Role of the electronic structure and multielectron responses in ionization mechanisms of diatomic molecules in intense short-pulse lasers: An all-electron ab initio study

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We present an all-electron ab initio study of multiphoton ionization (MPI) of diatomic molecules in intense laser pulses using the example of $\text{N}_2$, $\text{O}_2$, and $\text{F}_2$, and the theoretical approach of time-dependent density-functional theory with correct long-range potential. The results reveal the importance of the electronic structure and correlated multielectron responses in the ionization mechanism, and make evident inner valence electron contributions to the molecular MPI in strong laser fields.

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The single electron ionization of molecules in ultrashort intense laser fields is a key process leading to a number of strong-field phenomena, such as above-threshold ionization, multiphoton ionization and dissociation, high harmonic generation, Coulomb explosion, nonsequential multielectron ionization, etc. Thus a detailed understanding of the ionization mechanism is a prerequisite for the exploration of molecular physics in strong fields.

The strong-field ionization of rare-gas atoms has been well studied by solving time-dependent Schrödinger equations with the single active electron (SAE) approximation [1–3]. In the tunneling regime [4], the Ammosov-Delone-Krainov (ADK) model [5] (based on SAE and other approximations) has also been used to study the single and sequential multielectron ionization of rare-gas atoms. In the ADK model, the response of an atom depends only upon the ionization potential (IP) of the outermost atomic orbital, and details of the electronic structure are not considered.

Multiphoton ionization of molecules, however, is considerably more complicated and the understanding of its mechanisms remains unsettled. Earlier experimental studies [6–8] suggested that ionization rates of molecules are similar to noble gas atoms with similar IP, although more recent experiments have found exceptions [9–12]. The ionization is suppressed for $\text{O}_2$, in comparison with $\text{Xe}$, while the ionization of $\text{N}_2$ and $\text{F}_2$ are comparable to their comparison atom Ar. Without an ab initio study of time-dependent dynamics of many-electron molecules, recent theoretical models of molecular ionization behavior have relied upon approximate models such as the ADK [13], KFR (or Keldysh-Faisal-Reiss) [14,15], or screening [16] models. The screening model [16] introduces a charge-screening correction to the tunneling theory. The KFR model [15] predicts that the interference between electrons emitted from the vicinity of two distinct ionic centers can lead to ionization suppression for molecules with antisymmetric electronic ground states. All three models correctly predict the suppressed ionization of $\text{O}_2$, and the absence of suppression of $\text{N}_2$. However, the ADK and KFR models also predict the ionization suppression of $\text{F}_2$ [13,15], which is in disagreement with recent experimental results [9–12].

We present in this article a three-dimensional all-electron nonperturbative investigation of mechanisms of the general strong-field ionization behavior, using $\text{N}_2$, $\text{O}_2$, and $\text{F}_2$ as examples, and taking into account the detailed electronic structure and responses of individual electrons. Ground-state electronic configurations of $\text{N}_2$, $\text{O}_2$, and $\text{F}_2$ are $\text{KK}2\sigma_g^22\sigma_u^21\pi_u^31\pi_u^4$ respectively. We obtain the ionization behavior by solving static density-functional theory (DFT) equations with LB [17,18], potential,

$$v_{\text{LDA}}^{\text{LB}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \alpha v_{\text{LDA}}(\mathbf{r}, t) + v_{\text{LDA}}^{\text{SDA}}(\mathbf{r}, t)$$

where the first two terms are the LSDA exchange and correlation potentials, and the last term is the gradient correction that ensures $v_{\text{LDA}}^{\text{LSDA}} \rightarrow -1/r$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$, and it produces accurate excited states as well as the ground state. For $\text{N}_2$ and $\text{O}_2$ we choose $\alpha=1.19$ and $\beta=0.01$; for $\text{F}_2$ we let $\alpha=1.16$ and $\beta=0.01$. We use the generalized pseudospectral (GPS) method for two-center systems [19], which features nonuniform and optimal spatial grids and achieves machine accuracy numerical convergence with the minimum number of grid points [19]. Table I compares the calculated orbital binding energies ($-e$) with measured vertical ionization energies, where internuclear distances are fixed at the equilibrium $R_e$ of the ground state of neutral molecules. Calculated and measured values of $3\sigma_g$, $1\pi_u$, and $2\sigma_u$ orbital energies of $\text{N}_2$ agree excellently. Other orbitals have large binding energies and do not participate in the ionization processes we study. After the removal of an electron the remaining $\text{O}_2^+$ ion has two multiplets. Differences between the calculated and measured binding energies of the three $\Pi$ states are within 0.13 eV. The calculated $1\pi_u$ and $1\pi_u$ orbital energies of $\text{F}_2$ agree well with experimental values.

