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# Quantum optimal control theory for electron dynamics

Alberto Castro

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# 7th Benasque TDDFT School, Benasque (Spain), 12-19.09.2016



Instituto Universitario de Investigación Biocomputación y Física de Sistemas Complejos Universidad Zaragoza



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# Control of quantum phenomena: past, present and future

### Constantin Brif, Raj Chakrabarti<sup>1</sup> and Herschel Rabitz<sup>2</sup>

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New Journal of Physics 12 (2010) 075008 (68pp)

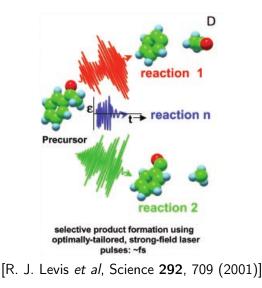
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# Basic idea, in a cartoon



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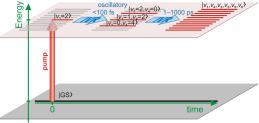
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## Mono-chromatic lasers

- Lasers (coherent, monochromatic, intense light) promised to deliver precise control of quantum systems
- Initially, the first attempts to control molecules (i.e. "photo-selective chemistry") were based on tuning the laser frequency to specific bonds
- Those attempts were seldom successful, due to "intramolecular vibrational redistribution".



 Analogous problems will appear in other quantum control attempts, beyond molecular photo-chemistry.

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# Interferences, and the "two pathway" scheeme

- [P. Brumer and M. Shapiro, Chem. Phys. Lett. 126, 541 (1986)]
  - Use of two monochromatic lasers with commensurate frequencies for creating quantum interference between two reaction pathways.
  - By tuning the phase difference between the two laser fields, it is possible to control the branching ratios of molecular reactions.
  - It produces modest results, perhaps a modulation of 50% in branching rations of chemical reactions.

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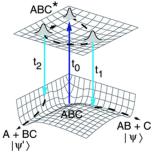
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# Pump and dump

[D. J. Tannor and S. A. Rice J. Chem. Phys. 83, 5013 (1985)]



 Limitations: knowledge of the potential energy surfaces, competing processes.

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### Adaptive feedback control

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### **Teaching Lasers to Control Molecules**

Richard S. Judson<sup>(a)</sup> Center for Computational Engineering, Sandia National Laboratories, Livermore, California 94551-0969

#### Herschel Rabitz

Department of Chemistry, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey 08544 (Received 26 August 1991)

We simulate a method to teach a laser pulse sequences to excite specified molecular states. We use a learning procedure to direct the production of pulses based on "fitness" information provided by a laboratory measurement device. Over a series of pulses the algorithm learns an optimal sequence. The experimental apparatus, which consists of a laser, a sample of molecules, and a measurement device, acts as an analog computer that solves Schrödinger's equation *exactly*, in real time. We simulate an apparatus that learns to excite specified rotational states in a diatomic molecule.

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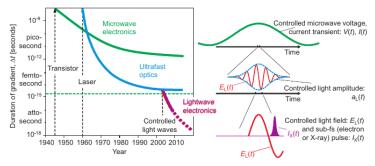
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# Laser technology: The road to atto-second physics



[Krausz & Ivanov, Rev. Mod. Phys. 81, 169 (2009)]

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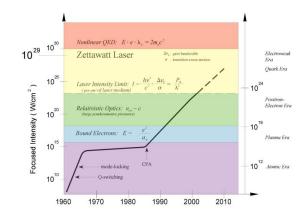
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# Laser technology: increase in intensities



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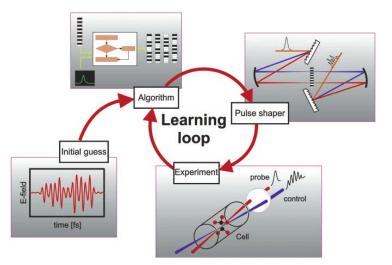
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# The learning loop



[H. Rabitz et al, Science 288, 824 (2000)]

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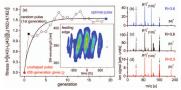
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# Examples of AFC experiments: Photo-dissociation reactions in molecules



FIG. 1. (Color online) Optimal tailoring of intense femtosecond light can be used to preferentially break peptide bonds, such as the indicated N1–C3 bond in the amino acid complex Ac-Phe-NHMe.



