

# Harmonically confined $N$ -electron systems coupled to light in a cavity

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The energy and wave function of a harmonically confined  $N$ -electron system coupled to light is calculated by separating the wave functions of the relative and center-of-mass (CM) motions. The light only couples to the CM variable, and the coupled equation can be solved analytically. The relative motion wave function has to be numerically approximated, but the relative Hamiltonian is independent of the coupling strength and it only gives a shift in the energy. The approach works for any coupling strength and the effective coupling strength can be increased by increasing the number of electrons. This gives an extra degree of freedom to fine tune the resonances and other properties of the light-matter coupled systems. Examples of wave functions of light-matter hybrid states are presented.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Light-matter interactions in optical cavities have been intensely studied in the last two decades. Strong coupling between cavity electromagnetic modes and atoms or molecules can lead to a formation of hybrid light-matter states (polaritons), combining the properties of their ingredients. The properties of these hybrid systems are significantly different from that of the original molecule or atom. The coupling leads to the modification of potential energy surfaces, charge states, reactivity, and structure. This possibility has attracted enormous experimental [1–11]. (See, e.g., Ref. [12] for more references) and theoretical interest [13–49].

Model systems with simple analytical solutions have always played important roles in understanding complex physical systems and in testing numerical methods. The interaction of light and atoms, for example, can be described by the Jaynes-Cummings model [50], which assumes a two-level atom is weakly coupled to a single mode of a quantized electromagnetic field. For strongly coupled light-matter systems [19–23,25,29,36,39,46,47,51–54] no simple approach exists and the light-matter coupling cannot be treated perturbatively either.

We will consider a harmonically confined system of electrons. Quantum confinement is often modeled by a parabolic quantum well [55], or by a harmonic trap [56–58]. Electrons in magnetic fields are also subject to a harmonic confinement [67]. The quadratic potential allows the separation of the center-of-mass (CM) and relative motion and the electric field only couples to the CM wave function (harmonic potential theorem) [59–64].

In a previous paper [65], we developed an analytical solution for a harmonically confined two-electron system interacting with light in a cavity. In this system, the wave func-

tion can be written as a product of the wave functions of the relative and CM motion. The relative motion wave function can be expanded into an infinite series. For certain oscillator parameters, this infinite series can be reduced to a recursion [66] giving an analytical solution. The wave function of the center-of-mass motion can also be calculated analytically.

In this paper, we generalize the two-electron solution to  $N$  electrons. The relative and the CM wave function can be separated in the same way as in the two-electron case, but the relative Hamiltonian can no longer be analytically solved. This work, in some sense, is the generalization of the harmonic potential theorem to quantized electromagnetic fields. The photons are only coupled to the CM coordinate, and the coupled CM photon system can be solved exactly using shifted Fock states. The relative Hamiltonian can be solved approximately using numerical approaches, two of which will be presented and compared here.

The first one, stochastic variational method (SVM) [67,68] can be used to solve few-electron problems [69–72] and it has been recently generalized for light-matter coupled states [73]. The SVM generates optimized light-matter coupled wave function using a product of explicitly correlated Gaussian (ECG) basis [74] states and photon Fock states. The stochastic parameter selection keeps the basis dimension and the computational cost manageable by avoiding the high-dimensional tensor product spaces. The advantage of the approach is that the matrix elements are analytically available [67,75–77] and it allows very accurate calculations of energies and physical properties [69,78–80]. The SVM approach scales with  $N!$  for an  $N$ -electron system and it can only be used to small number of particles.

The second approach for the relative motion uses a density functional theory (DFT) [81,82] Hamiltonian for the relative part. Unlike SVM, the DFT is not limited to small systems, but its accuracy is not as good as the correlated basis approach used in SVM. DFT calculations have often been used to analyze the structure and energetics of confined electron systems and Wigner crystals [81–89].

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## II. FORMALISM

We assume that the system is nonrelativistic and the coupling to the light can be described by the dipole approximation (the wavelength of light is much larger than the size of the system). The Pauli-Fierz (PF) nonrelativistic quantum electrodynamics (QED) Hamiltonian provides a consistent quantum description at this level. The PF Hamiltonian in the Coulomb gauge [21,25,38,46,51]:  $H = H_e + H_{ep}$  where  $H_e$  is the electronic Hamiltonian and

$$H_{ep} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N_p} \left[ \omega_{\alpha} \left( \hat{a}_{\alpha}^{\dagger} \hat{a}_{\alpha} + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \omega_{\alpha} q_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\alpha} \mathbf{D} + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\alpha} \mathbf{D})^2 \right] \quad (1)$$

describes the interaction of electrons and photons (atomic units are used in this work). In Eq. (1) the photon fields are described by quantized oscillators using raising and lowering operators  $\hat{a}_{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{a}_{\alpha}^{\dagger}$ ,  $\mathbf{D}$  is the dipole operator, and

$$q_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_{\alpha}}} (\hat{a}_{\alpha}^{\dagger} + \hat{a}_{\alpha}) \quad (2)$$

is the displacement field. This Hamiltonian describes  $N_p$  photon modes with photon frequency  $\omega_{\alpha}$  and coupling  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\alpha}$ . The coupling term is usually written as [90]  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\alpha} = \sqrt{4\pi} S_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) \mathbf{e}_{\alpha}$ , where  $S_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r})$  is the cavity mode function at position  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{e}_{\alpha}$  is the transversal polarization vector of the photon modes. The first term in Eq. (1) is the Hamiltonian of the photon modes, the second term couples the photons to the dipole and the last term is the dipole self-interaction,  $H_d = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N_p} (\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\alpha} \mathbf{D})^2$ .

### A. Electronic Hamiltonian

We consider an  $N$ -electron system confined in a harmonic oscillator potential interacting with a Coulomb potential

$$H_e = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{p}_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} \omega_0^2 \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{r}_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i < j}^N \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|}, \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathbf{r}_i$  are the position of electrons. By defining the relative coordinates

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{R}, \quad \mathbf{R} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{r}_i, \quad (4)$$

the Hamiltonian can be written as

$$H_e = H_{\mathbf{x}} + H_{\mathbf{R}}, \quad (5)$$

with

$$H_{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \pi_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\omega_0^2}{N} \sum_{i < j}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i < j}^N \frac{1}{|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j|}, \quad (6)$$

and

$$H_{\mathbf{R}} = \frac{1}{2N} \mathbf{P}^2 + \frac{1}{2} N \omega_0^2 \mathbf{R}^2, \quad (7)$$

where  $\mathbf{P}$  is the canonically conjugate momentum to  $\mathbf{R}$  and  $\pi_i$  are canonically conjugate momenta to  $\mathbf{x}_i$  (only  $N - 1$  of these are linearly independent).

### B. Electron-photon coupling Hamiltonian

Assuming that we have only one photon mode and define the coupling term as  $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = \lambda(1, 1, 0)$  and the dipole operator as

$$\mathbf{D} = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{r}_i, \quad (8)$$

the electron-photon coupling term becomes

$$H_{ep} = \omega \left( \hat{a}^{\dagger} \hat{a} + \frac{1}{2} \right) - N \omega q \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{R} + \frac{1}{2} N^2 (\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{R})^2. \quad (9)$$

### C. Decoupling the relative and center-of-mass Hamiltonian

Now the total Hamiltonian can be written as

$$H = H_{\mathbf{x}} + \omega \left( \hat{a}^{\dagger} \hat{a} + \frac{1}{2} \right) - N \omega q \boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{R} + \left( H_{\mathbf{R}} + \frac{1}{2} N^2 (\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{R})^2 \right). \quad (10)$$

The first term is the Hamiltonian of the relative motion and it is not coupled to the center-of-mass motion or to the photon space. The second term is the Hamiltonian of the photon, which is coupled to the center of mass through the third term. The last term in the parenthesis is the Hamiltonian acting on the center-of-mass motion.

