu_k$  is the frequency of the Raman-scattered radiation,  $Q_v$  is the vibrational partition function,  $\langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\alpha}_{FF'} | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle$  is a transition matrix element of the electronically averaged polarizability tensor component  $\bar{\alpha}_{FF'}$  between the two rovibrational wavefunctions  $\Phi''_{\text{rv}}$  and  $\Phi'_{\text{rv}}$  of the initial and final states, respectively. Further,  $E''$  is the energy of the initial state,  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant, and  $\Omega$  is the solid angle within which the Raman-scattered light is detected.

It is well known that for absorption and emission, the ‘readiness’ of the molecule to undertake a transition from the initial state

$i$  (with ro-vibrational wavefunction  $\Phi''_{\text{rv}}$ ) to the final state  $f$  (with ro-vibrational wavefunction  $\Phi'_{\text{rv}}$ ) is governed by the *line strength* [8,41,42]

$$S(f \leftarrow i) = g_{\text{ns}} \sum_{m', m''} \sum_{F=X,Y,Z} |\langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\mu}_F | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle|^2,$$

where  $g_{\text{ns}}$  is the nuclear spin statistical weight factor [8,42] and  $\bar{\mu}_F$  is the electronically averaged component of the molecular dipole moment along the space-fixed axis  $F = X, Y$ , or  $Z$ . The quantum numbers  $m'$  and  $m''$  are the projections of the total angular momentum, in units of  $\hbar$ , on the  $Z$  axis in the initial and final states, respectively.

In the expression for the line strength Eq. (17) we sum the squares of the  $\bar{\mu}_F$  matrix elements over all degeneracies of the initial and final states. Similarly, we sum the matrix element square in Eq. (16) to obtain a quantity measuring the readiness of the molecule to carry out a (nonresonant) Raman transition from state  $i$  to state  $f$

$$\mathcal{R}(f \leftarrow i) = g_{\text{ns}} \sum_{m', m''} \sum_{F=X,Y,Z} \sum_{F'=X,Y,Z} |\langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\alpha}_{FF'} | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle|^2. \quad (18)$$

Eq. (18) is converted to a form useful for the simulation of Raman spectra in a procedure very similar to that used for the line strength in Refs. [8,35,41,42] (see also Refs. [9,43,44]). The first step in this procedure is to transform the space-fixed polarizability components  $\bar{\alpha}_{FF'}$  to irreducible tensor [44] form

$$\bar{\alpha}_0^{(0,s)} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} [\bar{\alpha}_{XX} + \bar{\alpha}_{YY} + \bar{\alpha}_{ZZ}], \quad (19)$$

$$\bar{\alpha}_0^{(2,s)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} [2\bar{\alpha}_{ZZ} - \bar{\alpha}_{XX} - \bar{\alpha}_{YY}], \quad (20)$$

$$\bar{\alpha}_{\pm 1}^{(2,s)} = \frac{1}{2} [\mp(\bar{\alpha}_{XZ} + \bar{\alpha}_{ZX}) - i(\bar{\alpha}_{YZ} + \bar{\alpha}_{ZY})], \quad (21)$$

$$\bar{\alpha}_{\pm 2}^{(2,s)} = \frac{1}{2} [\bar{\alpha}_{XX} - \bar{\alpha}_{YY} \pm i(\bar{\alpha}_{XY} + \bar{\alpha}_{YX})]. \quad (22)$$