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["Coherent control of bond breaking in amino acid complexes with tailored femtosecond pulses", Laarmann et al, J. Chem. Phys. **127**, 201101 (2007)]

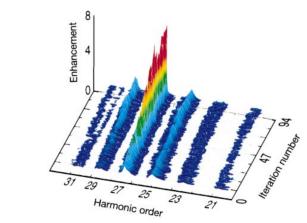
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["Shaped-pulse optimization of coherent emission of high-harmonic soft X-rays", R. Bartels, Nature **406**, 164 (2000)]

# Examples of AFC experiments: Multiphoton transitions

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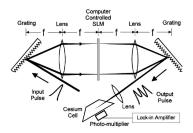


FIG. 4. Experimental arrangement for two-photon transitions in Cs gas. The programmable 4–f pulse shaper was composed of a pair of diffraction gratings with 1200 lines/mm, and a pair of achromat lenses with a 100-mm focal length. A programmable onedimensional SLM with 128 computer controlled discrete elements was placed at the Fourier plane of the shaper, and was used as a dynamic filter for spectral phase manipulation of the pulses. The shaped output pulses were focused using a lens with a 50 mm focal length into the Cs gas cell. The fluorescence signal at ~460 nm was detected by the photomultipier and the lock-in amplifier.

["Coherent quantum control of two-photon transitions by a femtosecond laser pulse", Meshulach and Silberberg, Nature **396**, 239 (1998)]

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Examples of AFC experiments: other

- Multi-photon ionization of atoms.
- Electronic excitation in molecules (fluorescence is used as the probe to build the merit function).

- Molecular alignment.
- Photo-induced electron transfer between molecules
- Photo-isomerization of molecules.
- etc.

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# What makes experimental "control" possible

- Existence of laser sources, since the 1960's.
- ► *Femto*-second laser sources, which allow for fast processes (avoiding decoherence), and extending the band-width.

- High-intensities.
- Laser shapers.
- Learning-loops algorithms.

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# "Classical" optimal control theory

Typical formulation of a (general) optimal control problem:

Dynamical system:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}(t) &= f(x(t), u(t), t) \\ x(0) &= x_0 \end{aligned}$$

Typically, u = u(t). But it can be a set of parameters whatsoever.

Minimize the cost functional:

$$F[x, u] = F^{\text{terminal}}[x(T), u] + \int_0^T dt \ L(x(t), u(t)]$$

• Since  $u \to x[u]$ , it amounts to minimizing

$$G[u] = F[x[u], u]$$

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## Essential theoretical results

- Pontryagin's minimum principle (1956) [V.G. Boltyanskii, R.V. Gamkrelidze, and L.S. Pontryagin, "Towards a theory of optimal processes", (Russian), Reports Acad. Sci. USSR 110, 1 (1956)] It provides a *necessary* condition for the minimum – in practice, typically, an expression for ∇G[u] so that the equation ∇G[u] = 0 can be posed.
   Hamiltan, Jacabi Ballman, acusticn (1054)
- Hamilton-Jacobi-Bellman equation (1954) (Theory of "dynamic programming", Richard Bellman)
   [R.E Bellman, "Dynamic Programming and a new formalism in the calculus of variations" Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. 40, 231 (1954)]

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## Essential theoretical results

- Simpler approaches: direct or gradient-less algorithms. They only require a means to compute G[u] (i.e. a method to propagate the dynamical equation and compute the resulting cost or target functional).
  - The most fashionable, the families of *evolutionary* or *genetic* algorithms.
  - Our choices:
    - The simplex algorithm [J.A. Nelder and R. Mead, Computer Journal 7, 308 (1965)], and
    - the NEWUOA algorithm [M. J. D. Powell, IMA J. Numer. Anal. 28, 649 (2008)].

