

Lecture 6

24.6.24

To figure out how to describe and compute the properties of Rydberg molecules, we need to figure out how to solve nonseparable quantum mechanical systems.

One of the most efficient and conceptually useful ways to break apart and solve a complicated multi-dimensional problem is to use basis expansions to convert the problem to the solution of many coupled 1D Schrödinger equations.

The general process is as follows:

- 1) Identify a fragmentation coordinate " r "
→ This is ideal for collisions, but also a good way to think about bound state calculations → even if it is overkill sometimes.
- 2) Solve the Schrö eq for all other coordinates " ω " to obtain a complete + orthonormal basis for those "internal" coordinates.

$$H\omega \phi_i(\omega) = \epsilon_i \phi_i(\omega)$$

3) Expand the total wavefunction into this basis:

$$\Psi_p(r, \omega) = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{\epsilon} \phi_i(\omega) f_{\epsilon}(r)$$

4) Act on this w.f. with the Hamiltonian H , then project onto $\langle \phi_j |$ to obtain a set of coupled equations:

$$0 = \langle \langle \phi_j | H | \Psi_p(r, \omega) \rangle$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2m} f_{\epsilon\epsilon}''(r) \delta_{i\epsilon} + \left(\frac{l_i(l_i+1)}{2mr^2} + V(r) + \epsilon_i - E \right) f_{\epsilon}(r) \delta_{i\epsilon}$$

↑

note: the eigenvalues of the ω -eval equation determine the threshold energies!

$$+ \underbrace{W_{\epsilon_j}}_{\substack{\text{arrow} \\ W_{\epsilon_j} = \langle \langle \phi_i(\omega) | V(r, \omega) | \phi_j(\omega) \rangle \rangle}} f_{\epsilon_j}$$

If we define:

$$\vec{f} = (f_0(r), f_1(r), \dots, f_{i_{\max}}(r))^T$$

$$\vec{L}^2 = l_i(l_i+1) \delta_{i\epsilon}$$

$$\vec{1} = \delta_{i\epsilon}$$

Then we have a very compact equation,

$$-\frac{1}{2m} \vec{p}^2 \vec{f}(r) + \left(\frac{\hbar^2}{2r^2} + \underbrace{V(r)}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{diagonal} \\ \text{matrices}}} + (\epsilon_i - E) \right) \vec{f}(r) + \underbrace{W \vec{f}}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{coupling-through} \\ \text{off-diagonal} \\ \text{terms here}}} = 0.$$

(eq. 1)

This is all just "math tricks" unless we choose the right basis. Some examples might help:

1) e^- -H scattering. Here we work in the rest frame of an 'infinitely' heavy proton orbited by two electrons:



In this approximation, the total wave function can be written $\psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2)$ and it is

determined by the Hamiltonian

$$H = -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_1^2 - \frac{1}{2} \nabla_2^2 - \frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} + \frac{1}{|r_1 - r_2|}$$

We pick r_2 to be the fragmentation coordinate.

That means that $H_W = -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_1^2 - \frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{d_{z1}(d_{z1}+1)}{2r_2^2}$

$$W = \frac{1}{|r_1 - r_2|}$$

$$V = -1/r_2$$

(note: here we're ignoring spin and antisymmetrization!)

Thus, it's clear that

$$i = \{l_{1i}, l_{2i}, n_{1i}, L_i, M_i\},$$

$$\rightarrow |\Phi_i\rangle = \underbrace{\frac{u_{n_{1i}}(r_1)}{r_1}}_{\substack{\text{hydrogen} \\ \text{wf's}}} \underbrace{|(l_{1i}, l_{2i}) L_i M_i\rangle}_{\substack{\text{total summed} \\ \text{ang-mo}}}$$

And so eq. 1 becomes...

$$0 = -\frac{1}{2} \vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{f}(r_2) + \left(\frac{\vec{L}_2^2}{2n_2^2} - \frac{1}{r_2} - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2n_1^2}}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \epsilon_i}} - E \right) \vec{f}(r_2) + \underline{W}(r_1, r_2) \vec{f}(r_2)$$