The molecule-fixed irreducible tensor components  $\bar{\alpha}_{\sigma'}^{(\omega,m)}$  [ $\omega = 0$  or  $2$ ;  $\sigma' = -\omega, -\omega + 1, \dots, \omega$ ], defined in terms of the molecule-fixed axes  $xyz$ , are given by expressions obtained from Eqs. (19)–(22) by replacing  $(X, Y, Z)$  by  $(x, y, z)$ . The space-fixed  $\bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}^{(\omega,s)}$  components are related to their molecule-fixed counterparts  $\bar{\alpha}_{\sigma'}^{(\omega,m)}$  as [8,44]

$$\bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}^{(\omega,s)} = \sum_{\sigma'=-\omega}^{\omega} \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma'}^{(\omega,m)} D_{\sigma',\sigma}^{(\omega)*}(\theta, \phi, \chi) \quad (23)$$

where  $D_{\sigma',\sigma}^{(\omega)}(\theta, \phi, \chi)$  is an element of a Wigner rotation matrix [44] and  $(\theta, \phi, \chi)$  are the standard Euler angles [8,42,44] defining the orientation of the molecule-fixed axes  $xyz$  axes relative to the space-fixed axes  $XYZ$  axes.

In the TROVE approach [24,25], the wavefunctions  $\Phi''_{\text{rv}}$  and  $\Phi'_{\text{rv}}$  are expressed as linear combinations of basis functions, i.e.,

$$|\Phi''_{\text{rv}}\rangle = \sum_{V''K''m''\tau''_{\text{rot}}} C''_{V''K''m''\tau''_{\text{rot}}} |J''K''m''\tau''_{\text{rot}}\rangle |V''\rangle \quad (24)$$

with an analogous expression for  $\Phi'_{\text{rv}}$ . In Eq. (24), the  $C''_{V''K''m''\tau''_{\text{rot}}}$  are expansion coefficients,  $|J''K''m''\tau''_{\text{rot}}\rangle$  is a symmetrized rotational basis function,  $\tau''_{\text{rot}}$  ( $=0$  or  $1$ ) determines the rotational parity as  $(-1)^{\tau''_{\text{rot}}}$ , and  $|V''\rangle$  is a vibrational basis function. The TROVE basis functions  $|J''K''m''\tau''_{\text{rot}}\rangle |V''\rangle$  are explained in detail in Refs. [24,25,45].

In order to compute values of  $\mathcal{R}(f \leftarrow i)$  in Eq. (18) we require the matrix elements  $\langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\alpha}_{FF'} | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle$ . We can express these in terms of the irreducible-tensor matrix elements  $\langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}^{(\omega,s)} | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle$  by means of Eqs. (19)–(22). We further obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}^{(\omega,s)} | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle &= \sum_{V'K'\tau'_{\text{rot}}} \sum_{V''K''\tau''_{\text{rot}}} \left( C_{V'K'\tau'_{\text{rot}}} \right)^* C''_{V''K''\tau''_{\text{rot}}} \\ &\times \sum_{\sigma=-\omega}^{\omega} \langle J'K'm'\tau'_{\text{rot}} | D_{\sigma,\sigma}^{(\omega)*}(\theta, \phi, \chi) | J''K''m''\tau''_{\text{rot}} \rangle \\ &\times \langle V' | \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}^{(\omega,m)} | V'' \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

by inserting Eqs. (23) and (24) (and the analogous expression for  $\Phi'_{\text{rv}}$ ) in the expression for  $\langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}^{(\omega,s)} | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle$ , and making use of the fact that  $|J'K'm'\tau'_{\text{rot}}\rangle, D_{\sigma,\sigma}^{(\omega)*}$  and  $|J''K''m''\tau''_{\text{rot}}\rangle$  depend solely on the Euler angles  $(\theta, \phi, \chi)$ , whereas  $|V'\rangle, \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}^{(\omega,m)}$ , and  $|V''\rangle$  depend on the vibrational coordinates only.

Eq. (25) is finally inserted in the expression for  $\mathcal{R}(f \leftarrow i)$  [Eq. (18)] with the Euler-angle-dependent matrix element  $\langle J'K'm'\tau'_{\text{rot}} | D_{\sigma,\sigma}^{(\omega)*}(\theta, \phi, \chi) | J''K''m''\tau''_{\text{rot}} \rangle$  obtained analytically from Eq. (14–23) of Ref. [8], and the summations over  $m'$  and  $m''$  carried out analytically by means of Eq. (14–32) of Ref. [8]. In this manner, we determine a detailed expression for  $\mathcal{R}(f \leftarrow i)$  that is highly analogous to the expression for  $S(f \leftarrow i)$  given, for example, in Eq. (21) of Ref. [41].