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## Pontryagin's minimum principle

### If we define the "Hamiltonian"

 $H(\lambda(t),x(t),u(t),t)=\lambda^{\dagger}(t)f(x(t),u(t),t)+L(x(t),u(t))$ 

where  $\lambda$  is the "costate", an object of the same kind of x, the following holds:

1. The optimal control  $u^0$ , trajectory  $x^0$  and costate  $\lambda^0$  minimize H at all times:

$$H(\lambda^0(t), x^0(t), u^0(t), t) \leq H(\lambda(t), x(t), u(t), t)$$

2. The costate verifies the following equation of motion:

$$\dot{\lambda}^{0\dagger}(t) = \lambda^{0\dagger}(t) \frac{\delta f}{\delta x}(x^0(t), u^0(t)) + \frac{\delta L}{\delta x}(x^0(t), u^0(t))$$

$$\lambda^{0\dagger}(T) = \frac{\delta}{\delta x} F^{\text{terminal}}[x^0(T), u^0(T)]$$

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### Quantum optimal control theory

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}[\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_M; t]$$

$$\begin{aligned} i \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} |\Psi(t)\rangle &= \hat{H}[\boldsymbol{u};t] |\Psi(t)\rangle \\ |\Psi(t_0)\rangle &= |\Psi_0\rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\Psi(t_0) \longrightarrow \Psi[\mathbf{u}](t) \longrightarrow \Psi[\mathbf{u}](T)$$

Maximize a quantity

$$F = F[\Psi[\mathbf{u}](t)],$$

that depends on the system evolution, or final state, or both.

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# Main equations: computation of the gradient

$$F[\Psi, u] = J_1[\Psi(T)] + J_2[u]$$

 $G[u] = F[\Psi[u], u]$ 

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial u_m} = \frac{\partial J_2}{\partial u_m} + 2 \mathrm{Im} \int_0^T \mathrm{d}t \langle \chi(t) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}}{\partial u_m} | \Psi(t) \rangle \,,$$

where the "costate"  $\chi$  verifies:

$$i \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} |\chi(t)\rangle = \hat{H}(t) |\chi(t)\rangle \,,$$

$$|\chi(T)\rangle = \frac{\delta}{\delta\Psi^*(T)}F[\Psi(T)]$$

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### Derivation

**1** A system is governed by the Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}[u](t) = \hat{\mathcal{H}} + \epsilon[u](t)\hat{V}$ , so that its evolution is given by:

$$\mathrm{i}\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\hat{\rho}[u](t) = \left[\hat{H}[u](t), \hat{\rho}[u](t)\right], \hat{\rho}[u](t_0) = \hat{\rho}_{\mathrm{init}},$$

where u is a real parameter that determine the precise shape of the real function  $\epsilon$ .

Given the function  $G[u] = \text{Tr}\{\hat{\rho}[u](t_f)\hat{A}\}$  (the expectation value of some observable  $\hat{A}$  at some final time  $t_f$ ), show that:

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial u}[u] = -i \int_{t_0}^{t_f} \mathrm{d}\tau \ \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial u}[u](\tau) \mathrm{Tr}\{\hat{\rho}[u](\tau) \left[\hat{A}[u](\tau), \hat{V}\right]\}.$$

where  $\hat{A}[u]$  is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \hat{A}[u](t) &= -i \left[ \hat{H}[u](t), \hat{A}[u](t) \right] \\ &\hat{A}[u](t_f) &= \hat{A} \,. \end{aligned}$$

These are the "QOCT equations".

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# Derivation Solution:

1. Obviously,  $\frac{\partial G}{\partial u}[u] = \lim_{\Delta u \to 0} \Delta u^{-1}(G[u + \Delta u] - G[u]).$ 

2. Note that G[u] corresponds to the propagation of the system with the Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}[u](t)$ , whereas  $G[u + \Delta u]$  corresponds to the propagation of the system with:

$$\hat{H}[u + \Delta u](t) = \hat{H}[u](t) + \Delta u \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial u}[u]\hat{V}.$$

3. Now we can use directly the LRT result of the previous problem, by making the identifications,

$$\hat{H}_0(t) = \hat{H}[u](t), \quad f(t) = \Delta u \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial u}[u](t).$$

and we arrive at:

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial u}[u] = \int_{t_0}^{\infty} d\tau \; \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial u}[u](\tau) \chi_{\hat{A},\hat{V}}(t_f,\tau) \; .$$

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### Derivation

# **2** Show that, for pure systems $(\hat{\rho}[u](t) = |\Psi[u](t)\rangle\langle\Psi[u](t)|)$ , the previous result is:

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial u}[u] = 2 \mathrm{Im} \int_{t_0}^{t_f} \mathrm{d}\tau \ \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial u}[u](\tau) \langle \chi[u](\tau) | \hat{V} | \Psi[u](\tau) \rangle \,.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\chi(t)\rangle &= -i\hat{H}[u](t)|\chi(t)\rangle \,,\\ |\chi(t_f)\rangle &= \hat{A}|\Psi[u](t_f)\rangle \,,\end{aligned}$$

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# Continuous control function

$$\hat{H}(t) = \hat{H}_0 + u(t)\hat{V}$$

$$F[\Psi, u] = J_1[\Psi(T)] + \alpha \int_0^T dt \ u^2(t)$$

$$G[u] = F[\Psi[u], u]$$

This is a linear-quadratic problem whose solution verifies:

$$\frac{\delta G}{\delta u(t)} = 2\alpha u(t) \operatorname{Im}\chi(t) |\hat{V}|\Psi(t)\rangle = 0$$

Some of the most succesful algorithms originally developed for QOCT (Krotov, Rabitz) assume this form. Cannot be used for more general target definitions, especially if one wishes to add constraints to the form of u.

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[AC, E. Räsänen, A. Rubio, and E. K. U. Gross, EPL 87, 53001 (2009)]

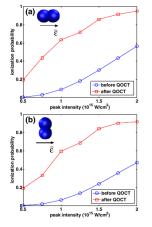


Fig. 1: (Color online) Ionization probability for the initial pulse (circles) and for the optimized pulse (squares) as a function of the peak intensity of the initial pulse. The polarization of the pulse is (a) parallel and (b) perpendicular to the molecule.

- Target: Maximal ionization of H<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> molecule (clamped nuclei).
- $F[\Psi(T)] = \langle \Psi(T) | \Psi(T) \rangle \sum_{\text{bound}} |\langle \Psi | \Psi_I \rangle|^2$
- Use of absorbing boundary conditions
- Use of *direct* optimization algorithm.
- ► Expansion of control field into a Fourier series ⇒ automatic existence of a frequency constraint.
- Further constraints: total length (5fs) and total fluence.

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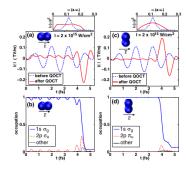


Fig. 2: (Color online) (a) initial and optimized pulses (parallel polarization) and their power spectra (in arbitrary units) and (b) the occupation of selected single-electron states in the optimized ionization process, when  $I = 2 \times 10^{-3} W/cm^2$ , (c), (d) Same as (a), (b) but for perpendicular polarization.

- Using a stringent frequency cut-off, the optimization attempts to build a peak with maximum intensity. With short, intense pulses, most ionization occurs during the maximum.
- With parallel orientation, zero carrier envelope phase (half-cycle pulse), and π/2 with perpendicular orientation.

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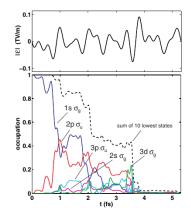


Fig. 4: (Color online) Upper panel: optimized laser pulse for the ionization when the cutoff frequency is  $4\,\omega o$  (see text) and the intensity is fixed to  $0.5\times 10^{15}\,W/cm^2$ . Lower panel: occupation of a few lowest states during the pulse interaction.

- Higher cut-off frequency implies more complicated structure for the optimal pulse.
- Ionization is not a direct ground-state to continuum step.

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# Optimal Control of Quantum Rings by Teraherz Laser Pulses

[E. Räsänen, AC, J. Werschnik, A. Rubio, and E. K. U. Gross, Phys. Rev. Lett. **98**, 157404 (2007)]

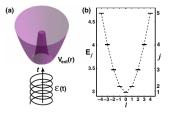


FIG. 1 (color online). (a) Shape of the external confining potential for a quantum ring and an example of a circularly polarized laser field. (b) Energy-level spectrum of a quantum ring. The transitions are allowed along the dashed line so that  $\Delta l = \pm 1$ .

- Electron trapped in a ring edged into a 2D semiconductor heterostructure (2D electron gas).
- Levels are coupled in a consecutive fashion, ordered by angular momentum.
- Use of a two-component laser pulse.
- The target is the population of any of the levels, from any of the other levels (precise control over the electronic current).