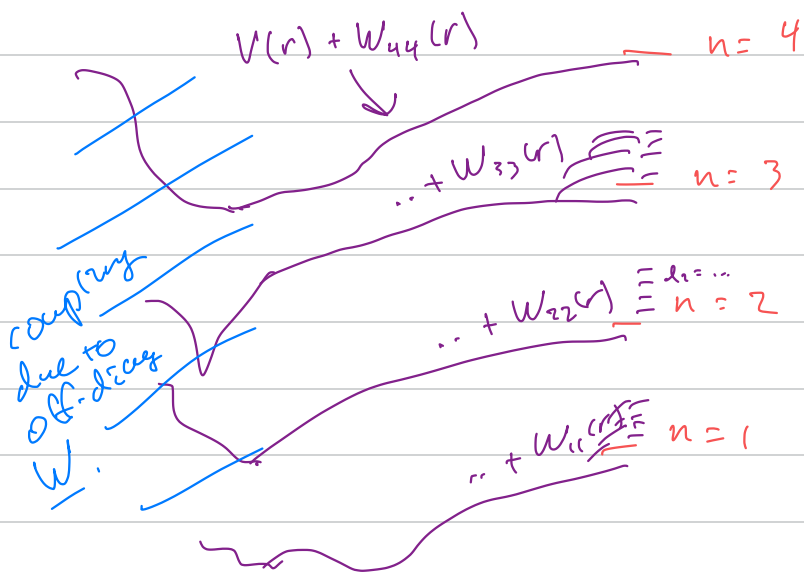
(eq. 2)

$$\downarrow = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{r_2^k}{r_1^{k+1}} P_k(\cos \theta_{12})$$

where $\underline{W}(r_1, r_2) = \langle n_{1i}, l_{1i}, l_{2i}, L_i, M_i | \frac{1}{|\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2|} | n_{1j}, l_{1j}, l_{2j}, L_j, M_j \rangle$

We'll come back to this when we discuss the dispersive polarization interaction between an electron and an atom. But for now, just notice what we've done: replaced a complicated 6D problem where we have no insight into the structure of the component particles into an (infinite) set of coupled 1D equations with lots of useful structure!

What eq. 2 "looks" like is:



(thresholds of the H atom)

→ EXACT eq. looks like an electron coming in in one channel, with its own threshold and potential, then coupling to and scattering into other channels.

→ This describes inelastic processes!

2) H in a magnetic field:

$$H = -\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{r} + \frac{B^2 r^2 \sin^2\theta}{8} + B\hat{L}_z$$

→ This is a 2D problem in (r, θ) that was studied extensively in the 80s-90s and was instrumental in opening up the field of QUANTUM CHAOS.

3) e^- scattering off of a polar molecule



$$V(r, \theta) = \sum_{L=0}^{\infty} V_L(R) P_L(\cos \theta)$$

4) Rydberg molecules. Here we have



a Rydberg atom A interacting with a distant ground state atom B. The full wave function

depends on the $e^- - A^+$ relative coordinate \vec{r} and the A-B relative coordinate \vec{R} .

Throwing away mass-polarization terms as usual, we are left with

$$H = \underbrace{-\frac{1}{2\mu} \nabla_r^2}_{\text{kinetic energy}} - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2m} \nabla_R^2}_{\text{nuclear interaction (weak!)}} + \underbrace{V_r(r)}_{\text{atom interaction (Coulomb)}} + \underbrace{V_R(R)}_{\text{electron-atom interaction}} + \underbrace{W(r, R)}_{\text{Fermi Pseudopotential!}}$$

W : kinetic energy + nuclear interaction (weak!)

V : kinetic energy + atom interaction (Coulomb)

W : e^- -groundstate atom interaction,
i.e. the Fermi Pseudopotential!

Here we might have some options for our fragmentation coordinate, depending on the type of process we want to study. We could pick r , and then we describe Rydberg states of the AB molecule / photoionization.

But now we want the Rydberg electron to stay attached to A^+ , and describe molecular formation - is motion bounded as $R \rightarrow \infty$?

therefore we pick R as the frag-coord.

$$\rightarrow H_w = W + \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$$

$$W = W$$

$$V = V_R(R)$$

And, $\epsilon = \underbrace{\{n, l, m\}}_{\substack{\text{Rydberg atom} \\ \text{D.F.}}} \underbrace{\{L, M\}}_{\text{Nuclear rotation}}$

$$\rightarrow \Phi_{\epsilon}(\omega) = |nlm\rangle |LM\rangle.$$

So, eq. 1 is:

$$0 = -\frac{1}{2\mu} \vec{p}''(\mathbf{R}) + \left(\frac{\vec{L}^2}{2\mu R^2} - \frac{\alpha}{2R^4} - \frac{1}{2(n-m)^2} - E \right) \vec{p}(\mathbf{R}) + \underbrace{\langle nlm | 2\pi a_0 S^3(\vec{r}-\vec{R}) | n'l'm' \rangle}_{\underline{W}} \vec{p}(\mathbf{R}).$$

e.g. $V_R(R)$

eq. 3

To simplify the following, let's take $L=M=0$ (note that \vec{R} separates), assume α/R^4 is negligible, ignore q -defects, and measure E relative to $-\frac{1}{2n^2}$. Then eq. 3 becomes:

$$0 = -\frac{1}{2\mu} \vec{p}''(\mathbf{R}) + (\underline{W} - E \underline{1}) \vec{p}(\mathbf{R}).$$

This is usually not the eq. we want to work with here - especially for Rydberg molecules where the dimension grows with n !

So let's prepare an adiabatic approximation to these close-coupling / coupled-channel equations.

For each R value, we can diagonalize \underline{W} :

$$\underline{W} = \underline{S} \underline{U} \underline{S}^{-1}, \text{ where } \underline{U} \equiv \underline{U}(R), \text{ etc.}$$

Inserting this and several $\underline{1} = \underline{S} \underline{S}^{-1}$, we get

$$0 = -\frac{1}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} (S S^{-1} \vec{f}(R)) + (S U S^{-1} - E S S^{-1}) \vec{f}(R)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} (S \tilde{f}(R)) + S (U - E) \tilde{f}(R),$$

$$\tilde{f} = S^{-1} f.$$

$$\rightarrow 0 = S^{-1} 0 = -\frac{1}{2m} S^{-1} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} (S \tilde{f}(R)) + (U(R) - E) \tilde{f}(R)$$

$$= (S' \tilde{f} + \tilde{f}' S)^{\prime} = S'' \tilde{f} + 2 S' \tilde{f}' + S \tilde{f}''$$

So finally, after this change of basis at every R value, we have a new set of coupled eqns:

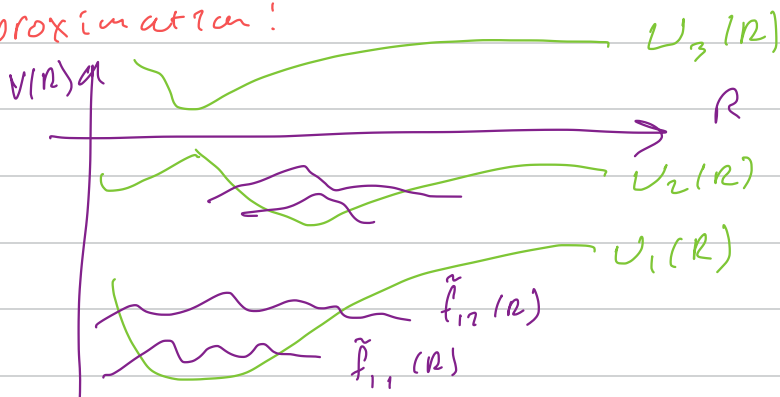
$$0 = -\frac{1}{2m} \tilde{f}''(R) + \underbrace{(U(R) - E)}_{\text{diagonal!}} \tilde{f}(R) - \frac{1}{2m} \underbrace{\left(2 \frac{P}{r} + Q \right)}_{\text{derivative coupling!}} \tilde{f}(R)$$

Let's switch to a slightly more familiar notation now, where $\phi_n(R)$ is the eigenvector (of channel functions) corresponding to the potential curve $U_n(R)$. Then we have:

$$0 = \sum_v \left(-\frac{1}{2\mu} \frac{d^2}{dR^2} \delta_{\mu\nu} + U_{\mu\nu}(R) - E \delta_{\mu\nu} \right) \tilde{f}_\nu(R) + \sum_v \left(2 P_{\mu\nu} \frac{d}{dR} + Q_{\mu\nu} \right) \tilde{f}_\nu(R)$$

$P_{\mu\nu} = \langle \phi_\mu | \frac{d}{dR} | \phi_\nu \rangle$
 $Q_{\mu\nu} = \langle \phi_\mu | \frac{d^2}{dR^2} | \phi_\nu \rangle$

The top row describes uncoupled vibrational motion on individual potential curves - if we drop the bottom row entirely, this is nothing more than the Born-Oppenheimer approximation!