Whereas the expression for the absorption and emission line strength in Eq. (17) is obtained in terms of irreducible tensor elements with  $\omega = 1$  only, that is with one  $\omega$ -value, the expression for  $\mathcal{R}(f \leftarrow i)$  involves two  $\omega$ -values,  $\omega = 0$  and 2. We denote the corresponding contributions to  $\mathcal{R}(f \leftarrow i)$  as  $\mathcal{R}_0(f \leftarrow i)$  and  $\mathcal{R}_2(f \leftarrow i)$ , respectively, by analogy to the quantities  $R_0(f \leftarrow i)$  and  $R_2(f \leftarrow i)$  defined in Eqs. (14–132) and (14–133) of Ref. [8]. In conventional Raman-spectroscopy parlance,  $\mathcal{R}_0(f \leftarrow i)$  accounts for the intensity resulting from *isotropic* Raman scattering, while  $\mathcal{R}_2(f \leftarrow i)$  is the contribution from *anisotropic* Raman scattering.

The quantities  $\mathcal{R}_0(f \leftarrow i)$  and  $\mathcal{R}_2(f \leftarrow i)$  depend on the vibrational matrix elements  $\langle V' | \bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}^{(\omega,m)} | V'' \rangle$ . These are calculated by first expressing the molecule-fixed irreducible tensor operator  $\bar{\alpha}_{\sigma}^{(\omega,m)}$  in terms of Cartesian components  $\bar{\alpha}_{\alpha\beta}$  ( $\alpha, \beta = x, y, z$ ), see Eqs. (19)–(22) where the  $X, Y$ , and  $Z$  are replaced by  $x, y$ , and  $z$ . The functions  $\bar{\alpha}_{\alpha\beta}$  are obtained in the electronic structure calculations and represented by polynomials of internal molecular coordinates, as explained above in the Section 2.2, and the vibrational matrix elements are calculated similarly to those of the vibrational Hamiltonian and the dipole moment.

The contributions to  $\mathcal{R}(f \leftarrow i)$  from  $\mathcal{R}_0(f \leftarrow i)$  and  $\mathcal{R}_2(f \leftarrow i)$  depend on the experimental set-up (see, for example, Eqs. (14–134) and (14–135) of Ref. [8]). We consider here the case of perpendicular Raman scattering assuming the laser light is polarized in the  $Y$  direction and the exciting laser beam is propagating in the  $X$  direction. In this situation, the differential Raman scattering cross section for a rovibrational transition is

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \frac{d\sigma_k}{d\Omega}(V_0) \right]_{\text{Stokes}} &= \left( \frac{\pi}{\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \times (V_0 - V_k)^4 \times \frac{\exp(-E''/kT)}{Q_v} \\ &\times \left[ |\langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\alpha}_{\text{YY}} | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle|^2 + |\langle \Phi'_{\text{rv}} | \bar{\alpha}_{\text{YX}} | \Phi''_{\text{rv}} \rangle|^2 \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

It can be shown that in terms of  $\mathcal{R}_0(f \leftarrow i)$  and  $\mathcal{R}_2(f \leftarrow i)$ , Eq. (26) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \frac{d\sigma_k}{d\Omega}(V_0) \right]_{\text{Stokes}} &= \left( \frac{\pi}{\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \times (V_0 - V_k)^4 \times \frac{\exp(-E''/kT)}{Q_v} \\ &\times \frac{1}{30} (10 \mathcal{R}_0(f \leftarrow i) + 7 \mathcal{R}_2(f \leftarrow i)). \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

Our complete Raman line list for  $\text{CH}_3$  can be accessed via the Zenodo repository [www.zenodo.org](http://www.zenodo.org), see Ref. [39].

### 3. Results, summary, and discussion

#### 3.1. Results

The methyl radical has four vibrational normal modes: the symmetric stretch,  $\nu_1(A'_1)$ , the out-of-plane bending,  $\nu_2(A''_2)$ , the degenerate asymmetric stretch,  $\nu_3(E')$ , and the degenerate in-plane bending,  $\nu_4(E')$ . For each normal mode, we give in parentheses its symmetry in the molecular symmetry group  $D_{3h}(M)$  (see Table A-10 of Ref. [8]). The fundamental band associated with the  $\nu_1$  mode, of  $A'_1$  symmetry, is detectable as Raman transition only; it is forbidden in absorption and emission. The  $\nu_2$  fundamental transition is neither infrared nor Raman active. The fundamental transitions involving the  $E'$ -symmetry modes  $\nu_3$  and  $\nu_4$  are allowed both as IR and Raman transitions. We study here the symmetric C-H stretch mode,  $\nu_1(A'_1)$ , of  $\text{CH}_3$  in the electronic ground state. The experimental value of the  $\nu_1$ -band origin has been determined as  $3002.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  from resonance-Raman spectra [46] and as  $3004.8$  and  $3004.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively, in two CARS experiments [26,27]. Further CARS studies [47,48] have produced similar values. From harmonic force-field analysis an estimation of  $3044 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  has been reported [49] for the  $\nu_1$  fundamental term value; this value is corrected to  $2992.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  when anharmonic corrections are taken into account [50]. Several calculations of the  $\nu_1$  term value have been reported using *ab initio* methods [51–54] and methods considering vibrational nuclear motion only [55,56]. The best prediction was  $3002.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  from a vibrational many-body method, the vibrational configuration interaction (VCI) method [54]. Our computational work has produced [1] a value of  $3002.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . In Table 1, we compare the available, experimentally derived term values for  $^{12}\text{CH}_3$  with the calculated values from Ref. [1]; the calculations of the present work involve the same calculated values. It is seen that our calculations reproduce the experimental results to better than 1%. Predicted term values for other vibrational states are given in Table 1 of Ref. [1].

To simulate the nonresonant Raman spectrum for the methyl radical, we have computed the differential Raman scattering cross sections [Eq. (26)] for the  $\text{CH}_3$  Raman transitions between 0 and  $6000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  allowed by the selection rules given in Section 14.3 of Ref. [8]:  $|J' - J''| \leq \omega, J' + J'' \geq \omega$ , and  $\Gamma'_{\text{rv}} = \Gamma''_{\text{rv}}$ , where  $\Gamma'_{\text{rv}}$  and  $\Gamma''_{\text{rv}}$  are the molecular-symmetry-group symmetries of the initial and final states, respectively. The top display of Fig. 1 presents an overview of the computed Raman spectrum as cross-sections (in units of  $\text{m}^2/\text{sr}$ ) of  $\text{CH}_3$  at room temperature. In the figure, this spectrum is compared to the experimental resonance Raman spectrum<sup>1</sup> from Ref. [46]. Fig. 2 shows a similar comparison to the CARS spectrum of the  $\nu_1$  Q branch<sup>2</sup> from Ref. [26]. In this figure we show the individual contributions from  $\mathcal{R}_0$  and  $\mathcal{R}_2$  from Eq. (27), before averaging with the Placzek coefficients 10/30 and 7/10. Consistently with the band center theory-experimental deviation in Table 1, the theoretical spectrum is shifted by about  $1.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  relative to the experimental one.

#### 3.2. Summary and discussion

In the present work, we have extended the TROVE [24,25] program so as to allow the simulation of nonresonant Raman spectra. The corresponding simulations take into account the complete

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**Table 1**  
Comparison of experimental and theoretical term values ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) for selected  $^{12}\text{CH}_3$  levels.