We further solve a set of time-dependent equations,

$$i\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \hat{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) \psi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}, t)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 + V_{\text{eff},\alpha}(\rho)(\mathbf{r}, t) \psi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

where $V_{\text{eff},\alpha}(\rho)(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is the effective potential which includes the exchange and correlation contributions.
i.e., the dependent ionization probability of an electron in the exchange-correlation potential of the electron with the external laser field and the nuclei is which is the nuclear charge. The internuclear separation is the electronic coordinate, the electric-field amplitude, \( \mathbf{R}_1 \) and \( \mathbf{R}_2 \) are the coordinates of the two nuclei, and \( Z \) is the nuclear charge. The internuclear separation is fixed at the equilibrium. \( v_{xc,o}(\mathbf{r},t) \) is the time-dependent exchange-correlation (xc) potential.

We solve Eq. (1) by the TDGPT method [20]. The time-dependent ionization probability of an electron in the \( l \) orbit spin-orbital can be calculated according to \( P_{l,o}(t) = 1 - N_{l,o}(t) \), where \( N_{l,o}(t) = \langle \psi_{l,o}(t) | \psi_{l,o}(t) \rangle \) is the time-dependent electron population of the \( l \) orbit spin-orbital. The total ionization probability \( P \) can be obtained from the sum \( P = \sum_{l,a} P_{l,o} \).

A plot of \( N_{l,o}(t) \) against the time allows us to observe each electron’s contribution to the total ionization probability, ionization rate, and how they relate to one another. We use 800-nm, 20-optical-cycle lasers as an example; there are no obvious resonances at this frequency. Three intensities are applied to each molecule to identify the effects of laser intensity on the ionization mechanism. The nuclei are fixed at the equilibrium distances because pulse lengths of the lasers are much shorter than the vibration relaxation time of the molecule. We make the molecular axis parallel to the polarization direction of the laser to look at the orbital orientation effect at one particular angle. In Figs. 1–3 we present such plots for \( N_2 \), \( O_2 \), and \( F_2 \), respectively, and the curves are labeled by the initial orbitals for \( N_2 \) and \( F_2 \), and by the ion states for \( O_2 \).

Figure 1 demonstrates how \( N_2 \) ionizes when the laser intensity varies from \( 1\times10^{14} \) W/cm\(^2\) (a) to \( 5\times10^{14} \) W/cm\(^2\) (c). The total ionization probability increases from 0.0285 [Fig. 1(a)] to 0.474 [Fig. 1(b)] and 0.825 [Fig. 1(c)]; the probability for the photoelectron being a 2\( \sigma_g \) electron increases from 7.4% (a) to 29.1% (b), and 48.4% (c). It indicates that around the saturation intensity, the photoelectron has a probability distribution of electrons of different binding energies; high laser intensities tend to enhance the dipole coupling of 3\( \sigma_g \) and 2\( \sigma_u \) orbitals. The ionization of 1\( \pi_u \) electrons is not evident when the laser field is parallel to the molecular axis, although the IP of 1\( \pi_u \) electrons is 2-eV less than that of the 2\( \sigma_u \) electrons.

We apply the same lasers to \( O_2 \) (Fig. 2). The binding energy of the highest electron is 3.56-eV less than that of \( N_2 \); it is an open-shell molecule, and the two 1\( \pi_u \) orbitals can only couple to the like-spin orbitals. The total ionization probability of Figs. 2(b) and 2(c) is smaller than that of Figs. 1(b) and 1(c), respectively; a 1\( \pi_u \) electron in Fig. 2(c) has a smaller ionization probability than a 3\( \sigma_g \) or a 2\( \sigma_u \) electron in

\[
i = 1, 2, \ldots, N_{\sigma},
\]

where \( \{ \psi_{l,o} \} \) is the set of occupied single-electron orbital wave functions at time \( t \), and

\[
V_{eff,o}(i\mathbf{r},t) = v_{ext}(\mathbf{r},t) + \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}',t)}{|\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}|} d\mathbf{r}' + v_{xc,o}(\mathbf{r},t),
\]

where \( v_{ext}(\mathbf{r},t) \) is the “external” potential due to the interaction of the electron with the external laser field and the nuclei. For a homonuclear molecule in a linearly polarized external laser field, we have

\[
v_{ext}(\mathbf{r},t) = -\frac{Z}{|\mathbf{R}_1 - \mathbf{r}|} - \frac{Z}{|\mathbf{R}_2 - \mathbf{r}|} + \mathbf{E}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r} \sin \omega t,
\]