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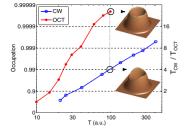
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# Optimal Control of Quantum Rings by Teraherz Laser Pulses



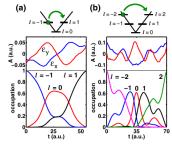


FIG. 3 (color online). Maximum occupation of the target state in transition  $|1\rangle - |2\rangle$  as a function of the pulse length. The open (blue) circles correspond to continuous waves and the filled (red) circles to the optimal-control result. The insets show the densities  $|\Psi(T = 100)|^2$  when the corresponding achieved occupations are 0.99 and 0.9998 for these pulse types, respectively.

FIG. 4 (color online). Schematic picture of transitions from l = -1 to l = 1 (a) and from l = -2 to l = 2 (b) (upper panel), optimized fields for these transitions (middle panel), and the occupations of the states (lower panel).

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### TDDFT in a nutshell

 Propagating the many-electron Schrödinger equation is a computationally demanding task.

$$i\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\Psi(x_1,\ldots,x_N;t) = \hat{H}(t)\Psi(x_1,\ldots,x_N;t).$$

Time-dependent density-functional theory substitutes it by the set of "time-dependent Kohn-Sham equations":

$$\begin{split} i \frac{\partial \varphi_i}{\partial t}(\vec{r},t) &= \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \varphi_i(\vec{r},t) + v_{\mathrm{Hartree}}[n](\vec{r},t) + v_{\mathrm{xc}}[n](\vec{r},t) + v_{\mathrm{ext}}(\vec{r},t;\boldsymbol{u}) \right] \varphi_i(\vec{r},t) \\ n(\vec{r},t) &= \sum_{i=1}^N 2 |\varphi_i(\vec{r},t)|^2 \,. \end{split}$$

- These are the equations of a non-interacting system of electrons, whose time-dependent density is identical to the real one.
- All observables are functionals of the time-dependent one-electron density n, even if sometimes the functional definition is unknown.

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### QOCT + TDDFT

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#### Controlling the Dynamics of Many-Electron Systems from First Principles: A Combination of Optimal Control and Time-Dependent Density-Functional Theory

A. Castro,1 J. Werschnik,2 and E. K. U. Gross3

<sup>1</sup>ARAID Foundation–Institute for Biocomputation and Physics of Complex Systems (BIFI) and Zaragoza Scientific Center for Advanced Modeling (ZCAM), University of Zaragoza, E-50018 Zaragoza, Spain <sup>2</sup>Jenoptik Optical Systems GmbH, Jena, Germany <sup>3</sup>Max-Planck-Institut für Mikrostrukturphysik, Weinberg 2, D-06120 Halle, Germany (Received 14 September 2010); revised manuscript received 16 February 2012; published 12 October 2012)

#### Also in:

AC and E. K. U. Gross, "Quantum Optimal Control", in "Fundamentals of Time-Dependent Density Functional Theory", edited by M.A.L. Marques, N. Maitra, F. Nogueira, E.K.U Gross. and Angel Rubio (Springer, Berlin, 2012), pages 265-276.

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# QOCT + TDDFT

► We have a system of N electrons, driven by an external potential v<sub>ext</sub>(r, t, u).

The time-dependent density is therefore determined by u:

 $\boldsymbol{u} \longrightarrow n[\boldsymbol{u}](\vec{r},t) = \langle \Psi[\boldsymbol{u}](t) | \hat{n}(\vec{r}) | \Psi[\boldsymbol{u}](t) \rangle$ 

The objective is to maximize some function G of the control parameters u, defined in terms of a functional of the density:

$$G[\boldsymbol{u}] = \tilde{F}[n[\boldsymbol{u}], \boldsymbol{u}] \,.$$

Since the definition is given in terms of the density, everything can be reformulated for the Kohn-Sham system, and the optimization will be equivalent. Since we use the Kohn-Sham substitution, we may use the Kohn-Sham orbitals instead:

 $F[\underline{\varphi}[u], u] \equiv \tilde{F}[n[u], u], \quad n[u](\vec{r}, t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\varphi_i[u](\vec{r}, t)|^2.$ 

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## QOCT + TDDFT

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### QOCT + TDDFT

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Optimal control theory equations for TDDFT (terminal target only):

$$\begin{aligned} u_{u}G[u] &= \nabla_{u}F[\underline{\varphi}[u], u] + \\ & 2\mathrm{Im}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N}\int_{0}^{T}\mathrm{d}t \left<\lambda_{i}[u](t)|\nabla_{u}\hat{H}[n[u](t), u, t]|\underline{\varphi}_{i}[u](t)\right>\right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{split} & \underline{\dot{\varphi}}[u](t) &= -i\underline{\hat{H}}[n(t), u, t]\underline{\varphi}[u](t) \,, \\ & \underline{\varphi}_u(0) &= \underline{\varphi}_0 \,, \\ & \underline{\dot{\lambda}}[u](t) &= -i\left[\underline{\hat{H}}[n(t), u, t] + \underline{\hat{K}}[\underline{\varphi}[u](t)]\right]\underline{\lambda}[u](t) \,, \\ & \underline{\lambda}[u](T) &= \frac{\delta F}{\delta \underline{\varphi}^*}[\underline{\varphi}[u](T), u] \,. \end{split}$$

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$$\underline{\dot{\lambda}}[u](t) \!=\! -i \left[\underline{\underline{\hat{H}}}^{\dagger}[n[u](t), u, t] + \underline{\underline{\hat{K}}}[\underline{\varphi}[u](t)]\right] \underline{\lambda}[u](t) \,,$$

$$\dot{\lambda}_i[u](t) = -i\hat{H}^{\dagger}[n[u](t), u, t]\lambda_i[u](t) - i\sum_{j=1}^N \hat{K}_{ij}[\underline{\varphi}[u](t)]\lambda_j[u](t)$$

$$\langle \vec{r} | \hat{K}_{ij}[\underline{\varphi}[\boldsymbol{u}](t)] | \lambda_j[\boldsymbol{u}](t) \rangle =$$

$$-2i\varphi_i[\boldsymbol{u}](\vec{r},t) \operatorname{Im}\left[ \int d^3 r' \lambda_j[\boldsymbol{u}]^*(\vec{r}',t) f_{\operatorname{Hxc}}[\boldsymbol{n}[\boldsymbol{u}](t)](\vec{r},\vec{r}') \varphi_j[\boldsymbol{u}](\vec{r}',t) \right]$$

$$f_{\operatorname{Hxc}}[\boldsymbol{n}[\boldsymbol{u}](t)](\vec{r},\vec{r}') = \frac{1}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|} + f_{\operatorname{xc}}[\boldsymbol{n}[\boldsymbol{u}](t)](\vec{r},\vec{r}')$$

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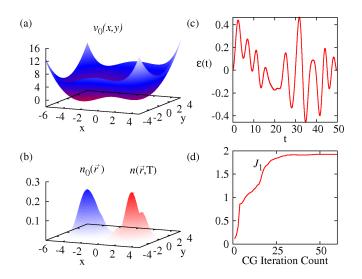
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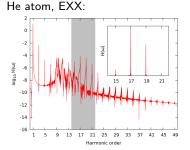
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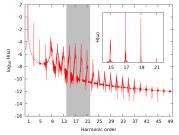
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Target: selective enhancement or quenching of harmonics:

$$F[\varphi] = \sum_{k} \alpha_{k} \max_{\omega \approx k\omega_{0}} \{ \log_{10} H[\varphi](\omega) \}$$
$$H(\omega) = |\int_{0}^{T} dt \frac{d^{2}}{dt^{2}} \langle \hat{\vec{\mu}} \rangle(t) e^{-i\omega t}|^{2}$$

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- Time-dependent target, it depends on the full evolution of the system.
- "TDDFT-friendly" target: it only depends on the time-dependent density.

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# Optimal laser control of the harmonic generation

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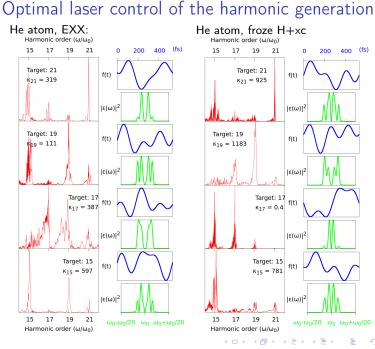
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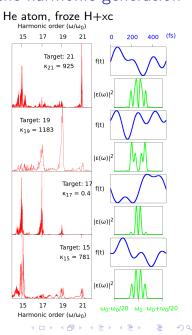
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### The Ehrenfest model for molecular dynamics

$$\hat{H}[q, p, u, t] = H_{\text{clas}}[q, p, u, t]\hat{I} + \hat{H}_{\text{quantum}}[q, p, u, t].$$

