The molecular Schrödinger equation

Remark 1. The non-relativistic Hamiltonian of a system of nuclei and electrons includes a kinetic energy operator for each particle and a Coulomb operator for each particle pair.¹

$$\hat{H}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) = \hat{T}^{\mathrm{e}} + \hat{T}^{\mathrm{n}} + V^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}) + V^{\mathrm{n}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) + V^{\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{n}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) \quad \hat{T}^{\mathrm{x}} = \frac{1}{2m_{\mathrm{x}}} \sum \hat{\mathbf{p}}_{\mathrm{x}, i}^{2} \quad V^{\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{x}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{y}}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}} \sum \frac{q_{\mathrm{x}}q_{\mathrm{y}}}{\|\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{x}, i} - \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{y}, j}\|^{2}} \quad (1)$$

The state of this system is described by a wavefunction, $\Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}},\mathbf{r}_{\text{n}},t)$, which is governed by the Schrödinger equation.

$$\hat{H}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) \Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}, t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}, t)}{\partial t}$$
(2)

In the absence of external fields the system exists in a stationary state. Stationary states are characterized by a static wavefunction $\Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\text{n}})$ and a conserved energy expectation value E_{α}^{tot} that controls its frequency of oscillation in time. These quantities are governed by a Hamiltonian eigenvalue equation, which is the time-independent Schrödinger equation.

$$\hat{H}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) \Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) = E_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}} \Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) \qquad \qquad \Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}, t) = \Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}} t}$$
(3)

If $\mathcal{H}^{e} \equiv \{\Phi_{k}(\mathbf{r}_{e}) \mid k\}$ is a complete basis of functions in \mathbf{r}_{e} , the time-independent wavefunction can be expanded as follows.

$$\Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) = \sum_{k'} \Phi_{k'}(\mathbf{r}_{e}) \chi_{k', \alpha}(\mathbf{r}_{n})$$
(4)

Substituting this into equation 3 and integrating with $\Phi_k^*(\mathbf{r}_e)$ yields an equation for the unknown nuclear functions.

$$\hat{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{r}_{n})\boldsymbol{\chi}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) = E_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}}\boldsymbol{\chi}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) \qquad \hat{H}_{k,k'}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) \equiv \int d^{n_{e}}\mathbf{r}_{e} \; \Phi_{k}^{*}(\mathbf{r}_{e})\hat{H}(\mathbf{r}_{e},\mathbf{r}_{n})\Phi_{k'}(\mathbf{r}_{e}) \qquad \boldsymbol{\chi}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) = \begin{pmatrix} \chi_{0,\alpha}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) \\ \chi_{1,\alpha}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$
(5)

This operator matrix equation can be solved by further expanding each entry in a basis for nuclear function space, yielding a supermatrix eigenvalue equation with scalar coefficients. Exact solution of this equation is computationally intractable because the electronic and nuclear function spaces are infinite-dimensional. In practice this can be resolved by "coarse-graining" each space with a finite subset of carefully chosen functions.

Definition 1. The Born-Oppenheimer approximation. The Born-Oppenheimer approximation decouples the electrons from the nuclei by neglecting the nuclear kinetic energy operator, $\hat{H}^{\text{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) \equiv \hat{H}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) - \hat{T}^{\text{n}}$, and treating nuclear attraction as a fixed external potential. The resulting electronic Schrödinger equation has the form

$$\hat{H}^{\text{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) \Psi_{k}^{e}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) = E_{k}^{e}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) \Psi_{k}^{e}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n})$$

$$(6)$$

which is a continuous series of eigenvalue equations parametrized by \mathbf{r}_n . The index k refers to the electronic state of the molecule, which is a construct of the Born-Oppenheimer approximation. The noncrossing rule says that these electronic energies form non-intersecting potential energy surfaces over the space of nuclear coordinates, $\{E_k^{\rm e}(\mathbf{r}_n) \mid \mathbf{r}_n\}$. To construct a total molecular wavefunction, the Born-Oppenheimer approximation employs two simplifying assumptions.

$$\Psi_{\alpha}^{\text{tot}} \approx \Psi_{k\nu}^{\text{bo}} \text{ where } \Psi_{k\nu}^{\text{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) \equiv \Psi_{k}^{\text{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) \chi_{k,\nu}^{\text{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{n}})$$
 $[\hat{T}^{\text{n}}, \Psi_{k}^{\text{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\text{n}})] \approx 0$ (7)

Applying these to the exact Schrödinger equation yields a rovibrational Schrödinger equation for the nuclear component.

$$(\hat{T}^{\mathrm{n}} + E_k^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}})) \chi_{k,\nu}^{\mathrm{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) = E_{k,\nu}^{\mathrm{bo}} \chi_{k,\nu}^{\mathrm{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}})$$
(8)

This scheme results in a good approximation to the wavefunction under the following two conditions: 1. The nuclear wavefunction $\chi_{k,\nu}(\mathbf{r}_{\rm n})$ is localized to a region where the potential energy surface $E_k(\mathbf{r}_{\rm n})$ is well-separated from its neighboring surfaces; and 2. The electronic wavefunction $\Psi_k^{\rm e}(\mathbf{r}_{\rm e},\mathbf{r}_{\rm n})$ is slowly varying in $\mathbf{r}_{\rm n}$ over that region.

Remark 2. The electronic Schrödinger equation can also be used as a stepping stone to the exact molecular wavefunction, circumventing the approximations of equation 7. Namely, equation 6 can be used to generate a convenient electronic basis for equations 4 and 5. The dependence of the electronic states on \mathbf{r}_n admits two sensible choices for \mathcal{H}^e .

$${}^{\mathrm{I}}\mathcal{H}^{\mathrm{e}} \equiv \{ \Psi_{k}^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}^{\circ}) \mid k \}$$

$${}^{\mathrm{II}}\mathcal{H}^{\mathrm{e}} \equiv \{ \Psi_{k}^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) \mid k \}$$

$$(9)$$

Option I is the Longuet-Higgins representation, which uses Born-Oppenheimer electronic states from a fixed point on the potential surface. Option II is the Born representation, which associates each set of nuclear coordinates with its own set of electronic functions. Both options approach the exact non-relativistic wavefunction in the limit of an infinite expansion, but the Born representation is more amenable to coarse-graining with a small number of functions. The Longuet-Higgins representation is appropriate when the probability density of the nuclei is localized within a narrow region around \mathbf{r}_n° , as might be observed at a deep well on the potential surface.

¹ For x = y one must restrict the sum on the right to unique i, j pairs in order to avoid double-counting.

²More precisely, electronic states of a given spin and spatial symmetry do not intersect.

Remark 3. To contrast the two alternatives in rmk 2, express the Hamiltonian as $\hat{H}(\mathbf{r}_e, \mathbf{r}_n) = \hat{T}^n + \hat{H}^{bo}(\mathbf{r}_e, \mathbf{r}_n)$ and consider its matrix elements for each set of electronic functions.

$$\hat{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) = \hat{\mathbf{T}}^{\mathrm{n}} + \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) \quad H_{k,k'}^{\mathrm{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) \equiv \int d^{n_{\mathrm{e}}} \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}} \, \Phi_{k}^{*}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}) \, \hat{H}^{\mathrm{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) \Phi_{k'}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}) \quad \hat{T}_{k,k'}^{\mathrm{n}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) \equiv \int d^{n_{\mathrm{e}}} \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}} \, \Phi_{k}^{*}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}) \, \hat{T}^{\mathrm{n}} \, \Phi_{k'}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}) \quad (10)$$

Assuming the electronic basis states are orthonormal,³ the matrix elements of \hat{T}^n can be written as follows.⁴

$$\hat{T}_{k,k'}^{n} = \delta_{kk'}\hat{T}^{n} + \hat{\Lambda}_{k,k'}^{n} \qquad \qquad \hat{\Lambda}_{k,k'}^{n} \equiv \int d^{n_{e}}\mathbf{r}_{e} \; \Phi_{k}^{*}(\mathbf{r}_{e}) \left[\hat{T}^{n}, \Phi_{k'}(\mathbf{r}_{e})\right]$$

$$(11)$$

$$H_{k,k'}^{\text{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) = \delta_{kk'} E_k^{\text{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) + \bar{H}_{k,k'}^{\text{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) \qquad \bar{H}_{k,k'}^{\text{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) \equiv \int d^{n_{\text{e}}} \mathbf{r}_{\text{e}} \; \Phi_k^*(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}}) \left(\hat{H}^{\text{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) - E_k^{\text{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{n}}) \right) \Phi_{k'}(\mathbf{r}_{\text{e}})$$
(12)

The structure of these matrices is characterized by the following relationships

$$[\hat{T}^{\mathrm{n}}, \Psi_k^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}^{\diamond})] = 0 \qquad (\hat{H}^{\mathrm{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) - E_k^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}))\Psi_k(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}^{\diamond}) \neq 0$$
(13)

$$[\hat{T}^{\mathrm{n}}, \Psi_k^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}})] \neq 0 \qquad (\hat{H}^{\mathrm{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) - E_k^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}))\Psi_k(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) = 0 \qquad (14)$$

which follow from equation 6 and the fact that \hat{T}^n is a differential operator in \mathbf{r}_n . In words, this says that the Longuet-Higgins representation diagonalizes the nuclear kinetic energy operator, whereas the Born representation diagonalizes the Born-Oppenheimer potential.

Remark 4. In the Longuet-Higgins representation, the nuclear motion problem is typically solved by expanding the Hamiltonian in a Taylor series at \mathbf{r}_n° , which can be expressed as follows.

$${}^{\mathrm{I}}\hat{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) = \hat{T}^{\mathrm{n}} \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{E}^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) + \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}^{\circ})}{\partial \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}} \cdot \delta \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}} + \frac{1}{2} \delta \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}} \cdot \frac{\partial^{2} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{bo}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}^{\circ})}{\partial \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}} \partial \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}} \cdot \delta \mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}} + \dots \qquad \mathbf{E}^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) \equiv \begin{pmatrix} E_{0}^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & E_{1}^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$
(15)

This approach leads to the Köppel-Domcke-Cederbaum (KDC) approximation to the total molecular wavefunction.

Remark 5. The Born-representation Hamiltonian has the following structure.

$$\hat{\Lambda}_{k,k'}^{n}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) = \hat{T}^{n} \mathbf{1} + \hat{\mathbf{\Lambda}}^{n}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) + \mathbf{E}^{e}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) \qquad \qquad \hat{\Lambda}_{k,k'}^{n}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) = \int d^{n_{e}} \mathbf{r}_{e} \ \Psi_{k}^{e*}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) \left[\hat{T}^{n}, \Psi_{k}^{e}(\mathbf{r}_{e}, \mathbf{r}_{n}) \right]$$
(16)

Although this approach leads to a more compact wavefunction expansion, it is considerably more complicated to work with because the elements of the coupling matrix $\hat{\Lambda}^n$ involve derivatives of the electronic states with respect to \mathbf{r}_n .

Definition 2. The adiabatic approximation. Neglecting the off-diagonal elements of the coupling matrix in the Born representation leads to the adiabatic approximation, which is equivalent to employing the Born-Oppenheimer separability assumption, $\Psi_{k,\nu}^{\rm ad}(\mathbf{r}_{\rm e},\mathbf{r}_{\rm n}) = \Psi_{k}^{\rm e}(\mathbf{r}_{\rm e},\mathbf{r}_{\rm n})\chi_{k,\nu}^{\rm ad}(\mathbf{r}_{\rm n})$, without the vanishing commutator approximation. The nuclear functions in the adiabatic approximation satisfy a set of conditions similar to equation 8.

$$(\hat{T}^{\mathrm{n}} + \hat{\Lambda}_{k,k}^{\mathrm{n}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) + E_{k}^{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}})) \chi_{k,\nu}^{\mathrm{ad}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}}) = E_{k,\nu}^{\mathrm{ad}} \chi_{k,\nu}^{\mathrm{ad}}(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{n}})$$

$$(17)$$

Definition 3. The diagonal Born-Oppenheimer approximation. First-order perturbation theory leads to an even simpler alternative to the adiabatic approximation, known as the diagonal Born-Oppenhimer correction.

$$E_{k,\nu}^{\rm ad} \approx E_{k,\nu}^{\rm bo} + \Delta_k^{\rm dboc}(\mathbf{r}_{\rm n}) \qquad \qquad \Delta_k^{\rm dboc}(\mathbf{r}_{\rm n}) = \int d^{n_{\rm e}} \mathbf{r}_{\rm e} \ \Psi_k^{\rm e*}(\mathbf{r}_{\rm e}, \mathbf{r}_{\rm n}) \, \hat{T}^{\rm n} \, \Psi_k^{\rm e}(\mathbf{r}_{\rm e}, \mathbf{r}_{\rm n})$$
(18)

³As a Hermitian operator, the Born-Oppenheimer model Hamiltonian always possesses an orthonormal set of eigenstates.

⁴Using $\hat{T}^{n}\Phi_{k}(\mathbf{r}_{n}) = \Phi_{k}(\mathbf{r}_{n})\hat{T}^{n} + [\hat{T}^{n}, \Phi_{k}(\mathbf{r}_{n})].$