### D. Decoupling the center-of-mass Hamiltonian

The center-of-mass part can be simplified further by introducing

$$u = \sqrt{N} \frac{X + Y}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad v = \sqrt{N} \frac{Y - X}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad z = \sqrt{N} Z, \quad (11)$$

where  $\mathbf{R} = (X, Y, Z)$ . Now we have

$$H_{\mathbf{R}} + \frac{1}{2} N^2 (\boldsymbol{\lambda} \mathbf{R})^2 = H_u + H_v + H_z, \quad (12)$$

with

$$H_u = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial u^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_u^2 u^2, \quad (13)$$

and  $H_v$  and  $H_z$  are similarly defined harmonic oscillator Hamiltonians with

$$\omega_u^2 = \omega_0^2 + 2N\lambda^2, \quad \omega_v^2 = \omega_z^2 = \omega_0^2. \quad (14)$$

This gives three independent harmonic oscillators, and only  $H_u$  is coupled to the light. This derivation can be easily generalized to any form of  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$  [65], and not limited to the present  $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = \lambda(1, 1, 0)$  choice.

The solution for  $H_v$  and  $H_z$  is trivial,

$$H_v \phi_k(v) = \left( k + \frac{1}{2} \right) \omega_u \phi_k(v), \quad (15)$$

and

$$H_z \phi_l(z) = \left( l + \frac{1}{2} \right) \omega_z \phi_l(z), \quad (16)$$

where  $\phi_k(v)$  and  $\phi_l(z)$  are harmonic oscillator eigenfunctions.

### E. Light-CM coupling

Now we can define a simplified coupling Hamiltonian in the following form:

$$H_c = \omega \left( \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \omega q \lambda' u + H_u, \quad (17)$$

where  $\lambda' = \sqrt{2N\lambda}$ . The total Hamiltonian now becomes

$$H = H_x + H_v + H_z + H_c, \quad (18)$$

with eigenenergies

$$E = E_x + E_v + E_z + E_c. \quad (19)$$

The Hamiltonian is sum of four uncoupled terms and can be diagonalized by using a product ansatz

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x})\phi_k(v)\phi_l(z)\Phi_c(u), \quad (20)$$

where  $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ ,  $\phi_k(v)$ ,  $\phi_l(z)$  and  $\Phi_c(u)$  are the eigenfunctions of the four Hamiltonians. The last three are analytically solvable while some approximation or numerical solution is needed for the first Hamiltonian.

### III. DIAGONALIZATION OF THE LIGHT-MATTER COUPLED HAMILTONIAN

This section is a generalization of the two-particle case [65] to  $N$  electrons. The extension to more than one photon mode is straightforward and presented in the Appendix.

The Hamiltonian  $H_c$  can be diagonalized in two different ways. In the first approach, new variables are introduced to decouple the CM and photon harmonic oscillators. In the second one, a product basis of the CM and photon harmonic oscillators,  $\phi_k(u)|n\rangle$  is used, where  $\phi_k(u)$  satisfies

$$H_u \phi_k(u) = \left( k + \frac{1}{2} \right) \omega_u \phi_k(u). \quad (21)$$

The advantage of the first approach is that it is exact, while numerical diagonalization is needed in the second approach. The advantage of the second approach is that the solution is directly obtained as a product of spatial and photon spaces.

#### A. Shifted Fock states

We first introduce the following coordinate rotations:

$$s = u \sin(\alpha) + q \cos(\alpha), \quad (22)$$

$$t = -u \cos(\alpha) + q \sin(\alpha), \quad (23)$$

and choose  $\alpha$  so that the coupling term of the Hamiltonian  $H_c$  is eliminated and the Hamiltonian simplifies to a sum of the uncoupled harmonic oscillators

$$H_c = \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_s^2 s^2 \right) + \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_t^2 t^2 \right). \quad (24)$$