How good of an approximation is it to totally drop the second row?

→ Often $\nabla E \approx 0$ good!

To understand why, let's derive 2 identities:

$$\begin{aligned} 1) \quad \frac{dP}{dR} &= \frac{d}{dR} \langle \phi_m | d_R \phi_n \rangle \\ &= \underbrace{\langle d_R \phi_m | d_R \phi_n \rangle} + \underbrace{\langle \phi_m | d_R^2 \phi_n \rangle}_{Q_{m2}} \end{aligned}$$

This first term is:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_q \underbrace{\langle d_R \phi_m | \phi_q \rangle}_{\text{identity}} \underbrace{\langle \phi_q | d_R \phi_n \rangle} \\ &= P_{m1} P_{1n} = P^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So: } dP/dR = \underline{P^2} + \underline{Q}$$

$$2) \quad \text{Since } H \omega \phi_n(R) = U_n(R) \phi_n(R)$$

$$\rightarrow \nabla(H\phi) = (dH/dR) \phi_n + H \phi_n' = U_n' \phi_n + U_n \phi_n'$$

Next we project onto $\langle \phi_m |$:

$$\rightarrow \langle \phi_\mu | H'(\phi_\nu) \rangle + \langle \phi_\mu | H | \phi_\nu \rangle' = U_\nu' \langle \phi_\mu | \phi_\nu \rangle + U_\nu \langle \phi_\mu | \phi_\nu \rangle'$$

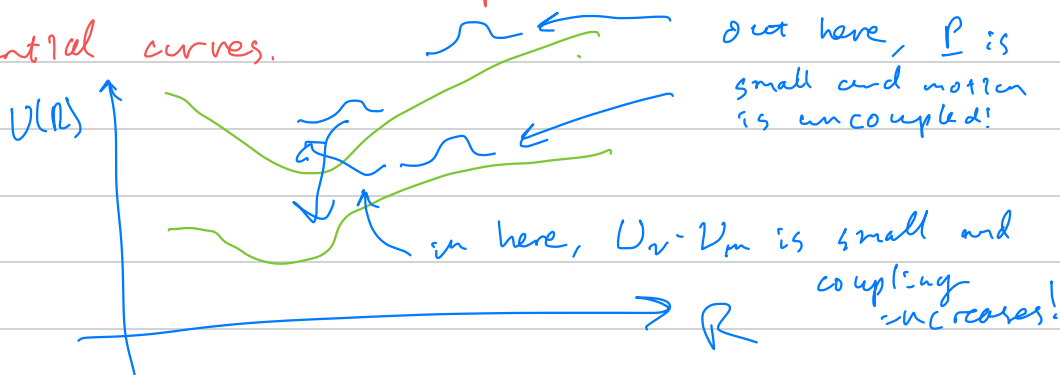
$$\downarrow$$

$$\langle \phi_\mu | H'(\phi_\nu) \rangle = -U_\mu P_{\mu\nu} + U_\nu' \delta_{\mu\nu} + U_\nu P_{\mu\nu}$$

$$\rightarrow P_{\mu\nu} = \frac{\langle \phi_\mu | H'(\phi_\nu) \rangle}{U_\nu(R) - U_\mu(R)}$$

These two results tell us: the strength of Q depends on the strength of $P \rightarrow$ and also on how quickly it varies w/ R .

Furthermore, the strength of \underline{P} depends on how quickly the Hamiltonian changes with R and, most crucially, on the separation between adiabatic potential curves.



So: back to Ryd-Mols!

This is basically the scenario of the Fermi pseudopotential derivation - just with fewer atoms involved and, crucially, ultracold temperatures. Why? We'll see soon.

- From Fermi PP derivation: whatever the "real" electron-atom potential is, we can replace it with the Fermi PP (+ higher L pieces):

$$U(\vec{r}; \vec{R}) = 2\pi a_s \delta^3(\vec{r}-\vec{R}) + 6\pi a_p^3 \vec{\nabla} \delta^3(\vec{r}-\vec{R}) \vec{\nabla} + \dots$$

Next, remember our coupled channel formalism. We know the states of the Rydberg atom, so they make an obvious choice for the channels.

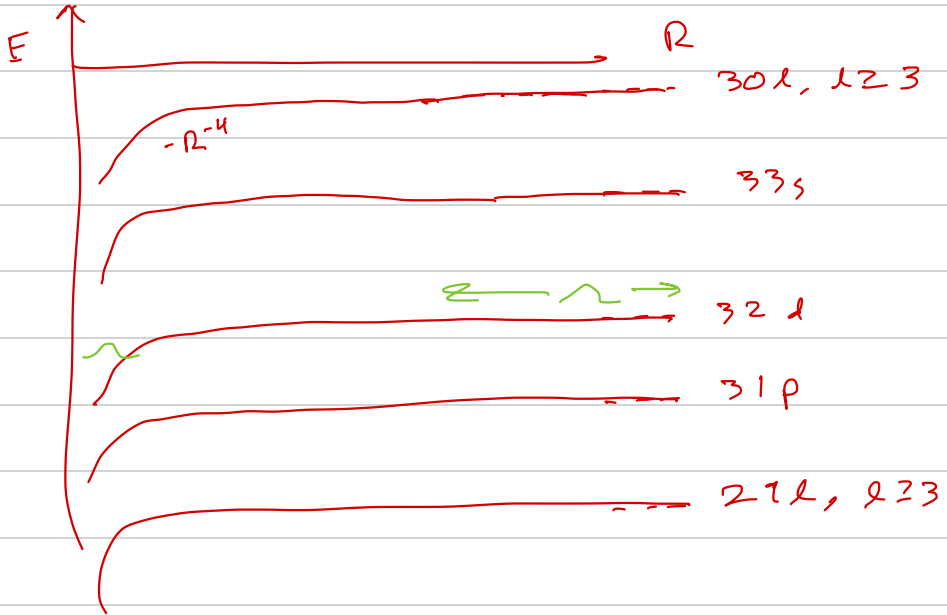
$$\psi(\vec{r}, \vec{R}) = \sum_i \frac{f_i(R)}{R} |nlm, N\mu\rangle$$

From our derivation in Lec. 9... this leads to the coupled eqns...

$$0 = -\frac{1}{2\mu} f_i''(R) + \left[\frac{\mu^2}{2\mu R^2} - \frac{\alpha}{2R^4} - \left(E + \frac{1}{2(\mu - \mu_i)^2} \right) \right] f_i(R)$$

$$V_{ii}(R) f_i(R)$$

Perturbatively,



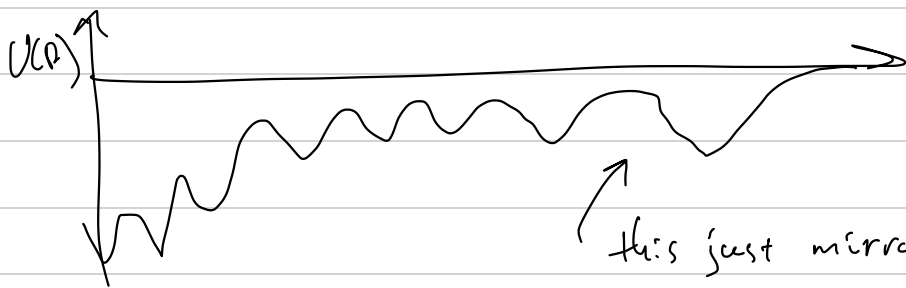
Without the electron-atom interaction, motion occurs along uncoupled potentials w/ only very short-range potentials.

Let's check out the electronic-state dependent potential matrix.

$$V = -\frac{1}{2(n-n_L)^2} + 2\pi a_s \psi_{n\ell m}^*(r) \psi_{n\ell' m'}(r) + 6\pi a_p \psi_{n\ell m}^*(r) \psi_{n\ell' m'}(r) + \dots$$

when $m_L \neq 0$: we have good reason to consider these low- ℓ states individually.

$$\rightarrow V_{\ell \leq 2} = -\frac{1}{2(n-n_L)^2} + 2\pi a_s |\psi|^2 + 6\pi a_p |\psi|^2 + \dots$$



this just mirrors the Rydberg wavefunction (s-wave limit)

\rightarrow Note that this is a slightly different perspective than usual Born-Oppenheimer. It's actually a kinematic calculation!

$$\text{Since } 1 = \int \psi^2 dV \approx \psi^2 \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi (2n^3)^3, \quad \psi^2 \sim n^{-6}$$

\rightarrow These potentials are weak!

For high l , we can no longer argue that these couplings are negligible as there are no energy separations to help out any more...

→ we have a coupling matrix

$$V_{ll'} = \langle nlm | 2\pi a_s \delta^3 + 6\pi a_p \nabla \delta^3 \nabla | n l' m \rangle$$

to treat.

It now makes sense to move to a representation where this is diagonal. → BD approx!

We can actually use SUSY to diagonalize this (well, kind of). Note the following:

$$V_{ll'} = \underbrace{2\pi a_s}_{\sqrt{V}} \underbrace{\phi_{nl}^{\rightarrow}(\mathbf{r})}_{\sqrt{V}} \underbrace{\phi_{n l'}(\mathbf{r})}_{\sqrt{V}} + \underbrace{6\pi a_p}_{\sqrt{V}} \underbrace{\phi_{nl}^{\rightarrow}(\mathbf{r})}_{\sqrt{V}} \underbrace{\phi_{n l'}^{\leftarrow}(\mathbf{r})}_{\sqrt{V}} + \dots$$

$$\text{Let: } A_{l0} = \sqrt{2\pi a_s} \phi_{nl}^{\rightarrow} \rightarrow A_{0l'}^{\dagger} = \sqrt{2\pi a_s} \phi_{n l'}(\mathbf{r})$$

$$A_{ll} = \sqrt{6\pi a_p} \phi_{nl}^{\rightarrow} \rightarrow A_{ll'}^{\dagger} = \sqrt{6\pi a_p} \phi_{n l'}^{\leftarrow}(\mathbf{r})$$

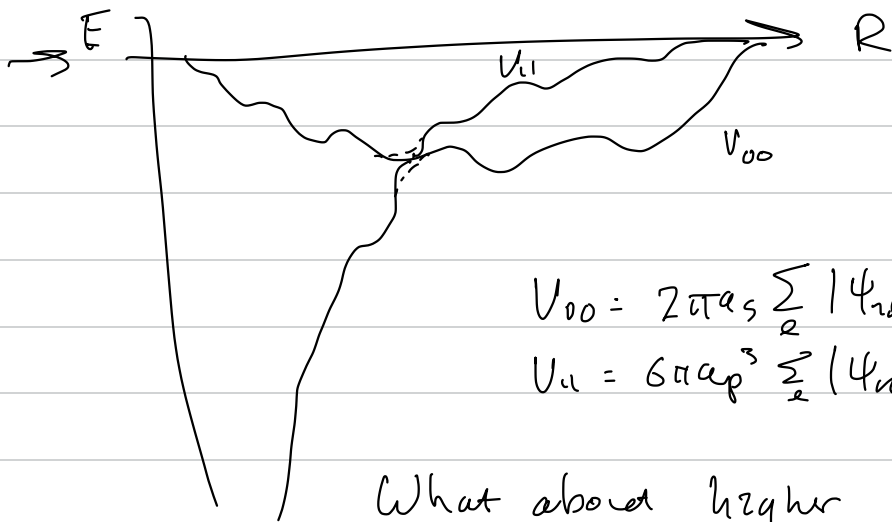
$$\text{So: } V_{ll'} = \sum_{L=0}^1 A_{lL} A_{Ll'}^{\dagger} \quad !$$

That should ring some bells. Remember that we showed that

$$H^1 = AA^+ \quad \text{and} \quad H^2 = A^+A$$

have degenerate spectra!

So: we can just diagonalize $H^{(2)} = A^+A$ to get the (non-zero) eigenvalues!!!



$$V_{00} = 2\pi a_s \sum_{\mathbf{r}} |\psi_{n00}(\mathbf{r})|^2$$
$$V_{11} = 6\pi a_p^3 \sum_{\mathbf{r}} |\psi_{n10}(\mathbf{r})|^2$$

What about higher L ?

In a nutshell: since
 $S_L \sim k^2$

we know how all of these will behave!