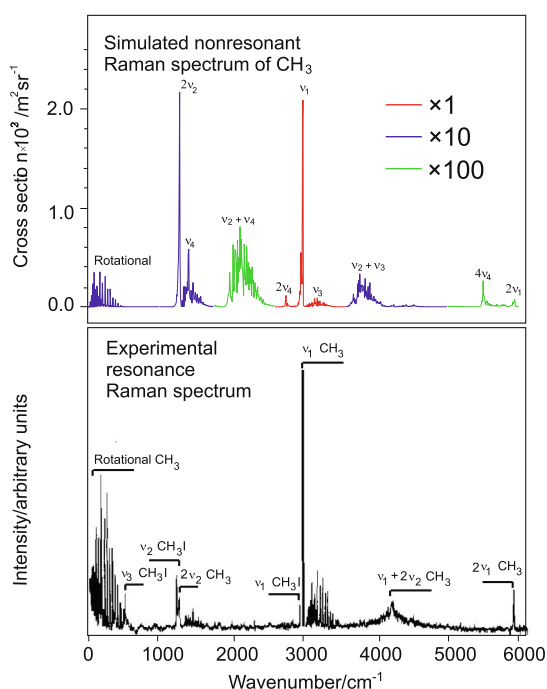
State	$\Gamma^a$	Obs. <sup>b</sup>	Ref. <sup>c</sup>	Calc. <sup>d</sup>
$\nu_1$	$A'_1$	3004.42	[27]	3002.76
$\nu_2$	$A''_2$	606.45	[57]	602.43
$2\nu_2$	$A'_1$	1288.1	[57]	1281.24
$\nu_3$	$E'$	3160.8	[58]	3158.83
$\nu_4$	$E'$	1397.0	[59]	1387.26

<sup>a</sup>  $D_{3h}(M)$  symmetry of the vibrational state.

<sup>b</sup> Experimental term value.

<sup>c</sup> Reference for experimental term value.

<sup>d</sup> Variationally computed value from Ref. [1]; TROVE calculation with basis set  $P_{\text{max}} = 32$  [1].

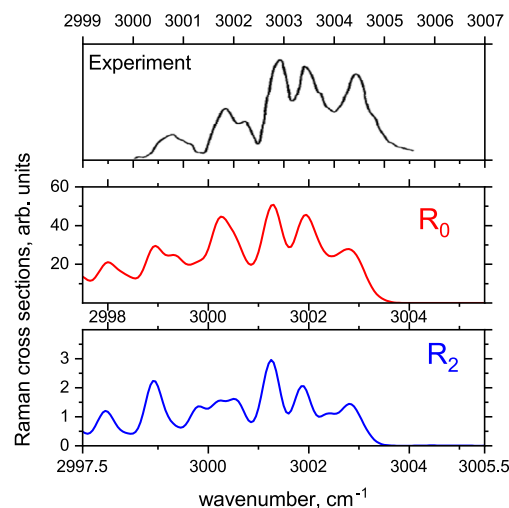


**Fig. 1.** A comparison between the simulated nonresonant (at  $T = 300\text{ K}$ ) and an observed resonance Raman spectrum of  $\text{CH}_3$  (see text). In the simulated nonresonant Raman spectrum of  $\text{CH}_3$  (top display), the ordinate is multiplied by 1, 10, and 100, respectively, in the red, blue, and green parts of the curve. The assignments of the bands given are those suggested by analysis of the TROVE wavefunctions. The experimental resonance Raman spectrum (bottom display) contains transitions of  $\text{CH}_3$  and  $\text{CH}_3^+$ ; it is reproduced from Fig. 1 of Ref. [46] by permission from Elsevier. The assignments of the bands given are from Ref. [46]. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

rovibrational nuclear motion, using the fully-coupled TROVE [24,25] rovibrational wavefunctions. We have applied the new program module for simulating the nonresonant Raman spectrum of the methyl radical  $\text{CH}_3$ ; the simulations are based on potential energy and polarizability surfaces calculated *ab initio* for the electronic ground state of  $\text{CH}_3$  with the MOLPRO [31] program package at the ROHF-RCCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ level of theory.

Fig. 1 includes the nonresonant Raman spectrum simulated in the present work. Comparing the simulated spectrum to an experimental counterpart is not currently possible because to the best of our knowledge, no such spectrum is available in the literature. However, a resonance Raman spectrum of  $\text{CH}_3$  has been published [46] and we include also this spectrum in Fig. 1 with the band assignments from Ref. [46].

The difference between nonresonant Raman spectra and their RR counterparts is explained above; in the RR case the intensities



**Fig. 2.** A comparison between the simulated nonresonant Raman spectrum (at  $T = 300\text{ K}$ ) and an observed CARS spectrum of the  $\nu_1$  band Q branch of  $\text{CH}_3$  (top display). It is reproduced from Fig. 1 of Ref. [26] by permission from AIP Publishing. We show the simulated, individual contributions from  $\mathcal{R}_0$  and  $\mathcal{R}_2$ , before applying the Placzek coefficients of 10/30 and 7/10. The simulated spectra were convolved with a Gaussian line profile with a half-width-at-half-maximum of  $0.2\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Note that the theoretical spectra are shifted by about  $1.5\text{ cm}^{-1}$  relative to the experimental CARS spectrum to account for the obs-calc difference for the  $\nu_1$  band center (Table 1).

of some Raman transitions are greatly enhanced. The comparison of the simulated non-resonant Raman spectrum to the published RR one [46] is, of course, somewhat problematic. However, both spectra contain the same Raman transitions, just with different (absolute and relative) intensities. So we recognize that the strongest vibrational Raman transition, the  $\nu_1$  fundamental band observed experimentally at  $3004.4\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , is clearly present in both spectra. So is the first overtone band  $2\nu_2$  (predicted at  $1288.09\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). For the  $\nu_1$  and  $2\nu_2$  bands, rotational structure is recognizable in both experimental and simulated spectra. Similarly, the nonresonant Raman spectrum contains the same transitions as the CARS one, and we see in Fig. 2 that our simulation of the linear, nonresonant Raman spectrum of the Q branch in the  $\nu_1$  band of  $\text{CH}_3$  reproduces rather well the salient features of the experimental, nonlinear CARS spectrum.

The two fundamental modes  $\nu_3$  (at  $3160.8\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and  $\nu_4$  (at  $1397.0\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) are Raman active but they are not assigned in the resonance Raman experiment. However, around both wavenumber values there is weak, but visible rotational structure in the experimental resonance Raman spectrum, possibly caused by these bands. Above  $3160.8\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the position of the  $\nu_3$  band, there are two bands noticeable in the experimental resonance Raman of Fig. 1, whereas three bands are present in the simulated spectrum. The two bands in the experimental spectrum are assigned as  $\nu_1 + 2\nu_2$  and  $2\nu_1$ , respectively, while TROVE suggests the labelling  $\nu_2 + \nu_3$ ,  $4\nu_4$ , and  $2\nu_1$  for the three bands visible in the simulation. It is conceivable, however, that the resonance Raman technique favors other vibrational transitions than nonresonant Raman, so possibly the significant bands must be assigned differently in the two spectra.

As mentioned above,  $\text{CH}_3$  belongs to the  $D_{3h}(M)$  molecular symmetry group and its equilibrium structure has  $D_{3h}$  point group symmetry [8]. Consequently, the absorption/emission transitions in the pure rotational spectrum and in the  $\nu_1$  fundamental band involve intensity borrowing [8] so that their observation is extremely difficult and probably impossible at the present time. It is nevertheless important to obtain experimental information on the  $\nu_1$  band, for example in connection with studies of the energy

distribution in methyl halide photodissociation dynamics. Such information can be obtained from Raman spectroscopy which in many cases complements absorption/emission. With the extension of the TROVE [24,25] program reported in the present work, we can simulate nonresonant Raman spectra and thus assist the recording and interpretation of laboratory Raman spectra.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jms.2019.06.005>.

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