$$\begin{split} \dot{q}_{a}(t) &= \frac{\partial H_{\text{clas}}}{\partial p_{a}}[q(t), p(t), u, t] \\ &+ \langle \Psi(t) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}_{\text{quantum}}}{\partial p_{a}}[q(t), p(t), u, t] | \Psi(t) \rangle \\ \dot{p}_{a}(t) &= -\frac{\partial \hat{H}_{\text{clas}}}{\partial q_{a}}[q(t), p(t), u, t] \\ &- \langle \Psi(t) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}_{\text{quantum}}}{\partial q_{a}}[q(t), p(t), u, t] | \Psi(t) \rangle \\ \dot{\Psi}(x, t) &= -\mathbf{i} \hat{H}_{\text{quantum}}[q(t), p(t), u, t] \Psi(x, t) \,, \end{split}$$

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# Ehrenfest + TDDFT + QOCT

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### Optimal control theory for quantum-classical systems: Ehrenfest molecular dynamics based on time-dependent density-functional theory

#### A Castro<sup>1</sup> and E K U Gross<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> ARAID Foundation and Institute for Biocomputation and Physics of Complex Systems, University of Zaragoza, Mariano Esquillor s/n, E-50018 Zaragoza, Spain <sup>2</sup> Max-Planck Institut für Mikrostrukturphysik, Weinberg 2, D-06120 Halle, Germany

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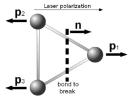
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### Selective photo-dissociation: $H_3^+$

$$\begin{split} F[n,q,p] &= (\vec{p}_1(T) - \vec{p}_2(T))^2 + (\vec{p}_1(T) - \vec{p}_3(T))^2 - (\vec{p}_2(T) - \vec{p}_3(T))^2 \\ T_{\text{laser}} &\approx 7 \text{ fs} \\ I_{\text{peak}} &\approx 1.8 \ 10^{13} \text{W/cm}^2 \\ E_{\text{cutoff}} &= 2.0 \text{ a.u.} \quad (100 \text{ degrees of freedom}) \end{split}$$





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# How fast can we (Coulomb) explode a metal cluster

- Coulomb explosion: fast strong ionization, followed by fast disintegration of the system.
- It can be helped with resonantly enhanced multi-photon ionization: tuning of the laser pulse to some excitation (the surface plasmon in the case of a cluster)

But:

- As the electrons disappear, the resonance frequency blue-shifts.
- As the nuclei separate, the resonance frequency red-shifts.
- The topic was explored with the EMD-TDDFT model: Impact of Ionic Motion on Ionization of Metal Clusters under Intense Laser Pulses

E. Suraud<sup>1</sup> and P.G. Reinhard<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Laboratoire Physique Quantique, Université P. Sabatier, 118 Route de Narbonne, 31062 Toulouse, cedex, France <sup>2</sup>Institut für Theoretische Physik, Universität Erlangen, Staudstrasse 7, D-91058 Erlangen, Germany (Received 28 October 1999)

We discuss the impact of ionic motion on ionization of metal clusters subject to intense laser pulses in a microscopic approach. We show that for long enough pulses, ionic expansion can drive the system into resonance with the electronic plasmon resonance, which leads to a strongly enhanced ionization.

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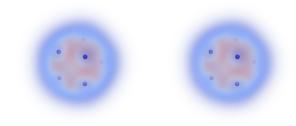
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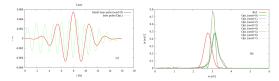
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### How fast can we (Coulomb) explode a cluster

$$F[n,q,p] = -\int \mathrm{d}^3 r \ n(\vec{r},T)$$
  
$$I_{\text{peak}} \approx 1.0 \ 10^{12} \mathrm{W/cm}^2$$

 $T_{\text{laser}} \approx 16 \text{ fs}$  $E_{\text{cutoff}} = 0.5 \text{ a.u.}$ 





More on this in A. Gómez Pueyo and AC, arXiv:1606.07619v1, and in Adrián's poster this evening.

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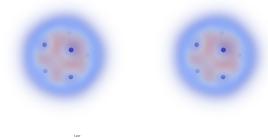
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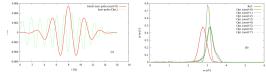
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