and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Molecule</th>
<th>Bond length (( a_0 ))</th>
<th>Orbital state</th>
<th>Ion state</th>
<th>(-\epsilon)</th>
<th>( I_{s}^{\text{ext}})</th>
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<td>( N_2 )</td>
<td>2.068</td>
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<td>2( \Sigma^+ )</td>
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<td>37.3</td>
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<td>2( \Sigma^+ )</td>
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<td>2( \Sigma^- )</td>
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<td>2( \Sigma^+ )</td>
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</table>
Fig. 1(c), which proves that the binding energy is not the only parameter that determines the ionization probability. We also notice that the photoelectron generated by the MPI of O₂ is more likely to be the highest electron. Figure 2 can also help to examine the relationship between ionization suppression of O₂ and multielectron responses. With the 3 \times 10^{14} \text{W/cm}^2 pulse, the total ionization probability is 0.482, and 83.1% of the ionization is from 1σ_u electrons. When the laser intensity reaches 5 \times 10^{14} \text{W/cm}^2, as in Fig. 2(c), the total ionization probability becomes 0.537, and 65.1% of the ionization is from 1σ_u. The ionization probability of a 1σ_u electron decreases from 0.2 to 0.175, which means that the multielectron responses suppress the ionization of the highest electrons of O₂. The MPI of 1σ_u electrons is not significant, which is because O₂ does not have as strong a coupling between 1π_g and 1π_u orbitals as that between 3σ_g and 2σ_u orbitals of N₂. The 3σ_g ionization is evident because of the orbital orientation.

F₂ is similar to N₂ as a closed-shell molecule, and the energy separation of the 1π_g and 1π_u orbitals of F₂ is close to the energy separation of the 2σ_u and 3σ_g orbitals of N₂; it is also similar to O₂ because it has the same type of molecular orbitals. The total ionization probabilities in Figs. 3(a)–3(c) are 0.00152, 0.372, and 0.697, respectively. As the intensity increases, the ionization probabilities of a 1π_g and a 1π_u electron get closer, and 3σ_g electrons become the most ionized electrons. The increasing percentage of the 1π_u ionization from Figs. 3(a)–3(c) is due to the enhancement of the 1π_g and 1π_u coupling with increasing laser intensities.

We summarize in Table II the total ionization probabilities that correspond to Figs. 1–3. At 3 and 5 \times 10^{14} \text{W/cm}^2, the ratio of the ionization probability of N₂ to F₂ is 1.3, which is consistent with the experimental data presented in Fig. 2 of [11] using 790-nm lasers of a longer pulse duration. Direct numerical comparisons with O₂ are not as informative because of the differences in the ionization potential. Nevertheless, that N₂, O₂, and F₂ have similar total ionization probabilities at higher intensities indicates both the ionization suppression for O₂ and the nonsuppression for F₂. At 10^{14} \text{W/cm}^2, the ionization probability of N₂ is 19 times that of F₂, when the molecular axis is parallel to the polarization direction of the laser. Figure 2 of [11] indicates nearly identical values when all molecular orientations are taken into account. The difference is due to the orientation effect that maximizes the ionization of the 3σ_g electrons of N₂ [21] and minimizes that of the 1π_u electrons of F₂ [13] at the parallel orientation. Our calculations suggest that the anisotropy of the ionization of N₂ or F₂ is more significant at less laser intensities, where only one type of electrons, the highest electrons, are most active. Whereas at higher intensities, different inner valence electrons corresponding to different molecular orientations ionize significantly and reduce the anisotropy of the total ionization probability [22].
We also tabulate the contributions from different types of orbitals. Note that the ionization probability of an individual spin-orbital is multiplied by the number of degenerate orbitals to get the total contributions of one type of orbital. These numbers demonstrate that inner valence electrons, such as the 2σ_u electrons of O_2 as well as the 3σ_g electrons and the 1π_g electrons of O_2 and F_2, may contribute substantially to the total ionization. The N_2, O_2, and F_2 have different ionization dynamics when the inner valence electrons are considered. The inner valence electron ionization is related to the orbital orientation and the enhanced dipole coupling between molecular orbitals at high laser intensities. Multielectron responses of a molecule can also enhance or suppress the ionization of individual electrons. Table II shows in digits that the ionization of the 1π_g electrons of O_2 is suppressed as the laser intensity increases from 3 to 5 × 10^14 W/cm^2. MPIs of O_2 are mainly from 1π_g electrons, therefore multielectron responses may contribute to the observed ionization suppression of O_2. The 1π_g ionization of F_2 is not suppressed in a similar manner. To the contrary, multielectron responses of F_2 facilitate the ionization of the 3σ_g electrons whose orbital orientation is parallel to the polarization direction of the laser field. In conclusion, our all-electron calculations reveal electron dynamics that simplified theories cannot model, and demonstrate the importance of multielectron responses originating from the detailed electronic structure for multiphoton ionization of molecules and an array of other molecular multiphoton processes.

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<table>
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<th>Laser intensity (W/cm^2)</th>
<th>Molecule</th>
<th>Total ionization probability</th>
<th>2σ_u</th>
<th>3σ_g</th>
<th>1π_u</th>
<th>1π_g</th>
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<td>10^14</td>
<td>N_2</td>
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<td>0.0021</td>
<td>0.0248</td>
<td>0.0012</td>
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<td>O_2</td>
<td>0.0601</td>
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<td>0.0013</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
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<td>F_2</td>
<td>0.00152</td>
<td>0.00007</td>
<td>0.000011</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 × 10^14</td>
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<td>O_2</td>
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<td>F_2</td>
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<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.111</td>
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References: