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阿秒脈衝激發和遠紅外雷射驅動中稀有氣體原子的光子發射

譜中的半脈衝週期震盪：

自作用修正的隨時變密度泛函理論計算

Subcycle Dynamics of Photon Emission Spectra of Rare Gases  
Atoms Excited by Attosecond Pulses and Driven by Near-Infrared  
Laser Fields:

Self-Interaction-Free Time-Dependent Density-Functional-Theory  
Approach

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Gases Atoms Excited by Attosecond Pulses and Driven by  
Near-Infrared Laser Fields:

Self-Interaction-Free Time-Dependent  
Density-Functional-Theory Approach

本論文係周繼暉君 (R01245007) 在國立臺灣大學物理學系、所  
完成之碩士學位論文，於民國 103 年 7 月 10 日承下列考試委員審查  
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## 中文摘要



本文應用了自作用修正的隨時變密度泛涵理論和非微擾的數值計算方法，計算阿秒脈衝激發和遠紅外雷射驅動中氫、氦和氖原子的光子發射譜，藉由改變阿秒脈衝和遠紅外雷射的時間差，我們可以觀察到半雷射周期的震盪以及能階的改變。這種現象已從吸收光譜實驗上觀察到，我們也計算出激發態的電子機率隨時間差有著相同的週期震盪，我們從兩個光子吸收觀點來解釋這種現象。

關鍵字：阿秒脈衝、自作用修正時變密度泛涵理論、半雷射週期現象



## **Abstract**

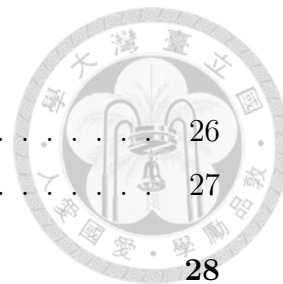
We present an ab initio method to study the sub-cycle dynamics of hydrogen, helium and neon atoms in near-infrared(NIR) laser fields subject to excitation by a single extreme ultraviolet attosecond pulse(SAP). We extended the self-interaction-free time-dependent density functional theory(TD-KLI-SIC) to describe multi-electron system and solve the time-dependent Kohn-Sham equations by time-dependent generalized pseudospectral(TDGPS) method. We calculated the photon emission spectra and population of several excited states as the function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP. The phenomena can be explain by two-photon absorption.

keyword: attosecond, time-dependent density functional theory, subcycle dynamics



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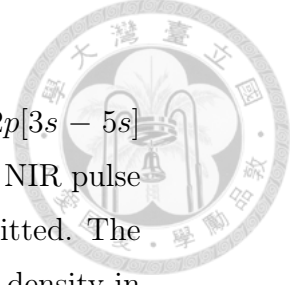
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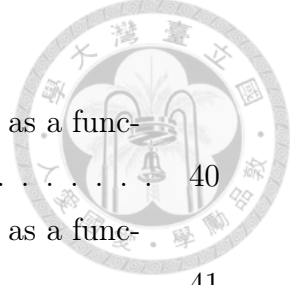
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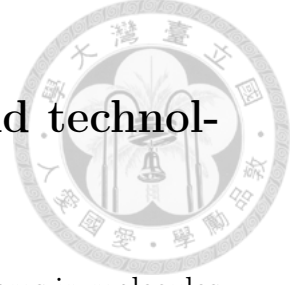
# Chapter 1

## Introduction

In this chapter, we introduce the basic concept about attosecond physics and the purpose of our work.

### 1.1 Attosecond Physics

Attosecond( $\text{as}, 10^{-18}$  second) science and technology has been popular topic in recent year since the first generation of attosecond pulse in experiments[4, 5]. This technique allow us to study the electronic processes in atoms, molecules and surfaces at the attosecond timescales. There are two main progresses in attosecond science. The first one is that development of attosecond source. We want to generate more intense and shorter attosecond pulse. In our group, we focus on High-Order Harmonic generation which can generate attosecond pulse. The second one is that application of attosecond pulse. There are many experiments on which they use attosecond pulse to discover ultra-fast the dynamic of electron[6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12].The complete discussion in attosecond physics can be found in [1]



## 1.2 Real-time observation with attosecond technology

In Fig. 1.1, this defines the characteristic time scale for motion of atoms in molecules to hundreds of femtosecond. The motion of individual electrons in semiconductor nanostructures, molecular orbitals, and the inner shells of atoms occurs from ten femtosecond to one attosecond. Motion of nuclei is even faster, on a zeptosecond time scale( $10^{-21}$  second). The main application of attosecond pulses is to observe ultrafast process in attosecond time scales.

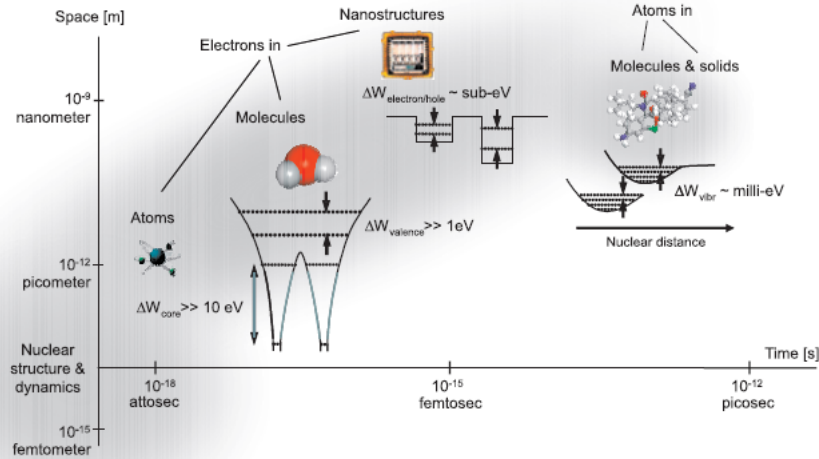
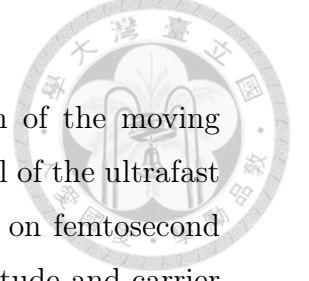


Figure 1.1: Characteristic length and time scales for structure and dynamics.[1]

Real-time observation of ultrafast motion requires the ability to trigger and probe the process under scrutiny. Dynamical information is provided by an observable varying as a function of the delay between triggering and probing events in a pump-probe measurement in Fig. 1.2, where pump pulse triggers the process and probe pulse images the process at some delay time. This quantity varies on the time scale at which the motion occurs, affording the observer real-time access to the



process. If the observable can reveal the information on location of the moving particles, a series of freeze-frame pump-probe images allows retrieval of the ultrafast motion. Real-time observation and control of atomic motion relies on femtosecond laser techniques, using cycle-averaged quantities such as field amplitude and carrier frequency for triggering, probing and controlling dynamics. Attosecond technology allow us to improve the resolution of probing and control by orders of magnitude with sub-fs XUV pulse.

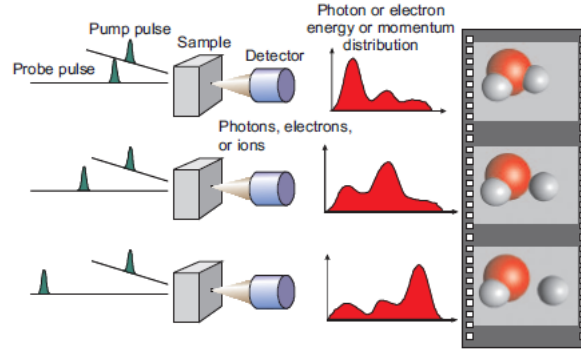


Figure 1.2: Illustration of pump-probe (time-resolved) spectroscopy.[1]

### 1.3 Sub-cycle AC stark shift

Stark shift is the shift of atomic energy level in a external field, which can be static(DC) or dynamic(AC). With the existing theory[13], when the monochromatic field with  $w_L$  far from atomic resonance, the AC stark shift is equivalent to the quadratic DC Stark shift. The energy shift is proportional to the cycle average of the laser field's square:

$$\Delta E_a = -\frac{\alpha_a(\omega_L)}{2} \langle \varepsilon_L(t)^2 \rangle = -\frac{\alpha_a(\omega_L) \varepsilon_0(t)^2}{4} \quad (1.1)$$

where  $\varepsilon_L(t) = \varepsilon_0 \cos(\omega_L t)$  is the laser electric field. The polarizability  $\alpha_a = \sum_{k \neq a} \frac{\omega_{ka} |d_{ka}|^2}{\omega_{ka}^2 - \omega_L^2}$  depends on both the dipole matrix elements  $d_{ka}$  coupling  $a$  with



other states  $k$  and the detuning of the laser frequency  $\omega_L$ . For highly excited states, we have

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_a(\omega_L) = -\frac{1}{\omega_L^2} \quad (1.2)$$

which leads to the well-known upshift of ionization threshold by the ponderomotive energy:  $U_p \equiv \frac{\varepsilon_0^2}{4\omega_L^2}$ .

Let  $|n\rangle$  be the eigenstates of the time-independent Hamiltonian  $H_0$ , such that

$$H_0|n\rangle = E_n^0|n\rangle (n = 1, 2, \dots). \quad (1.3)$$

The energy of  $|n\rangle$  under the external field  $\varepsilon(t) = \varepsilon_0(t) \cos(\omega_L t)$ , based on second-order time-dependent perturbation theory, is given by

$$E_n(t) = E_n^0 + \varepsilon(t)d_{nn} - i \sum_{k \neq n} \int_0^t dt' \varepsilon(t) \varepsilon(t') e^{-i\omega_{kn}(t-t')} |d_{nk}|^2 \quad (1.4)$$

Supposed that laser pulse envelop is  $\varepsilon_0(t) = \varepsilon_p e^{-\frac{|t|}{\tau_p}}$  with duration  $\tau_p$ , the integration in Eq. 1.4 can be simplified for multicycle pulses:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta E_n(t) = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_0(t)^2 \sum_{k \neq n} \left[ \frac{\omega_{nk} |d_{nk}|^2}{\omega_{kn}^2 - \omega_L^2} \cos^2(\omega_L t) - i \frac{\omega_L |d_{nk}|^2}{\omega_{kn}^2 - \omega_L^2} \sin(2\omega_L t) \right] = \\ \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_0(t)^2 [\alpha_n \cos^2(\omega_L t) - i \gamma_n \sin(2\omega_L t)]. \end{aligned} \quad (1.5)$$

where  $\gamma_n = \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{\omega_L |d_{kn}|^2}{\omega_{kn}^2 - \omega_L^2}$  specifies the subcycle changes in the population of  $n$  as it couples to  $k$ .

However, the average-cycle shift can be verified by using long-pulse( ns) but lacked time resolution. Recently, pump-probe measurements using probe laser pulses longer than the oscillation period of the Stark field revealed Stark shifts with time resolution 10 fs[14], but only the average-cycle shift can be measured.

To resolve the subcycle ac stark shift, we probe the atoms with single extreme ultraviolet attosecond pulse(SAP) with duration nearly 20 times smaller than the NIR Stark laser period. When the atom absorb an XUV photon, electrons can be moved to one of the excited states or to the continuum states because the wide

frequencies range of XUV pulse. When the NIR field act on the electron, the effects of the NIR field can be observed through the changes in the photo emission spectra and population of excited states. In most experiments, they use the transient absorption technique to observe the subcycle oscillation[15, 16, 17, 18]. But for our work, we calculate the photo emission spectra and observe the similar features.

## 1.4 Purpose of this work

We give the main targets of this work.

1. We perform 3D calculation of the rare gas atoms (H, He, Ne) in the NIR field subject to excitation by SAP. We have calculated the photon emission spectra and the population of excited states with respect to time delay between the SAP and NIR fields and then we found the subcycle oscillation.

2. We include that multi-electron correlation effect by using time dependent density functional theory (TDDFT). Unlike other theory which only makes single-active-electron(SAE) model[6, 8, 9, 15, 17, 19] or time independent model potential[20].



## Chapter 2

# Theory and Method

In this chapter, we introduce the numerical method for solving PDE and the theory for many-electron system. In addition, we also give simple introduction about graphic processing unit(GPU), on which we can accelerate our calculations.

## 2.1 Time-dependent Generalized Pseudospectral Method

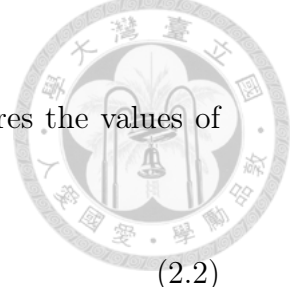
There are many numerical methods for solving PDE, finite difference(FD), finite element(FE), and spectral method[2, 21, 22]. GPS is under the category of spectral method. Spectral method is more accurate and efficient than FD and FE because it needs less grid points and converges faster. Moreover, the grid points of GPS are more denser near the origin, so we can describe Coulomb potential better than equal-spacing grid points.

### 2.1.1 The eigenvalues problem

The basic idea of spectral method is to approximate function  $f(x)$  by order  $N$  polynomial with orthogonal basis  $\phi_j(x)$

$$A(x) \simeq \sum_{j=0}^N a_j \phi_j(x) \quad (2.1)$$





We need the coefficient  $a_j$  for defining the function, so it requires the values of function at  $N + 1$  grid points  $x_j$ .

$$a_j = \sum_{i=0}^N \omega_i A(x_i) \phi_j(x_i) \quad (2.2)$$

The approximation of function can be expressed by

$$A(x) = \sum_{j=0}^N A(x_j) g_j(x) \quad (2.3)$$

where  $g_j(x)$  is the cardinal function given by

$$g_j(x) = \sum_{i=0}^N \omega_i A(x_i) \phi_j(x) \quad (2.4)$$

With the definition of the cardinal function and the collocation points  $\{x_i\}$ , we can obtain the differential operator matrix

$$\frac{d}{dx} A(x)|_{x=x_i} \simeq \sum_{j=0}^N A(x_j) \frac{d}{dx} g_j(x)|_{x=x_i} = \sum_{j=0}^N (D_N)_{ij} A(x_j) \quad (2.5)$$

The value of weight and the form of the cardinal function and the differential operator matrix are depend on basis function and grid points. How to choose the basis function and grid points is dependent on the problems, mainly the boundary condition and domain. We list the basis function in Fig 2.1

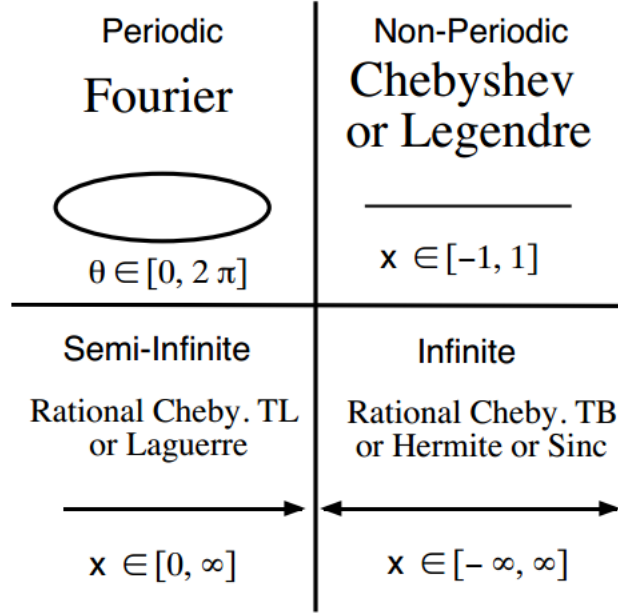


Figure 2.1: The basis function in correspond to domain. Reproduced from [2].

In this work, we choose the Legendre polynomials. And then we choose the grid points from different boundary condition [21].

Legendre-Gauss

$$x_j (j = 0, \dots, N) \text{ zeros of } P_{N+1};$$

$$\omega_j = \frac{2}{(1 - x_j^2)[P'_{N+1}(x_j)]^2}, j = 0, \dots, N.$$

Legendre-Gauss-Radau

$$x_j (j = 0, \dots, N) \text{ zeros of } P_N + P_{N+1};$$

$$\omega_0 = \frac{2}{(N+1)^2}$$

$$\omega_j = \frac{1 - x_j}{(N+1)^2 [P_N(x_j)]^2}, j = 1, \dots, N.$$

Legendre-Gauss-Lobatto

$$x_0 = -1, x_N = 1, x_j (j = 1, \dots, N-1) \text{ zeros of } P'_{N+1};$$



$$\omega_j = \frac{2}{N(N+1)[P_{N+1}(x_j)]^2}, j = 0, \dots, N.$$

We use Legendre-Gauss-Lobatto grid points for the radial coordinate and Legendre-Gauss grid points for the angular coordinate.

For atomic or molecule calculation including Coulomb potential, the general problem is the singularity at  $r = 0$  and the long-range potential. We truncate the semi-infinite  $(0, \infty)$  to the finite interval  $[r_{min}, r_{max}]$  to avoid the problem, but it needs a lot of grid points for convergence and accuracy and cost much time for time propagation.

The generalized pseudospectral method offers us the solution of above problem. This method can be used in time-dependent problem. Follow the discussion, we use nonlinear mapping function[23, 24] to map the  $[-1, 1]$  to  $[r_{min}, r_{max}]$

$$r(x) = r_m \frac{1+x}{1-x+\alpha} \quad (2.6)$$

where  $r_m$  and  $\alpha = 2\frac{r_m}{r_{max}}$  is the mapping parameters. Here, we begin with the time-independent Schrödinger equation for Hydrogen atom.

$$\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = \sum_{n,l,m} C_{nlm} \frac{\varphi_{nl}(r)}{r} Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi) \quad (2.7)$$

$$\hat{H}_l^0 \varphi_{nl}(r) = (-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + V_l(r))\varphi_{nl}(r) = E_{nl}\varphi_{nl}(r) \quad (2.8)$$

where

$$V_{nl}(r) = -\frac{1}{r} + \frac{l(l+1)}{2r^2} \quad (2.9)$$

Applying the nonlinear mapping for Eq. 2.6.

$$-\frac{1}{2}[\frac{1}{r'(x)^2} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} - \frac{r''(x)}{r'(x)^3} \frac{d}{dx}] \varphi(r(x)) + V(r)\varphi(r(x)) = E\varphi(r(x)) \quad (2.10)$$

This equation is not symmetrical, so we choose  $\varphi(r(x)) = \sqrt{r'(x)}f(x)$

$$-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{r'(x)} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} f(x) + V_m(x)r'(x)f(x) + V(x)r'(x)f(x) = Er'(x)f(x) \quad (2.11)$$



where

$$V_m(x) = \frac{3(r'')^2 - 2r'''r'}{8r'^4} \quad (2.12)$$

For special mapping Eq. 2.6,  $V_m(x) = 0$ . With a lot of effort, we finally translate the problem into the symmetric eigenvalue problem.

$$-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{r'(x)} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \frac{1}{r'(x)} A(x) + V(x)A(x) = EA(x) \quad (2.13)$$

where

$$A(x) = r'(x)f(x) = \sqrt{r'(x)}\varphi(x) \quad (2.14)$$

We throw Eq. 2.3 into Eq. 2.13

$$-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{r'(x_i)} \sum_j \frac{A(x_j)}{r'(x_j)} \frac{d^2 g_j(x)}{dx^2} \Big|_{x_i} + V(x_i) \sum_j A(x_j) g_j(x_i) = E \sum_j A(x_j) g_j(x_i) \quad (2.15)$$

where[24]

$$g_j''(x_i) = d_{ij}^{(2)} \frac{P_N(x_i)}{P_N(x_j)} \quad (2.16)$$

and

$$d_{ij}^{(2)} = -\frac{2}{(x_i - x_j)^2} [i \neq j, (ij) \neq (0N), (ij) \neq (N0)] \quad (2.17)$$

$$d_{0N}^{(2)} = d_{N0}^2 = \frac{N(N+1) - 2}{4} \quad (2.18)$$

$$d_{jj}^{(2)} = -\frac{N(N+1)}{3(1-x_j)^2} [j \neq 0, j \neq N] \quad (2.19)$$

$$d_{00}^{(2)} = d_{NN}^2 = \frac{N(N+1)[N(N+1) - 2]}{24} \quad (2.20)$$

And the cardinal function has the property

$$g_j(x_i) = \delta_{ij} \quad (2.21)$$

and choose

$$A_i = \sqrt{\frac{2}{(N+1)(N+2)}} \frac{A(x_i)}{P_{N+1}(x_i)} \quad (2.22)$$



The whole equation is simplified to matrix form

$$\sum_j [(D_2)_{ij} + V(x_i)\delta_{ij}]A_j = EA_j \quad (2.23)$$

The final wave function on the collection points is

$$\psi(r(x_i)) = \frac{A_i}{r\sqrt{\omega_i r'(x_i)}} \quad (2.24)$$

where the  $\omega_i$  is the weight of the cardinal function. And then we can check the wave function normalized.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | \psi \rangle &= \int \frac{A_i A_i^*}{r^2 \omega_i r'(x_i)} r^2 dr \\ &= \sum_i \frac{A_i A_i^*}{r^2 \omega_i r'(x_i)} r^2 \frac{dr}{dx} \omega_i \\ &= \sum_i A_i A_i^* \end{aligned} \quad (2.25)$$

Finally, we solve the Schrödinger equation and get the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the system. Moreover, there are something we should be careful. The real wave function is in Eq. 2.24 although the summation of  $A_i A_i^*$  is normalized by most eigensolver. It's convenient to see  $A_i$  as the wave function numerically because some variables are eliminated by integral elements in Eq. 2.25.

### 2.1.2 Time propagation

The next step is to do time propagation by second-order split operator technique[25] in spherical coordinates:

$$\varphi(r, t + \delta t) \simeq \exp(-i\hat{H}_0\delta t/2) \exp(-i\hat{V}(r, \theta, t + \delta t)\delta t) \exp(-i\hat{H}_0\delta t/2) \varphi(r, t) + O(\delta t^3) \quad (2.26)$$

The first term and third term is from time independent Hamiltonian. The the second term is the time dependent potential, namely the laser field.

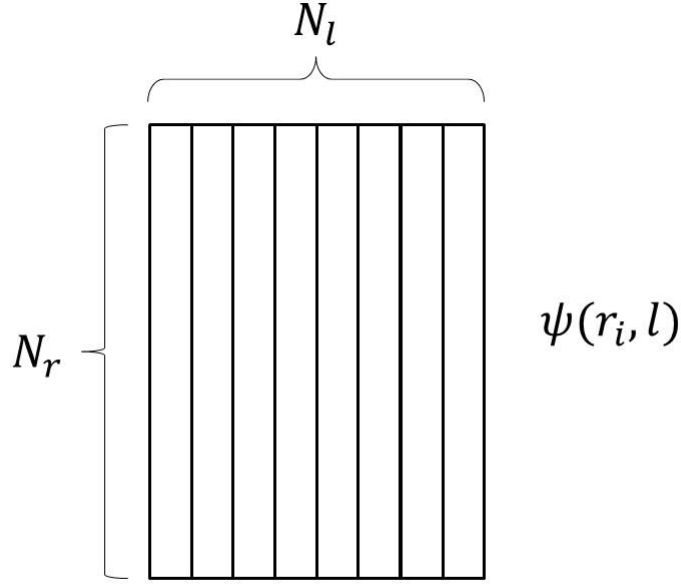


Figure 2.2: Data distribution of wave function.  $N_l$  and  $N_r$  is the total number of partial wave and the grid points of wave function.

We define the initial wave function for hydrogen.

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(r_i, l = 0) &= A(l = 0)_i \\ \psi(r_i, l = 1 \dots N_l - 1) &= 0\end{aligned}\tag{2.27}$$

where the  $i$  is the index of radical part of the wave function and  $l$  is the partial wave number from angular quantum number.  $N_l$  and  $N_r$  is the total number of partial wave and the grid points of wave function. In general, we set  $N_l = 32$  and  $N_r = 256$  for the hydrogen atom.

We define the  $\exp(-i\hat{H}^0\delta t/2)$  by the eigenvalues and the eigenfunctions of Hamiltonian.

$$S_{ij}(l) = \sum_n \langle r_i, l | n, l \rangle \exp(-iE_{nl}\delta t/2) \langle n, l | r_j, l \rangle\tag{2.28}$$

where the eigenfunctions are  $\langle r_i, l | n, l \rangle$  and eigenvalues are  $E_{nl}$ .

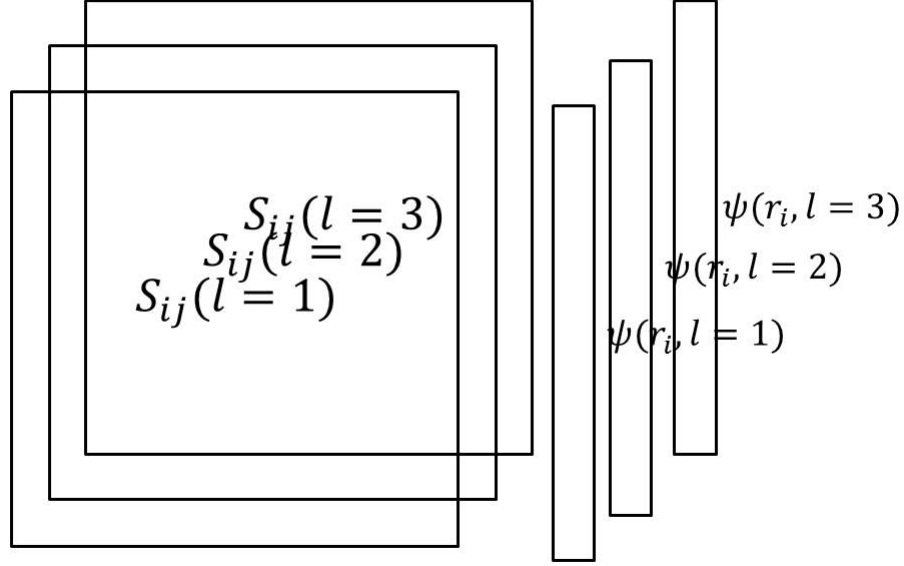


Figure 2.3: Illustration of matrix-vector multiplication.

We perform the operation  $\exp(-iH^0\delta t/2)\psi(r, 0)$  in Fig. 2.1.2, composed of matrix-vector multiplications for each  $l$ . The process can be paralleled by openmp or other parallel methods.

Before we do  $\exp(-iV(r, \theta, t)\delta t)$ , we need to transform the representation  $(r, l)$  to  $(r, \theta)$ . The  $\theta_j$  is the Gaussian-Legendre points we mention before.

$$\langle r_i, \theta_j | \psi \rangle = \sum_l \langle r_i, \theta_j | r_i, l \rangle \langle r_i, l | \psi \rangle \quad (2.29)$$

The Eq. 2.29 can be illustrated in Fig. 2.1.2.

$$\exp(-iV(r_i, \theta_j, t)\delta t)\psi(r_i, \theta_j) \quad (2.30)$$

And we transform the representation  $(r, \theta)$  back to  $(r, l)$  before we perform the operation  $\exp(-i\hat{H}^0\delta t/2)$  again. To prevent reflection, the wave function are multiplied by mask function after each time step. We partition our finite spatial grid into an

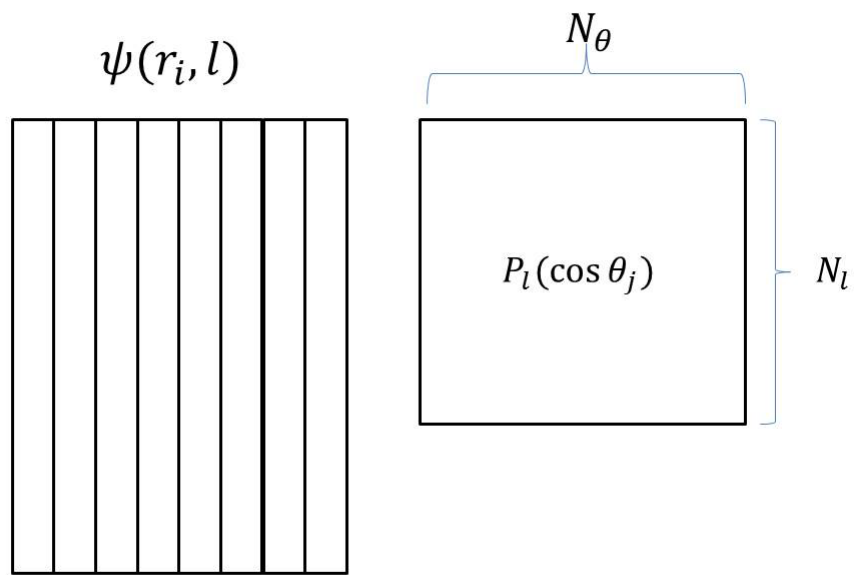


Figure 2.4: Illustration of the transformation in Eq. 2.29





inner region, which is large enough to completely contain the finite system of interest, and a border region, where outgoing flux is to be absorbed.

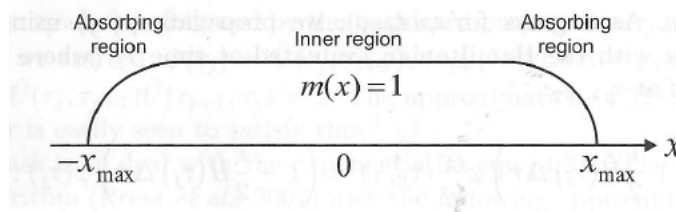


Figure 2.5: Mask function for one dimensional spatial grid with absorbing boundary condition. Reproduced from[3].

Throughout all processes above, we get the next time step wave function and we can calculate the observables.

$$O(t) = \langle \psi(r, t) | \hat{O} | \psi(r, t) \rangle \quad (2.31)$$

$O(t)$  is the observables, like number of electron, electron density, dipole moment in length form and in acceleration form. Finally, we don't need to save the time dependent wave function.

$$\psi(r, l) = \psi(r, l, \delta t) \quad (2.32)$$

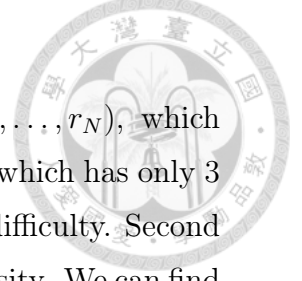
where we set  $\delta t$  as the initial wave function and then to get  $2\delta t, \dots, t_{final}$ .

The TDGPS method can be applied to many kinds of system.

## 2.2 Time-Dependent Density Functional Theory

### 2.2.1 Density Functional Theory and Kohn-Sham scheme

Density functional theory is the most popular method for many-electron system, atoms, molecules, and solids. In 1964, Hohenberg and Sham develop the basic theorem of density functional theory[26]. We give simple concept about the theorem. First theorem, we can represent the energy as a functional of the electron density



for given potential. We don't need to use wave function  $\Psi(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_N)$ , which has  $3N$  variables in  $N$ -electron system, but use electron density  $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ , which has only 3 variables in  $N$ -electron system. That avoid the main computational difficulty. Second theorem, The energy functional is minimized by the ground state density. We can find the ground state potential by variational principle. In Hohenberg-Kohn theorem, if we know the exact form of the universe functional, we can find the ground state by minimizing the functional. But we don't know the exact functional and systematic way to find such functional. In 1965, Kohn and Sham develop systematic way to approximate the functional and find the ground state density.

Kohn and Sham develop another method[27] for the functional, by using non-interacting system as auxiliary system. Therefore, the ground-state wave function is the single slater-determinant.

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \det[\varphi_1 \varphi_2 \dots \varphi_N] \quad (2.33)$$

And the density is

$$\rho(r) = \sum_{\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\sigma}} |\varphi_{i\sigma}(r)|^2 = \rho_{\alpha}(r) + \rho_{\beta}(r) \quad (2.34)$$

The energy functional is

$$E[\rho_{\alpha}, \rho_{\beta}] = T_s[\rho] + J[\rho] + E_{xc}[\rho_{\alpha}, \rho_{\beta}] + \int v_{ext}(r) \rho(r) d^3r \quad (2.35)$$

$T_s[\rho]$  is the non-interacting kinetic energy functional, the  $J[\rho]$  is the Hartree energy functional and the  $E_{xc}[\rho]$  is called exchange-correlation energy functional. The exchange energy is from the Pauli-expulsion and the correlation is from the approximation of single slater-determinant. The complexity of system is inside the exchange-correlation functional. And finally we take the density derivative of the energy functional, we get the Schrödinger-like equation

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H}_{KS} \varphi_{i\sigma}(r) &= \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 + v_{\text{eff},\sigma}(r) \right] \varphi_{i\sigma}(r) = \varepsilon_{i\sigma} \varphi_{i\sigma}(r), \\ i &= 1, 2, \dots, N_{\sigma}, \end{aligned} \quad (2.36)$$



where  $v_{eff,\sigma}$  is the effective KS potential and  $\sigma$  is the spin index. The effective potential is

$$v_{eff,\sigma} = v_{ext}(r) + \frac{\delta J[\rho]}{\delta \rho_\sigma(r)} + \frac{\delta E_{xc}[\rho_\alpha, \rho_\beta]}{\delta \rho_\sigma(r)} \quad (2.37)$$

where  $v_{xc,\sigma}(r)$  is the exchange-correlation potential

$$v_{xc,\sigma}(r) = \frac{\delta E_{xc}[\rho_\alpha, \rho_\beta]}{\delta \rho_\sigma(r)} \quad (2.38)$$

The KS equations are solved self-consistently. One guesses the initial density at first and then solves the KS equation to get the new density from new orbitals until the convergence.

## 2.2.2 Optimized Effective Potential method and Krieger-Li-Iafrate approximation

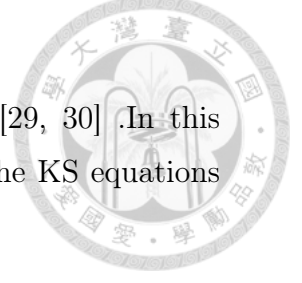
The self-interaction is from the classical Coulomb repulsion. The effect of self-interaction should be cancelled by exchange-correlation functional, but for most of exchange-correlation functionals, the self-interaction correction is not consider. One of the most important error is the incorrect long-range tail of Kohn-Sham potential, which will affect the ionization energy. Therefore, the self-interaction correction is crucial for excited states.

Perdew and Zunger proposed the self-interaction correction(SIC)[28] by giving the approximate exchange-correlation energy functional  $E_{xc}[\rho_\alpha, \rho_\beta]$ ,

$$E_{xc}^{SIC}[\rho_\alpha, \rho_\beta] = E_{xc}[\rho_\alpha, \rho_\beta] - \sum_{\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\sigma}} \{J[\rho_{i\sigma}] + E_{xc}[\rho_{i\sigma}, 0]\} \quad (2.39)$$

where  $\rho_{i\sigma}$  is the one-electron density of the  $i$ th KS spin orbital.

However, the SIC energy functional is explicit orbital-dependence, so for each electron orbital they have different potentials. That cause each orbital to be nonorthogonal and be complicated.



Another approach is the optimized effective potential method[29, 30]. In this approach, one solves the set of one-electron equations, similar to the KS equations in Eq. 2.36.

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{H}_{OEP}\varphi_{i\sigma}(r) &= [-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + v_{\sigma}^{OEP}(r)]\varphi_{i\sigma}(r) = \varepsilon_{i\sigma}\varphi_{i\sigma}(r), \\ i &= 1, 2, \dots, N_{\sigma}\end{aligned}\tag{2.40}$$

The optimized effective potential  $v_{\sigma}^{OEP}(r)$  is obtained by the orbitals  $\{\varphi_{i\sigma}\}$  in Eq. 2.40 which minimized the energy functional  $E[\varphi_{i\alpha}, \varphi_{j\beta}]$ ,

$$\frac{\delta E_{xc}[\{\varphi_{j\sigma}\}]}{\delta v_{\sigma}^{OEP}(r)} = 0\tag{2.41}$$

Eq. 2.41 can be written as, using chain rule for functional derivative,

$$\sum_j \int d^3r' \frac{\delta E^{OEP}[\varphi_{i\alpha}, \varphi_{i'\beta}]}{\delta \varphi_{j\sigma}(r')} \frac{\delta \varphi_{j\sigma}(r')}{v_{\sigma}^{OEP}(r)} + c.c. = 0\tag{2.42}$$

Eq. 2.42 leads to an integral equation that is complicated. Krieger, Li and Iafrate[31, 32, 33] make an approximate procedure to simplify the original OEP integral equations into the set of linear equations. Although the KLI procedure can't reach the exact exchange functional, it reduces the computational difficulty and the its result is pretty close to OEP method.

### 2.2.3 KLI-SIC method

The OEP method and KLI approximation uses the exchange part of the density functional contains a Hartree-Fock-like nonlocal functional.

$$E_x^{exact}[\{\varphi_{j\sigma}\}] = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\sigma} \sum_{i,j=1}^{N_{\sigma}} \int d^3r \int d^3r' \frac{\varphi_{i\sigma}^*(r') \varphi_{j\sigma}(r') \varphi_{i\sigma}(r) \varphi_{j\sigma}(r)}{|r - r'|}\tag{2.43}$$

Even though Eq. 2.43 provides more accurate exchange potential, it's computationally more expensive than the traditional DFT functional with only local functional. Therefore, we present the extension of KLI procedures to the SIC term[34, 35]

in Eq. 2.39. This new KLI-SIC procedure can speed up the static DFT calculation and time dependent DFT calculation. This KLI-SIC procedure make the self-interaction-free effective potential orbital-independent. In other word, this avoid the problems with respect to nonorthogonal spin-orbitals. And the KLI-SIC procedure give the optimized effective potential with the correct long-range behavior( $-1/r$ ) in Fig. 2.6 and surprisingly improvement of ionization energy and excited states.

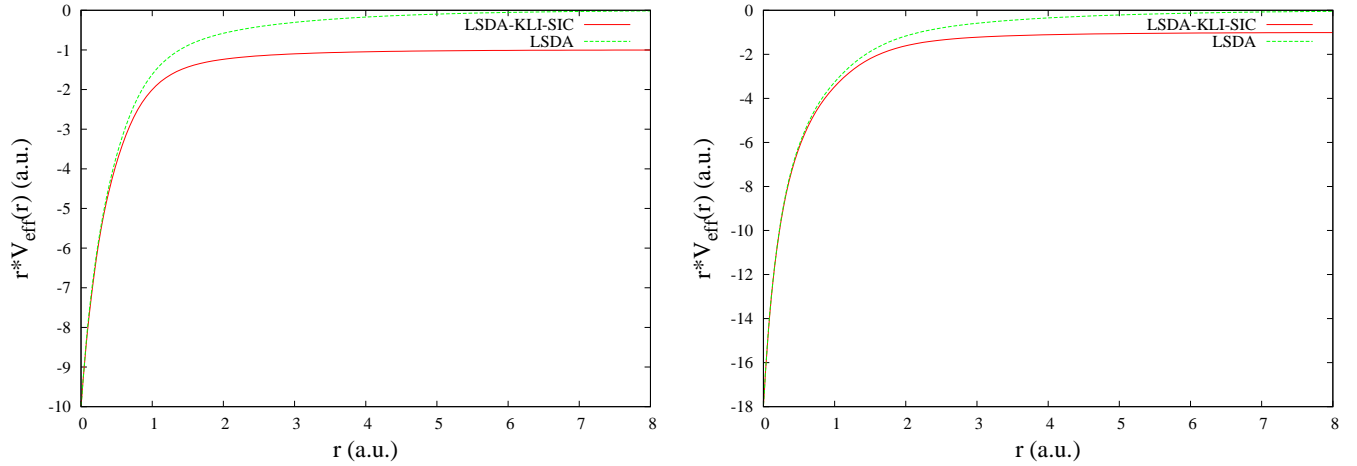


Figure 2.6: The effective potential  $rV_{eff}$  with the LSDA and LSDA-KLI-SIC in neon and argon(left to right).

Define the total energy functional with SIC to be

$$E_{SIC}^{OEP}[\{\varphi_{i\alpha}, \varphi_{j\beta}\}] = E^{OEP}[\{\varphi_{i\alpha}, \varphi_{j\beta}\}] - \sum_{\sigma} \sum_i \{J[\rho_{i\sigma}] + E_{xc}[\rho_{i\sigma}, 0]\} \quad (2.44)$$

where  $E^{OEP}[\{\varphi_{i\alpha}, \varphi_{j\beta}\}]$  is normal energy functional in Eq. 2.35. Following the OEP-KLI procedure, one finds that

$$v_{SIC,\sigma}^{OEP}(r) = v_{ext}(r) + \int \frac{\rho(r')}{|r-r'|} d^3r' + \frac{\delta E_{xc}[\rho_{\alpha}, \rho_{\beta}]}{\delta \rho_{\sigma}(r)} + v_{SIC,\sigma}(r), \quad (2.45)$$

where

$$v_{SIC,\sigma} = \sum_i \frac{\rho_{i\sigma}(r)}{\rho_{\sigma}} \{v_{i\sigma}(r) + \bar{v}_{SIC,\sigma}^i - \bar{v}_{i\sigma}\}, \quad (2.46)$$

$$v_{i\sigma} = - \int \frac{\rho_{i\sigma}(r')}{|r-r'|} d^3r' - \frac{\delta E_{xc}[\rho_{i\sigma}, 0]}{\delta \rho_{i\sigma}(r)} \quad (2.47)$$



and

$$\bar{v}_{SIC,\sigma}^i = \langle \varphi_{i\sigma} | v_{SIC,\sigma}(r) | \varphi_{i\sigma} \rangle \quad (2.48)$$

$$\bar{v}_{i\sigma} = \langle \varphi_{i\sigma} | v_{i\sigma}(r) | \varphi_{i\sigma} \rangle \quad (2.49)$$

The value of the  $\bar{v}_{SIC,\sigma}$  is unknown, but we can solve it through linear equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N_\sigma-1} (\delta_{ji,\sigma} - M_{ji,\sigma}) (\bar{v}_{SIC,\sigma}^i - \bar{v}_{i\sigma}) = \bar{v}_{j\sigma}^s - \bar{v}_{j\sigma} \quad (2.50)$$

where

$$M_{ji,\sigma} = \int \frac{\rho_{j\sigma}(r) \rho_{i\sigma}}{\rho_\sigma} d^3r \quad (2.51)$$

and

$$\bar{v}_{i\sigma}^s = \langle \varphi_{i\sigma} | \sum_{j=1}^{N_\sigma} \frac{\rho_{j\sigma}(r) v_{j\sigma}(r)}{\rho_\sigma(r)} | \varphi_{i\sigma} \rangle \quad (2.52)$$

The highest occupied orbital dominates the potential at the long-range. We choose  $\bar{v}_{SIC,\sigma}^{i=N_\sigma} = \bar{v}_{N_\sigma}$  to make sure the potential has correct asymptotic behavior.

## 2.2.4 TD-KLI-SIC method

We extend the KLI-SIC method into the time dependent system. The basic theorem of time dependent density functional theory is from Runge and Gross[36], mainly the similar structure of HK theorem and KS scheme. We'll give the main theorems of TDDFT. More detail proofs and discussions can be found in.

First theorem, there is a one-to-one correspondence between time dependent density and time dependent potential for any fixed initial states. In general, potential, hamiltonian and wave function is the functional of the time dependent density. This is the basic existence theorem of TDDFT.

Second theorem, we define the action  $A$  of the many-body system as the functional of many-body wave function,

$$A[\psi] = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \langle \psi(t) | i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \hat{H}(t) | \psi(t) \rangle \quad (2.53)$$



If the variation of the action is

$$\delta A[\psi] = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \langle \delta\psi(t) | i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \hat{H}(t) | \psi(t) \rangle + \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \langle \psi(t) | i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \hat{H}(t) | \delta\psi(t) \rangle \quad (2.54)$$

We do integration by parts in the second term:

$$\delta A[\psi] = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \langle \delta\psi(t) | i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \hat{H}(t) | \psi(t) \rangle + \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \langle (i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \hat{H}(t)) \psi(t) | \delta\psi(t) \rangle + i \langle \psi(t) | \delta\psi(t) \rangle \Big|_{t_1}^{t_2} \quad (2.55)$$

The third term is zero because of the boundary condition on  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ . The  $\delta A[\phi] = 0$  leads to the time dependent Schrödinger equation  $(i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \hat{H}(t))\phi(t) = 0$ . With the first theorem, the wave function is the functional of density, so we define

$$A[\rho] = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \langle \varphi[\rho](t) | i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \hat{H}(t) | \varphi[\rho](t) \rangle \quad (2.56)$$

And we rewrite the Eq. 2.56 as

$$A[\rho] = A_0[\rho] - \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \int d^3r \rho(r, t) v(r, t) \quad (2.57)$$

The action  $A_0$  is the universal functional from kinetic and electron-electron interaction term. The time dependent density can be solved from the variational principle.

$$\frac{\delta A[\rho]}{\delta \rho(r, t)} = 0 \quad (2.58)$$

Eq. 2.58 leads to the set of one-electron time dependent Schrödinger-like equation (TD Kohn-Sham equation).

$$(-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + v_{eff,\sigma}(r, t))\varphi_{i\sigma}(r, t) = i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \varphi_{i\sigma}(r, t) \quad (2.59)$$

where the effective potential is

$$v_{eff}(r, t) = v(r, t) + \int \frac{\rho(r', t)}{|r - r'|} dr' + \frac{\delta A_{xc}[\rho]}{\delta \rho(r, t)} \quad (2.60)$$

The last term is the time dependent exchange-correlation potential.



The OEP method is also available in the time dependent system[37].

$$\frac{A_{xc}[\varphi]}{v_{eff,\sigma}^{OEP}[(r,t)]} \quad (2.61)$$

We present the TD-KLI-SIC method with adiabatic approximation[38]. The action is defined as

$$A_{xc}^{SIC} = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt E_{xc}^{SIC}[\rho_0]_{\rho_0 \rightarrow \rho(r,t)} \quad (2.62)$$

The adiabatic approximation means that the system is only dependent on instant time. The derivative of the action  $A_{xc}^{SIC}$  leads to the time dependent potential,

$$v_{xc,\sigma}^{SIC}(r,t) = \frac{\delta E_{xc}[\rho_\alpha, \rho_\beta]}{\delta \rho_\sigma(r,t)} + v_{SIC,\sigma}(r,t) \quad (2.63)$$

where

$$v_{SIC,\sigma}(r,t) = \sum_i \frac{\rho_{i\sigma}(r,t)}{\rho_\sigma(r,t)} \{v_{i\sigma}(r,t) + \bar{v}_{SIC,\sigma}^i(t) - \bar{v}_{i\sigma}(t)\}, \quad (2.64)$$

$$v_{i\sigma}(r,t) = - \int \frac{\rho_{i\sigma}(r',t)}{|r-r'|} d^3r' - \frac{\delta E_{xc}[\rho_{i\sigma}, 0]}{\delta \rho_{i\sigma}(r,t)} \quad (2.65)$$

We solve the  $v_{SIC,\sigma}(r,t)$  with the same procedures as before.

Finally, we solve the TDKS Eq. 2.60 with TDGPS method. We define  $\hat{H}^0$  as

$$\hat{H}^0 = -\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 - \frac{Z}{r} + v_{\sigma,eff}(r,0) \quad (2.66)$$

And

$$\hat{V}(r,t) = v[\rho]_{\sigma,eff}(r,t) - v_{\sigma,eff}(r,0) \quad (2.67)$$

Therefore, we have to solve the static Kohn-Sham equation by the self-consistency. And we follow the TDGPS method that we discuss before to propagate the wave function.

## 2.3 Implement of numerical methods on graphics processing unit

In this section, I'll give simple introduction about GPU and how to implement TDGPS on GPU. I recommend this book for beginner[39].



### 2.3.1 GPU architecture

Fig. 2.8 shows the architecture of the CUDA-capable graphic processing unit(GPU), which is composed of many streaming multiprocessors(SMs). CUDA is the abbreviation of compute unified device architecture developed by NVIDIA. CUDA is the hardware and software architecture for the programmers who can develop and execute the programs in C, C++, Fortran and other languages. The programmer organizes the threads in blocks and grids of blocks in the program, which is called kernel, compile and execute. The programmer don't worry about how the GPU executes the threads and only focus on how to organize the threads. When executing a kernel, the machine will distribute the threads to SMs in the blocks. And for each SMs, the threads in the same block will be distribute to stream processors(SPs) in a SM in Fig. 2.7. In the Tesla K20, there are 13 SMs and 192 SPs in single SM. In general, a group of 32 threads forms a warp to hide the latency, so the threads in a warp was executed by the same SM. If threads are not organized well, the performance of the GPU would be bad. Therefore, we need to know the architecture in order to exploit the the power from GPU.

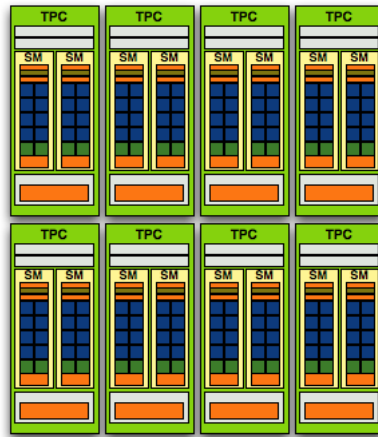


Figure 2.7: GPU architecture.

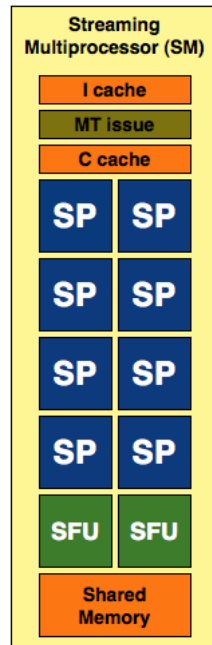


Figure 2.8: SM architecture.

GPU has several memory spaces, mainly global, shared, register. The memory is crucial for speeding up the programs. The register memory is for each thread. It's very small, of scale of ten bytes but the fastest. The shared memory is for each block, so the threads in the same block share the shared memory which is of the scale of kilo-bytes. The global memory is of the scale of giga-bytes and it can be accessed by any thread but it's slower than shared memory and register memory. Even though the global memory is not faster, it's still far faster than CPU memory. Among all the memory access, the slowest one is the communication between CPU and GPU, so we minimize data transferring between them.

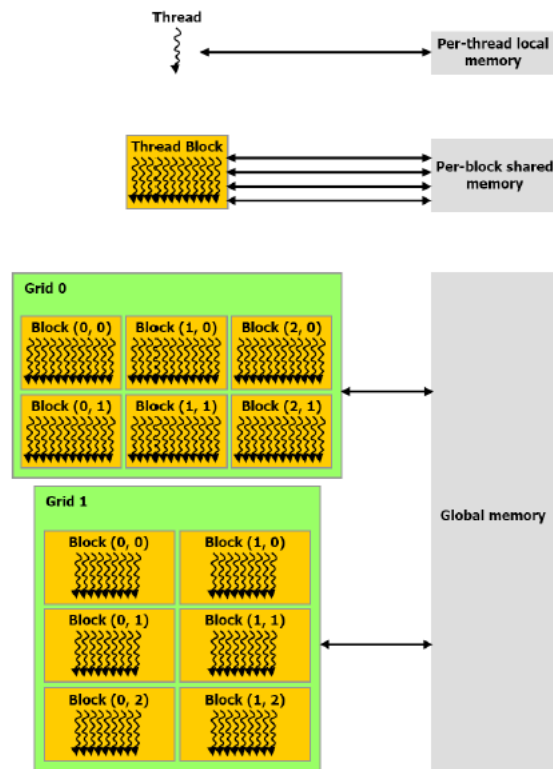


Figure 2.9: GPU Memory.



### 2.3.2 Implementation on GPU

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**Algorithm 1** pseudocode for TDGPS on GPU

---

**Input:**  $\psi(r, 0), \exp(-iH^0\delta t/2), \text{Grid points}(r_i, \theta_j), \delta t$

**Output:**  $O(t)$  (Observables in each time step)

- 1: Allocate and Transfer GPU device memory for  $\psi(r, t), \exp(-iH^0\delta t/2), \text{Grid points}(r_i, \theta_j)$
  - 2: **for**  $t = 0$  to  $t = t_{max}$  **do**
  - 3:   Operation  $\psi_1(r, t) = \exp(-iH^0\delta t/2)\psi(r, 0)$
  - 4:   Operation  $\psi_2(r, t) = \exp(-iV(r, \theta, t)\delta t)\psi_1(r, t)$
  - 5:   Operation  $\psi(r, \delta t) = \exp(-iH^0\delta t/2)\psi_2(r, t)$
  - 6:   Operation  $\langle \psi(r, \delta t) | \hat{O} | \psi(r, \delta t) \rangle$
  - 7:    $\psi(r, 0) = \psi(r, \delta t)$
  - 8: **end for**
  - 9: Transfer  $O(t)$  from GPU to CPU
- 

Here we show the pseudocode for TDGPS on GPU. Because we solve Schrödinger equation at only one time, we can do that on CPU. Next step is to allocate and transfer GPU device memory for wave functions, operators and grid points. This is a basic and important programming technique. Just like preparing ingredients for the cooking. The crucial part is to perform time propagation on GPU. Fortunately, we use the CUBLAS library to perform matrix-matrix and matrix-vector multiplications and it really reduces the difficulty of programming. But we still have to program some parts which the CUBLAS can't include. Finally, we transfer data from GPU to CPU and print the results. For TDDFT, we solve the static Kohn-Sham equations on CPU because we do that only one time. And in the each time propagation, we have to calculate the effective potential which is the functional of the time dependent density.



### 2.3.3 Result

	GPU	CPU	ratio
He	60.030	221.487	3.69
Ne	210.561	781.637	3.71
Ar	350.625	1282.828	3.69

Figure 2.10: Runtime of the TDGPS and TD-KLI-SIC on one GPU and 16-cores CPU with different atoms. (nvidia Kepler K20(GPU) and Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-2690 2.9GHz(16 cores CPU))

Here we show that we speed up our program on GPU. We use the intel mkl library and openmp on multi-core CPU and use the CUBLAS library and parallel the programs on GPU. In our workstation, there are four GPU cards and we can also execute all of these cards at the same time. But I want to say there are some limitations on GPU. There only 5 GB on each GPU card, so we can't put the data more than 5 GB on single GPU card. Even for four cards, the maximum memory is still only 20 GB which is not large enough for some AMO problems with thousands grid points. How to reduce the data on time propagation is the main question in our research.



## Chapter 3

# Result and Discussion

In this chapter, we show the result of the calculation and give explanations of the phenomena.

### 3.1 Hydrogen

Hydrogen atoms is the simplest system in all atoms. We don't need to use any approximations about multi-electron effect(only one electron).

We solve the time-dependent Schrödinger equation by TDGPS method.

$$i\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\varphi(r,t) = [-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{r} + v_{\text{ext}}(r,t)]\varphi(r,t) \quad (3.1)$$

The laser fields are polarized along z-axis:

$$v_{\text{ext}}(r,t) = -z[\varepsilon_X(t) + \varepsilon_L(t)] \quad (3.2)$$

The SAP field can be defined as follow:

$$\varepsilon_X(t) = F_X \exp(-\frac{2\ln(2)(t-t_d)^2}{\tau_X^2}) \cos(\omega_X(t-t_d)) \quad (3.3)$$

Here,  $F_X$  is the peak field strength of the SAP,  $\tau_X = 140\text{as}$  is its full width at half maximum(FWHM), and  $\omega_X = 13.6\text{ eV}$  is its central frequency(here we choose the laser frequency as the ionization energy of 1s orbital because we want to excite



atoms). The SAP peak intensity is  $1 \times 10^{10} \text{W/cm}^2$ . The parameter  $t_d$  represents the time delay between the NIR and SAP; the negative time delay refers to the SAP arriving first. The NIR field has the form:

$$\varepsilon_L(t) = F_L \exp\left(-\frac{2 \ln(2)t^2}{\tau_L^2}\right) \cos(\omega_L t) \quad (3.4)$$

Here,  $F_L$  is the peak field of the NIR pulse,  $\tau_L$  fs is its FWHM, and  $\omega_L$  is the central frequency of the NIR field (here we choose the laser wavelength as 800 nm [ $\omega_L = 1.55$  e.V] and 656 nm [ $\omega_L = 1.89$  e.V]). The NIR laser peak intensity is  $1 \times 10^{12} \text{W/cm}^2$ .

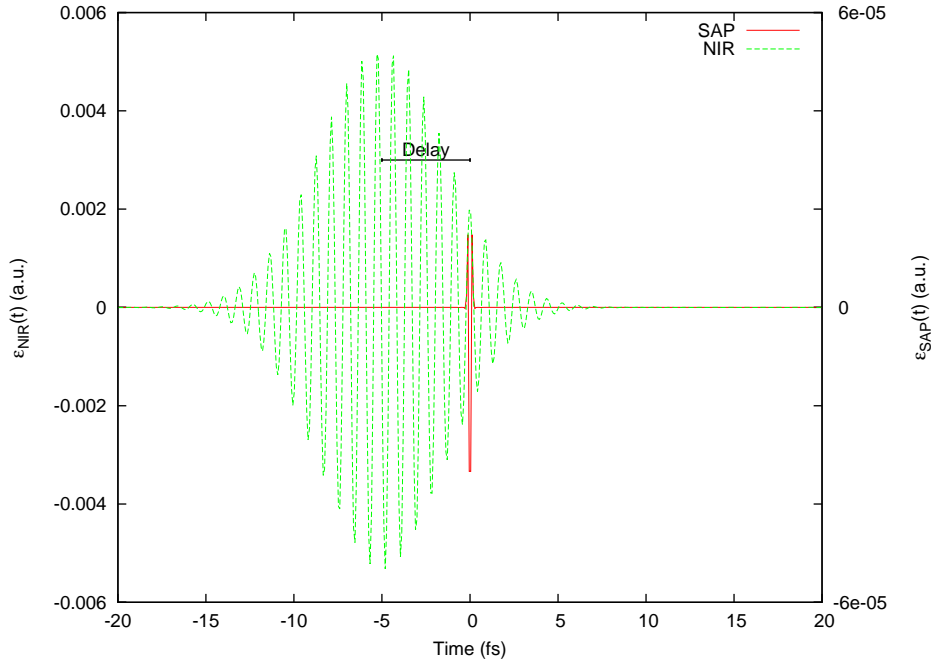


Figure 3.1: Illustration of SAP and NIR with time delay -5 fs.

After the time-propagation procedure, the dipole moment and the dipole acceleration can be expressed as follow:

$$d(t) = \langle \varphi(r, t) | r | \varphi(r, t) \rangle \quad (3.5)$$

$$a(t) = \langle \varphi(r, t) | \nabla \left( \frac{1}{r} - v_{\text{ext}}(r, t) \right) | \varphi(r, t) \rangle \quad (3.6)$$

The spectral density of the radiation energy is given by the following expression:

$$S(\omega) = \frac{2}{3\pi c^3} \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} a(t) \exp(-i\omega t) dt \right|^2 \quad (3.7)$$

Here  $\omega$  is the frequency of radiation,  $c$  is the velocity of light.  $S(\omega)$  has the meaning of the energy emitted per unit frequency.

In the calculation, we use 128 radial and 32 angular grid points and the time step  $\frac{2\pi}{\omega_L 1024}$  (nearly 0.1 a.u.). The maximum radius is 60 a.u. and we place absorber between 40 a.u. and 60 a.u. describe the ionization process. The time delay was varied in steps of  $\Delta t_d = 20$ as within the range of  $-20\text{fs} \leq t_d \leq 20\text{fs}$  (2048 steps in total).





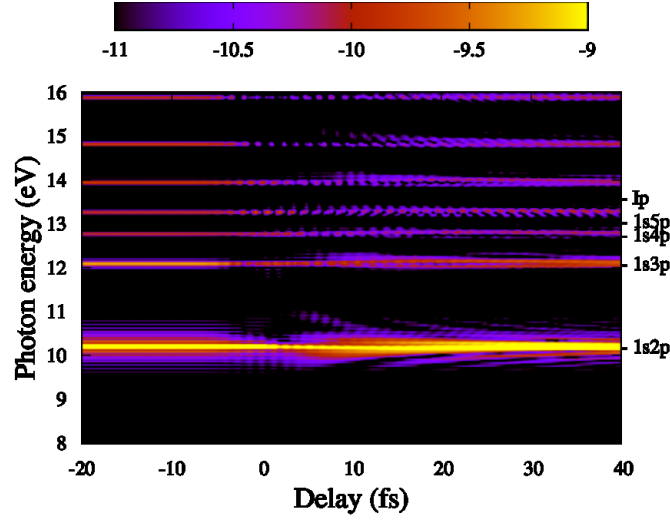


Figure 3.2: Photon emission energy spectrum of the excited states ( $2p[3s - 5s]$  and  $2p[3d - 4d]$ ) as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP. The yellow color indicates the highest energy emitted. The color bars are represented by the  $\log_{10} S(\omega)$  of the spectral density in Eq. 3.7

In Fig. 3.2 we show the 3D plot of the photon emission spectrum as a function of  $t_d$  for the excited states  $1snp (n \leq 5)$ . The higher excited states ( $1s4p$  and  $1s5p$ ) are shifted by the pondermotive potential  $U_p$  of the NIR field, where  $U_p = \frac{\varepsilon_L^2}{(2\omega_L)^2}$ ; for the field strength and frequency used,  $U_p = 0.17$  eV.

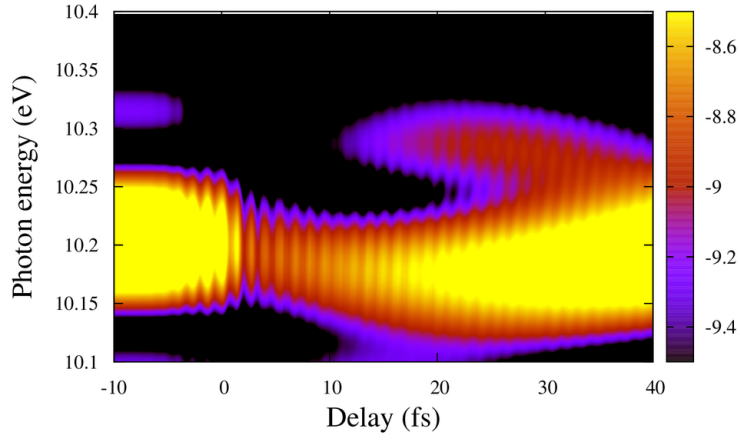


Figure 3.3: Photon emission energy spectrum of the 1s2p excited state as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

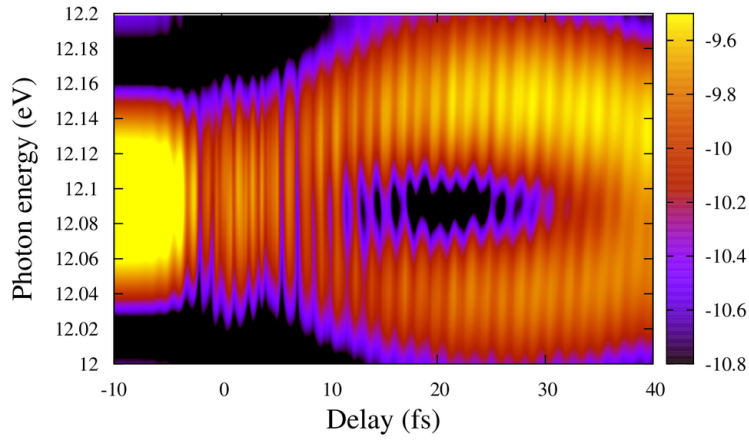


Figure 3.4: Photon emission energy spectrum of the 1s3p excited state as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

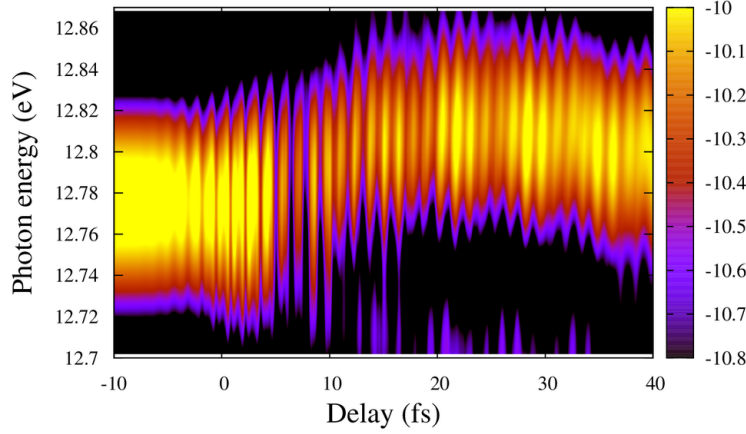


Figure 3.5: Photon emission energy spectrum of the 1s4p excited state as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

The density plots of the photon emission spectrum in Fig. 3.3-3.5 depict the transition from 1s2p, 1s3p and 1s4p as the function of  $t_d$ . We can observe the oscillation structure in the region where the NIR and SAP overlap. The period of the oscillation is 1.1 fs, which is half of the NIR laser optical cycle. This phenomenon was also observed in theoretical calculation where they use absorption spectra[12].

In Fig. 3.3 and Fig. 3.4 we observe the splitting of the lines near  $t_d \sim 10$ fs. The electron absorbs one XUV photon to  $np$  states and then absorbs more NIR photons to forbidden states,  $ns$  or  $nd$ . If we try the NIR with wavelength of 656nm, the transition is more obvious. The splitting has been known as result of Autler-Townes effect[40]. We can identify this splitting by the Hamiltonian without some of the excited states. For 1s2p transition, we choose the  $t_d = 10$ fs and remove 3s and 3d states in the Hamiltonian and for 1s3p transition we choose the  $t_d = 10$ fs and remove 2s states in the Hamiltonian in Fig. 3.2. The splitting disappears in both of them and make sure this splitting can be explained in terms of two-photon absorption and emission process. The SAP excites the ground state to  $1snp$  states; then the NIR

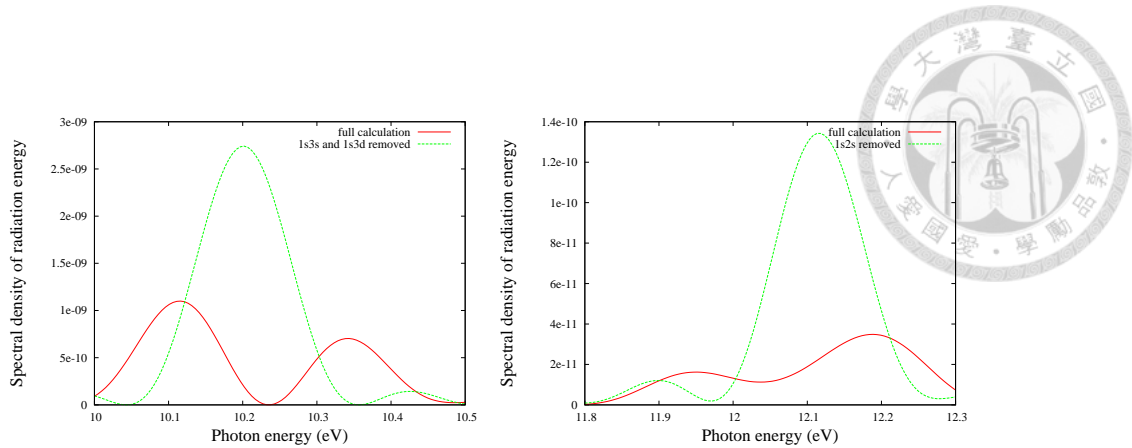


Figure 3.6: (left) Energy emitted near  $1s2p$  transition (right) Energy emitted near  $1s3p$  transition

couples these states to forbidden states  $1sns$  and  $1snd$  which causes splitting and shift.

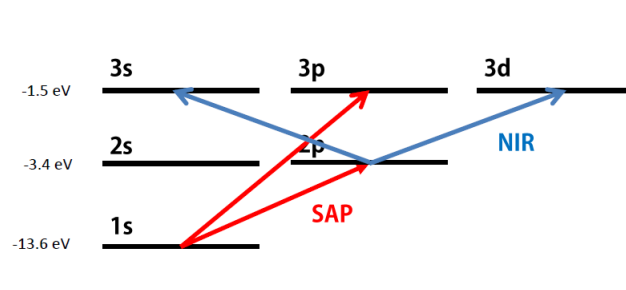


Figure 3.7: Illustration of Autler-Townes effect in hydrogen. When SAP comes first, the electron can be excited to  $np$  orbitals. The NIR is not weak for excited states, so it can make  $2p3s$  and  $2p3d$  transition happen.

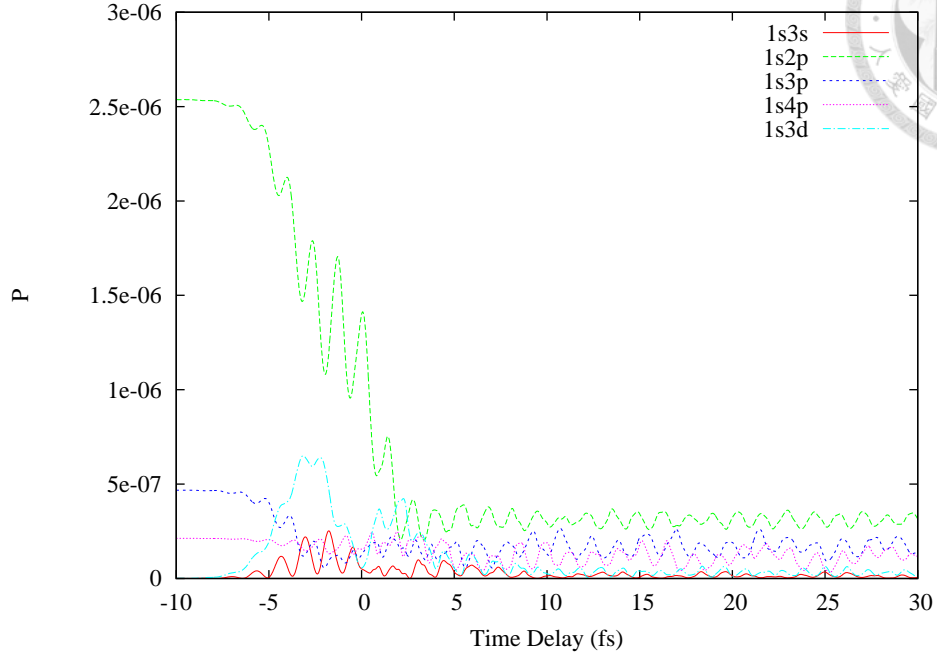


Figure 3.8: Population of several excited states as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP. The center frequency of NIR is 800 nm.

Here we calculate the populations of the excited states in Fig. 3.8. We can see the resonances between the  $1s2p$  and  $1s3s$  and  $1s3d$  states, when  $1s2p$  population goes down, and the  $1s3s$  and  $1s3d$  go up in the region where SAP and NIR overlap ( $-8 \leq t_d \leq 8$ ). The  $1s2p$  state is substantially ionized or excited to forbidden states in the two photon absorption, SAP and NIR photon.

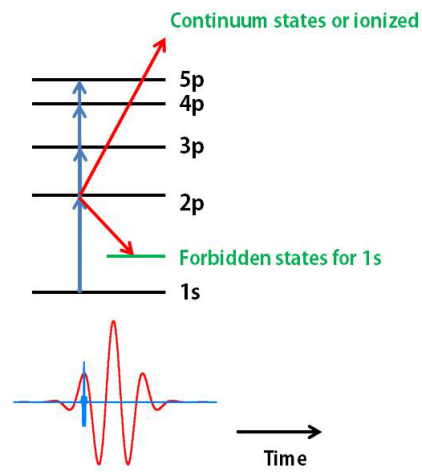
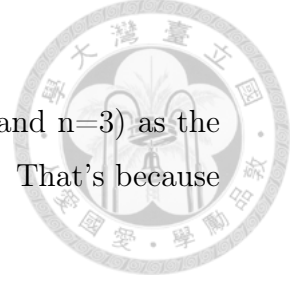


Figure 3.9: Illustration of two photon absorption.



And we try use the 656nm(=1.89 eV, energy different the  $n=2$  and  $n=3$ ) as the NIR frequency. The excited states  $1s3s$  and  $1s3d$  are more obvious. That's because of Autler-Townes effect and it's also shown in [12].

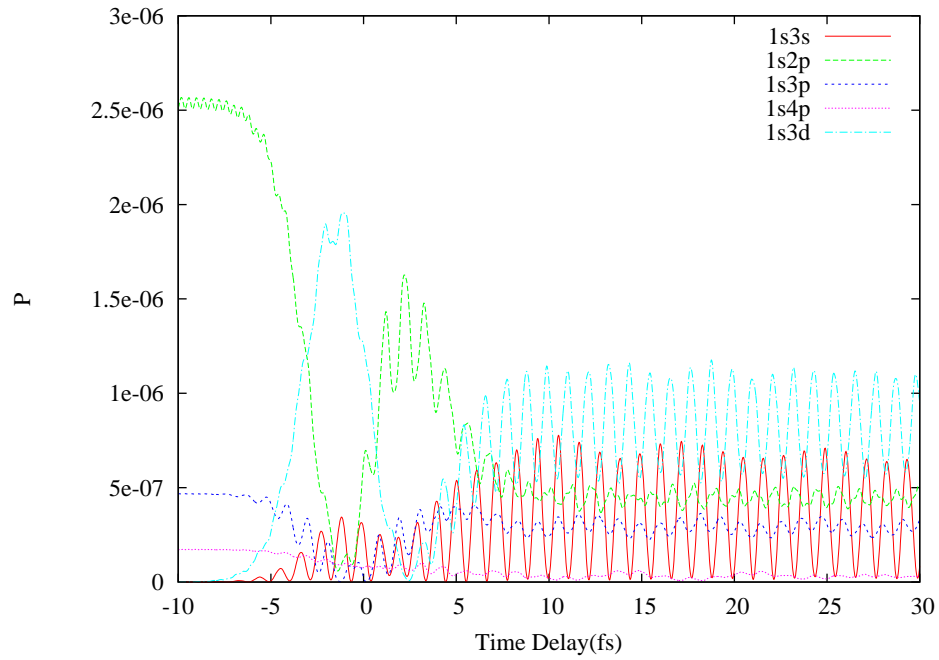


Figure 3.10: Population of several excited states as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP. The center frequency of NIR is 800 nm.



## 3.2 Helium

Next atom is Helium, which has two electrons on 1s orbital. To obtain the time-dependent electron density and calculate the induced dipole moments, one has to solve a set of the time-dependent Kohn-Sham equations for the spin-orbitals  $\varphi_{i\sigma}(r, t)$ :

$$i\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\varphi_{i\sigma}(r, t) = [-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 - \frac{Z}{r} + v_{\text{ext}}(r, t) + V_{\sigma}^{\text{KLI}}(r, t)]\varphi_{i\sigma}(r, t), i = 1, \dots, N_{\sigma} \quad (3.8)$$

Here the  $Z = 2$  is the nucleus charge and  $v_{\text{ext}}$  is the interaction of the electron with the external field. Compared with Eq. 3.1, we add the  $V_{\sigma}^{\text{KLI}}(r, t)$  from the TD-KLI-SIC procedure to describe electron correlation effect.

Here we use the same laser pulse and parameters as we do in hydrogen, but we change the central frequency of the NIR to 750 nm and increase the NIR peak intensity to  $3 \times 10^{12} \text{W}/\text{cm}^2$ .



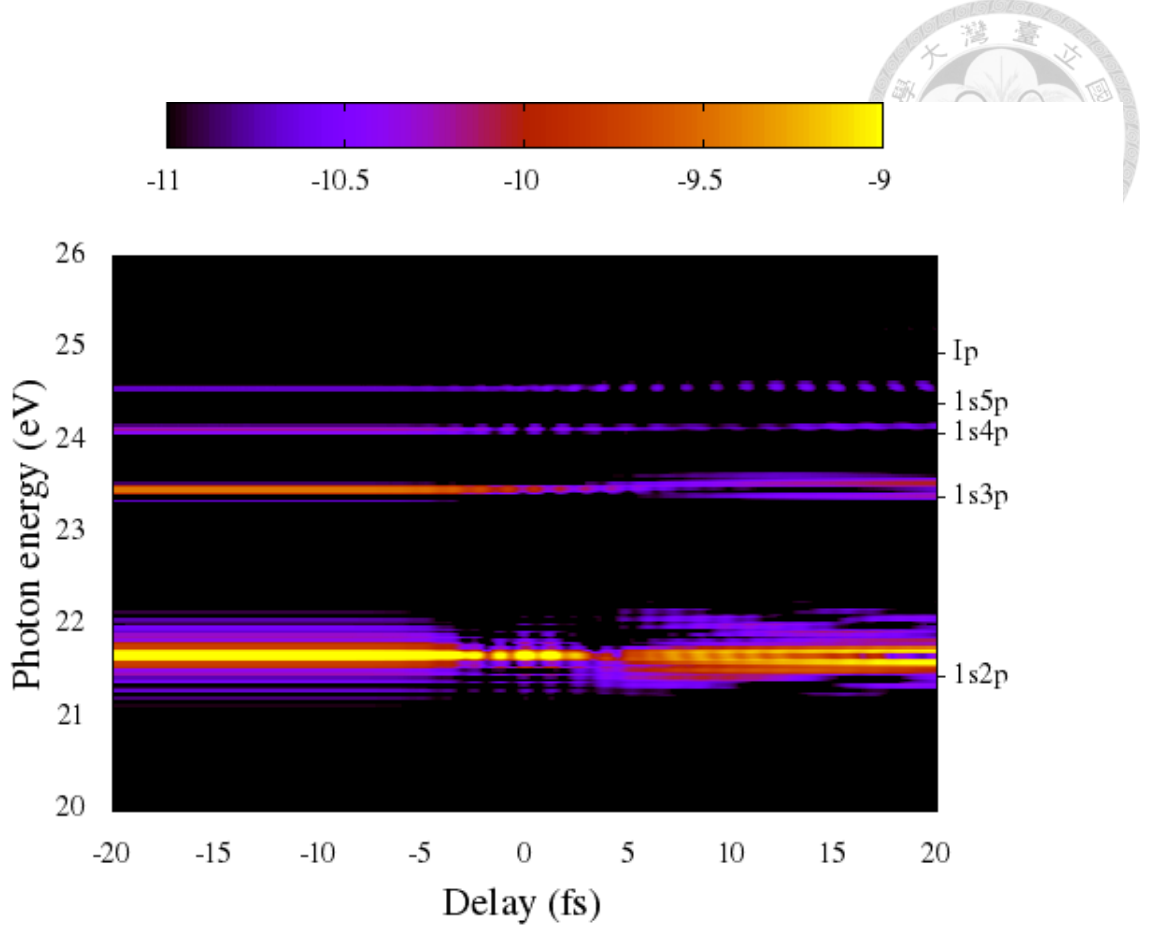


Figure 3.11: Photon emission energy spectrum of the excited states ( $1s[2p - 5p]$ ) as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP. The yellow color indicates the highest energy emitted. The color bars are represented by the  $\log_{10} S(\omega)$  of the spectral density in Eq. 3.7

In Fig. 3.11 we show the 3D plot of the photon emission spectrum as a function of  $t_d$  for the excited states  $1snp(n \leq 5)$ . The higher excited states ( $1s4p$  and  $1s5p$ ) are shifted by the pondermotive potential  $U_p$  of the NIR field, where  $U_p = \frac{\varepsilon_L^2}{(2\omega_L)^2}$ ; for the field strength and frequency used,  $U_p = 0.15$  eV.

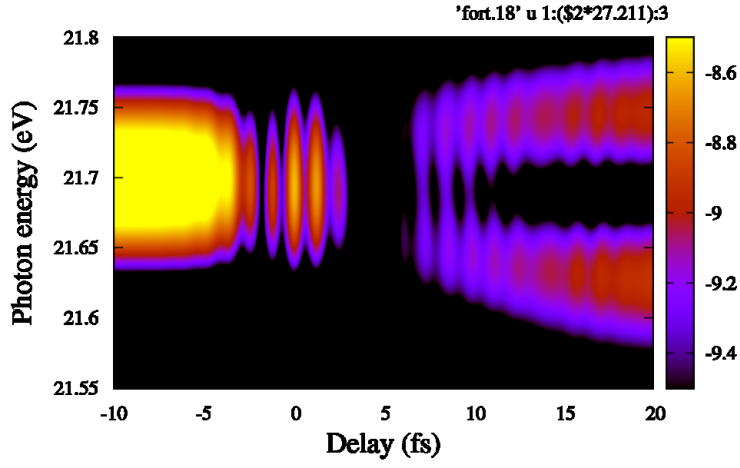


Figure 3.12: Photon emission energy spectrum of the 1s2p excited state as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

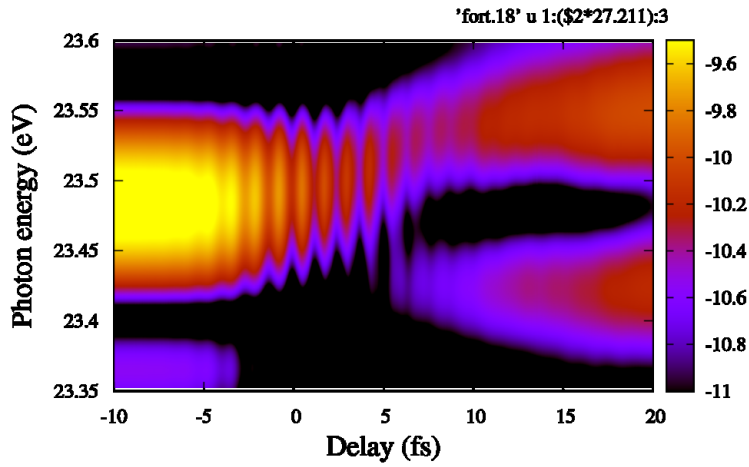


Figure 3.13: Photon emission energy spectrum of the 1s3p excited state as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

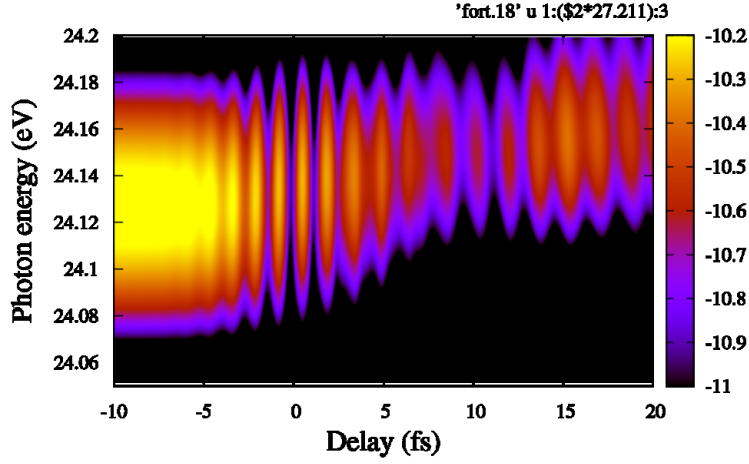


Figure 3.14: Photon emission energy spectrum of the  $1s4p$  excited state as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

We show the more clearer 3D plot of photon emission spectrum transition from  $1s2p$ ,  $1s3p$  and  $1s4p$  in Figs. 3.12-3.14. In the region where the NIR pulse and SAP overlap ( $-8 \leq t_d \leq 8$  fs), the photon emission lines have oscillations with a period of 1.3 fs, which is half of the NIR laser optical cycle. This is a instantaneous shift of the electronic energy levels in the NIR laser field(or instantaneous Stark shift[41, 42, 43, 44]). This phenomena was also observed in recent experimental works[16, 15] where the transient absorption technique was used.

In Fig. 3.12 and 3.13 we see the splitting of the lines in the photon emission spectrum. It's understood as Autler-Townes effect[40]. We can remove some of excited states in Hamiltonian like we've done in hydrogen atoms. But for  $1s3p$  in helium atoms, we found the splitting is not from the  $2s$  state but the other  $nd$  states.

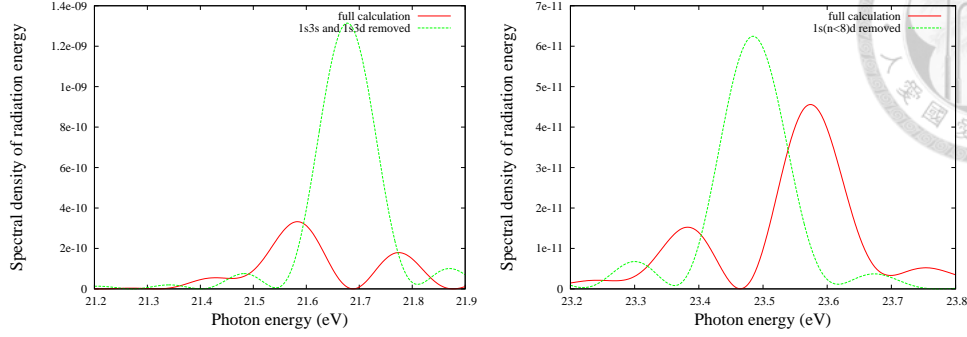


Figure 3.15: (left) Energy emitted near 1s2p transition (right) Energy emitted near 1s3p transition

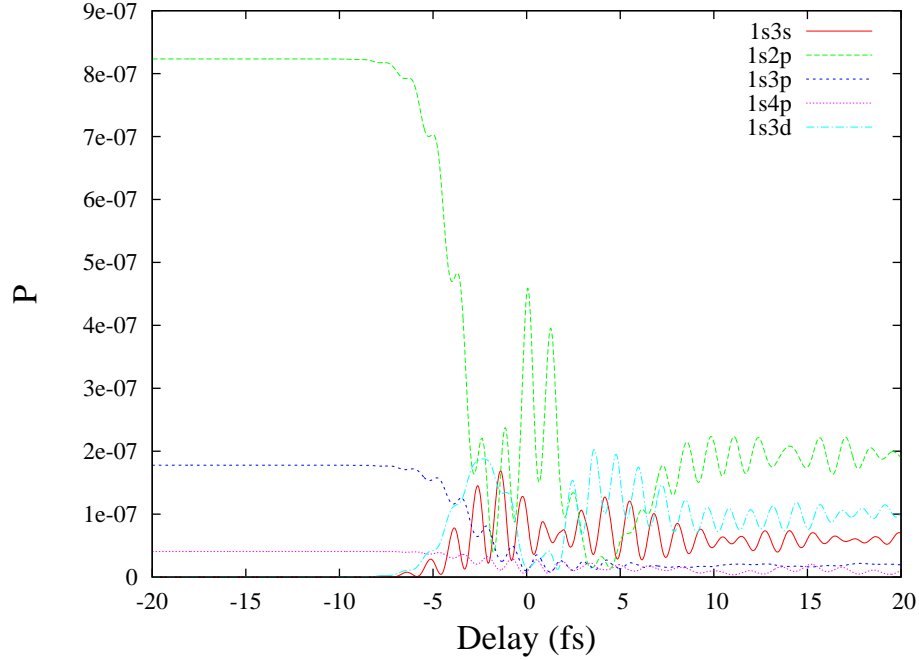
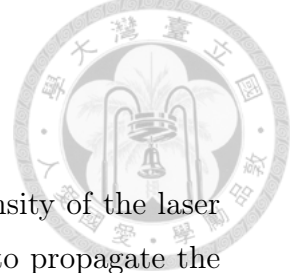


Figure 3.16: Population of several excited states as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

Here we show the population of the several excited states as a function of the time delay. Before the overlapping of two pulses ( $t_d \leq -8$ fs), the population of 1s3s and 1s3d are zero because of selection rule. The population of 1s2p , 1s3p and

$1s4p$  are straight line when NIR pulse comes first because NIR pulse is too weak to change the population of excited state. But for the region where the NIR and SAP ( $-8 \leq t_d \leq 8\text{fs}$ ), the NIR pulse is not weak for excited states. The population of  $1s3s$  and  $1s3d$  are increasing and oscillation with period of subcycle as the decreasing of  $1s2p$ . Even for  $t_d \geq 8\text{fs}$ , we can still observe the oscillation.



### 3.3 Neon

Neon has ten electrons with configuration  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$ . Because intensity of the laser field is weak to ionize the inner shell electrons  $1s^2$ , we don't need to propagate the  $1s$  orbital. And for  $p$  orbitals, we need to identify the  $2p_{m=0}^2$  on  $z$ -axis and  $2p_{m=1}^4$  on  $xy$ -plane because of laser field. To obtain the time-dependent electron density and calculate the induced dipole moments, one has to solve a set of the time-dependent Kohn-Sham equations for the spin-orbitals  $\varphi_{i\sigma}(r, t)$ :

$$i\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\varphi_{i\sigma}(r, t) = [-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 - \frac{Z}{r} + v_{\text{ext}}(r, t) + V_{\sigma}^{\text{KLI}}(r, t)]\varphi_{i\sigma}(r, t), i = 1, \dots, N_{\sigma} \quad (3.9)$$

Here the  $Z = 10$  is the nucleus charge and  $v_{\text{ext}}$  is the interaction of the electron with the external field. Compared with Helium, we have 4 orbitals and it's a little complicated. But we use the SAP with center frequency 0.808 eV (the ionization energy of  $2p$ ) and the laser field is on  $z$ -axis, so we focus on the transition of  $2p_0$ .

In the calculation, we use 256 radial and 32 angular grid points and the time step  $\frac{2\pi}{1024\omega_L}$  (nearly 0.1 a.u.). The maximum radius is 100 a.u. and we place absorber between 60 a.u. and 100 a.u. describing the ionization process. The time delay was varied in steps of  $\Delta t_d = 20\text{as}$  within the range of  $-20\text{fs} \leq t_d \leq 20\text{fs}$  (2048 steps in total).

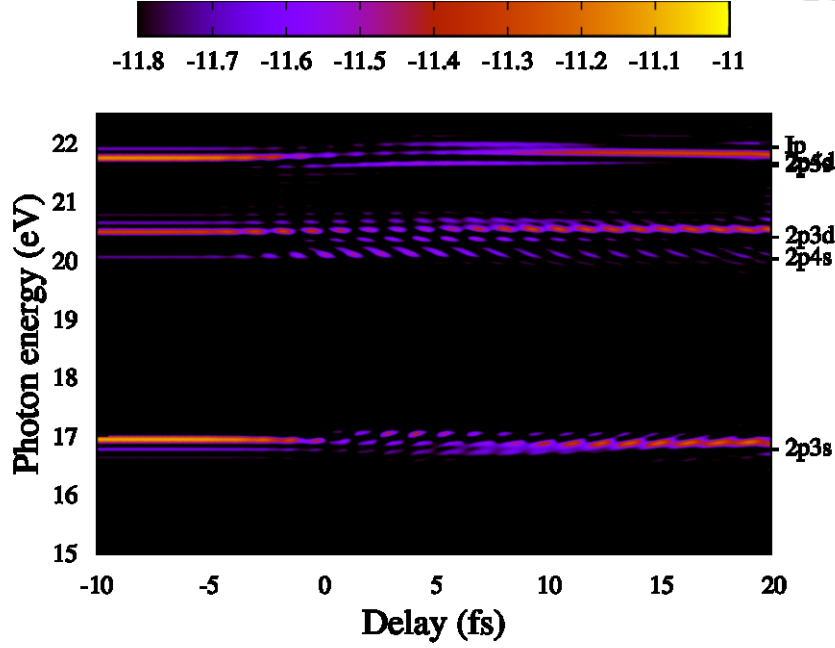


Figure 3.17: Photon emission energy spectrum of the excited states ( $2p[3s - 5s]$  and  $2p[3d - 4d]$ ) as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP. The yellow color indicates the highest energy emitted. The color bars are represented by the  $\log_{10} S(\omega)$  of the spectral density in Eq. 3.7

In Fig. 3.17 we show the 3D plot of the photon emission spectrum as a function of  $t_d$  for the excited states  $2p[3s - 5s]$  and  $2p[3d - 4d]$ . The higher excited states ( $1s4p$  and  $1s5s$ ) are shifted by the pondermotive potential  $U_p$  of the NIR field, where  $U_p = \frac{\epsilon_L^2}{(2\omega_L)^2}$ ; for the field strength and frequency used,  $U_p = 0.15$  eV. The other transition can be seen only if we zoom in the plot on next page.

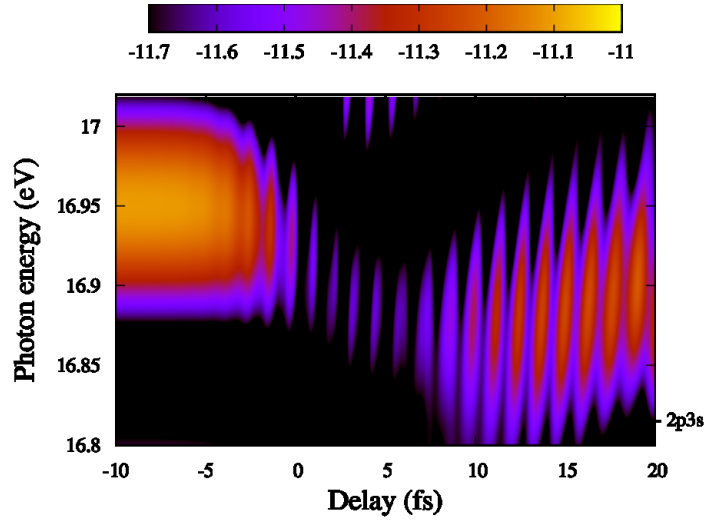


Figure 3.18: Photon emission energy spectrum of the 2p3s excited state as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

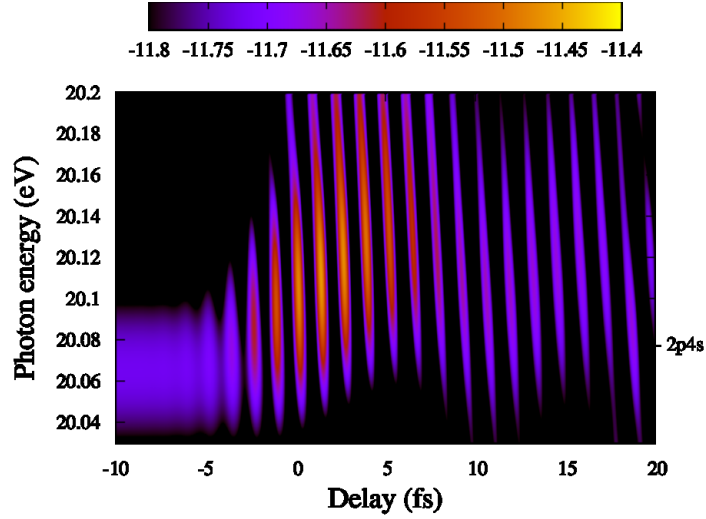


Figure 3.19: Photon emission energy spectrum of the 2p4s excited state as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.



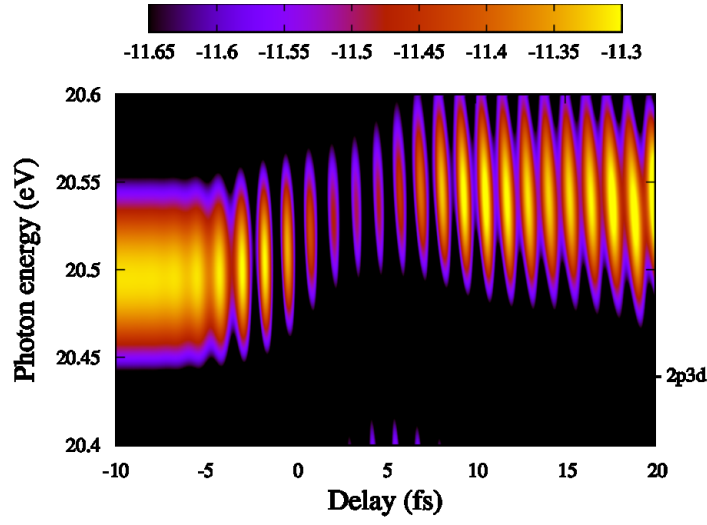


Figure 3.20: Photon emission energy spectrum of the 2p3d excited state as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

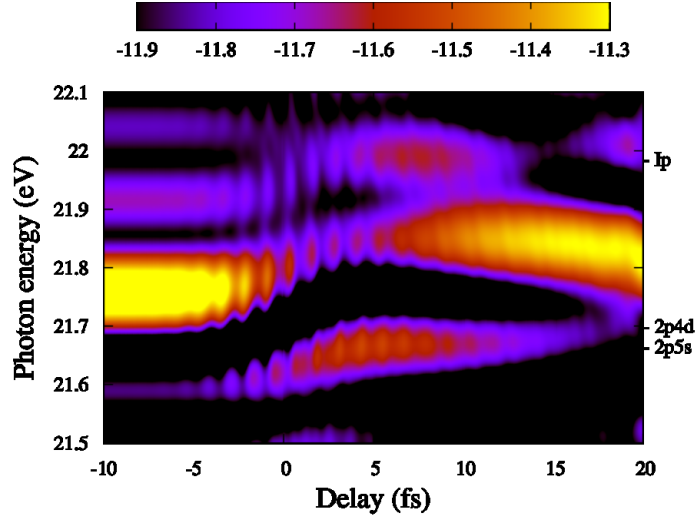
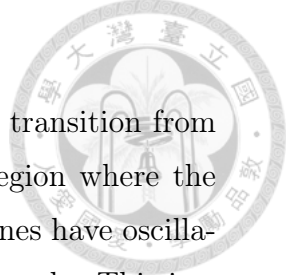


Figure 3.21: Photon emission energy spectrum of the 2p5s , 2p4d and 2p6s(down to up) excited states as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.



We show the more clearer 3D plot of photon emission spectrum transition from  $2p3s$ ,  $2p4s$ ,  $2p5s$ ,  $2p6s$ ,  $2p3d$  and  $2p4d$  in Figs. 3.18-3.21. In the region where the NIR pulse and SAP overlap ( $-8 \leq t_d \leq 8$  fs), the photon emission lines have oscillations with a period of 1.3 fs, which is half of the NIR laser optical cycle. This is a instantaneous shift of the electronic energy levels in the NIR laser field (or instantaneous Stark shift). This phenomena was also observed in recent experimental works where the transient absorption technique was used[20]. Compared with Helium, the transition from  $2p$  is more complicated because  $p$  orbitals can go to  $s$  and  $d$  orbitals. Moreover, their energies are sometimes close to one other in Fig. 3.21, so it's hard to identify each excited states. We don't see the Aulter-Townes effect in the photon emission spectra, but we can observe the population of  $np$  orbitals and it's too weak to show.

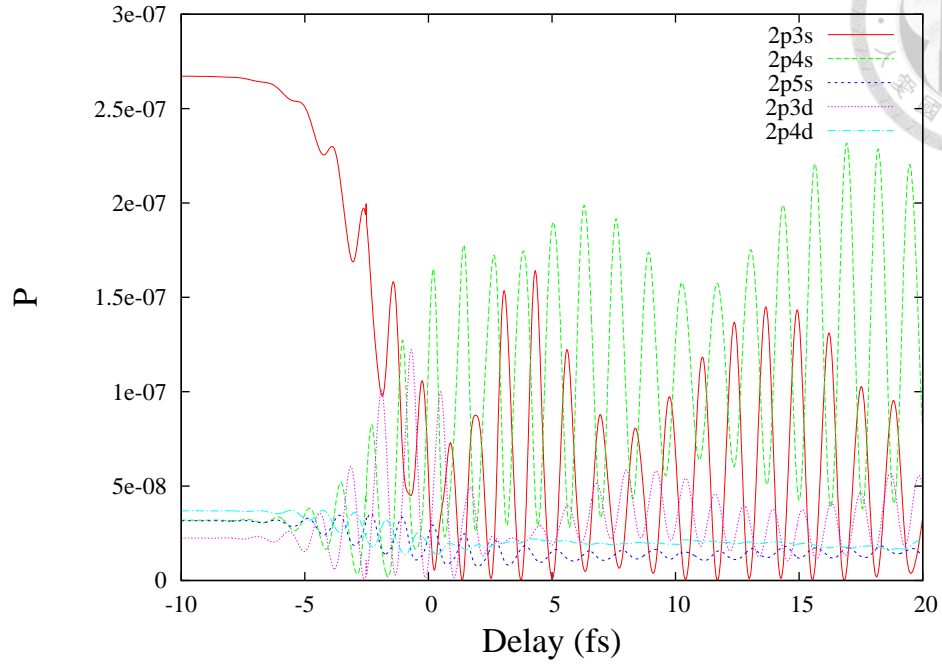


Figure 3.22: Population of several excited states as a function of the time delay between the NIR pulse and SAP.

Here we show the population of excited state as the function of the time delay. In the region where the NIR and SAP overlap we can see the  $2p3s$  decreasing and  $2p4s$  and  $2p3d$  populating. These are also shown on the photon emission spectra. We also see the populations of excited states are changed with period of half optical cycle.



## Chapter 4

# Conclusions and Perspectives

In this thesis, we present the 3D calculation of the hydrogen, helium and neon atoms in NIR laser field subject to excitation by a SAP. We use the TD-KLI-SIC including the electron correlation effect and proper long-range potential and solve time dependent Kohn-Sham equation nonperturbatively with TDGPS method.

We have explored the subcycle dynamical behavior of the photon emission with respect to many transition with hydrogen, helium and neon atoms on a subfemtosecond time scale as the function of time delay. We observe the oscillation structure with a period of half optical cycle. Moreover, we find the Aulter-Townes effect and the population of excited states involving NIR and SAP photons absorption and ionization in subcycle time scales. Even for neon atoms with ten-electron, the TD-KLI-SIC is still available for the complicated system. In the future, we'll research the argon atoms and more intense laser field with TD-KLI-SIC.



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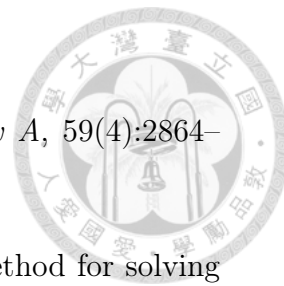
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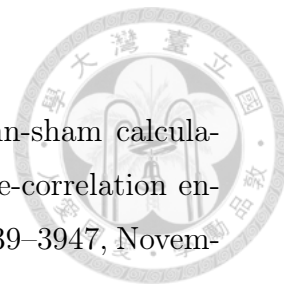


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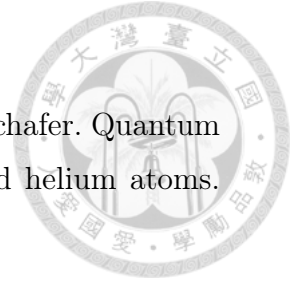


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