#### 1. Harmonic confinement

For arbitrary  $\omega_0$ ,  $\omega$ , and  $\lambda'$  one can decouple  $s$  and  $t$  by setting

$$\tan(2\alpha) = \frac{2\omega\lambda'}{\chi}, \quad \chi = \omega_u^2 - \omega^2, \quad (25)$$

and the harmonic oscillator frequencies are

$$\omega_s = |\sin(\alpha)| \sqrt{\omega_0^2 + \left( \lambda' - \frac{\omega}{\tan(\alpha)} \right)^2}, \quad (26)$$

and

$$\omega_t = |\cos(\alpha)| \sqrt{\omega_0^2 + [\lambda' + \omega \tan(\alpha)]^2}. \quad (27)$$

The value of  $\omega_s$  and  $\omega_t$  depends on  $\omega_0$ ,  $\omega$  and  $\lambda'$ . At  $\omega = \omega_u$  ( $\chi = 0$ ),  $\tan(2\alpha)$  becomes undefined and  $\omega_s$  and  $\omega_t$  are switched. When  $\chi \rightarrow 0_+$  then  $\alpha \rightarrow \pi/4$  and

$$\omega_s = \omega \sqrt{1 - \lambda'/\omega}, \quad (28)$$

$$\omega_t = \omega \sqrt{1 + \lambda'/\omega} \quad (29)$$

and the transition frequency between the two levels is

$$\omega_t - \omega_s = \lambda' = \sqrt{2N\lambda}. \quad (30)$$

If  $\chi \rightarrow 0_-$  then  $\alpha \rightarrow -\pi/4$  and  $\omega_t$  and  $\omega_s$  are switched.

#### 2. $\omega_0 \approx 0$ case

This is a special case, which will always be reached when the number of particles are increased for a given  $\omega_0$ . We will refer this as  $\omega_0 \approx 0$  case, and we will call the previous case as harmonic confinement. The harmonic potential can never be exactly zero because at least a weak confinement is needed to keep the relative motion bound. The  $\omega_0 \approx 0$  is introduced to emphasize that harmonic confinement does not play a role in the CM coupling.

In this case  $\omega_u \approx \lambda'$  and one can derive simpler expressions for  $\omega_s$  and  $\omega_t$  using Eqs. (22) and (23). If  $\omega < \lambda'$  then

$$\omega_s = 0, \quad \omega_t = (\lambda'^2 + \omega^2)^{1/2}, \quad (31)$$

$$s = \frac{\lambda' q + \omega u}{(\lambda'^2 + \omega^2)^{1/2}}, \quad t = \frac{\omega q - \lambda' u}{(\lambda'^2 + \omega^2)^{1/2}}. \quad (32)$$

If  $\lambda' < \omega$  then

$$\omega_s = (\lambda'^2 + \omega^2)^{1/2}, \quad \omega_t = 0, \quad (33)$$

$$s = \frac{\omega q + \lambda' u}{(\lambda'^2 + \omega^2)^{1/2}}, \quad t = \frac{\lambda' q - \omega u}{(\lambda'^2 + \omega^2)^{1/2}}. \quad (34)$$

The light  $q$  and the center-of-mass  $u$  coordinates are coupled in coordinates  $s$  and  $t$ . For  $\lambda = 0$ ,  $s = \sqrt{\omega} u$  and  $t = \sqrt{\omega} q$  and the light and matter are decoupled as expected.

If  $\omega < \lambda'$ , then as  $\omega_s = 0$ , the  $s$  coordinate does not play a role, and the  $t$  coordinate is dominated by  $u$ . This will always happen if for a given  $\omega$  and  $\lambda$  one increases the number of electrons, for large  $N$  the electronic  $u$  coordinate becomes dominant due to the dipole self-interaction term and the coupling to  $q$ . In this case the excitations to higher photon numbers are suppressed.

On the other hand, if  $\lambda' < \omega$ , then  $\omega_t = 0$  and the  $t$  coordinate does not play a role, the eigenfunction is a harmonic oscillator function depending on  $s$  only. In this case, the  $q$  coordinate, the photon excitation will dominate. Examples for this will be presented in the next section where we explicitly diagonalize  $H_c$  and the photon  $q$  and CM  $u$  occupation probabilities will be calculated.

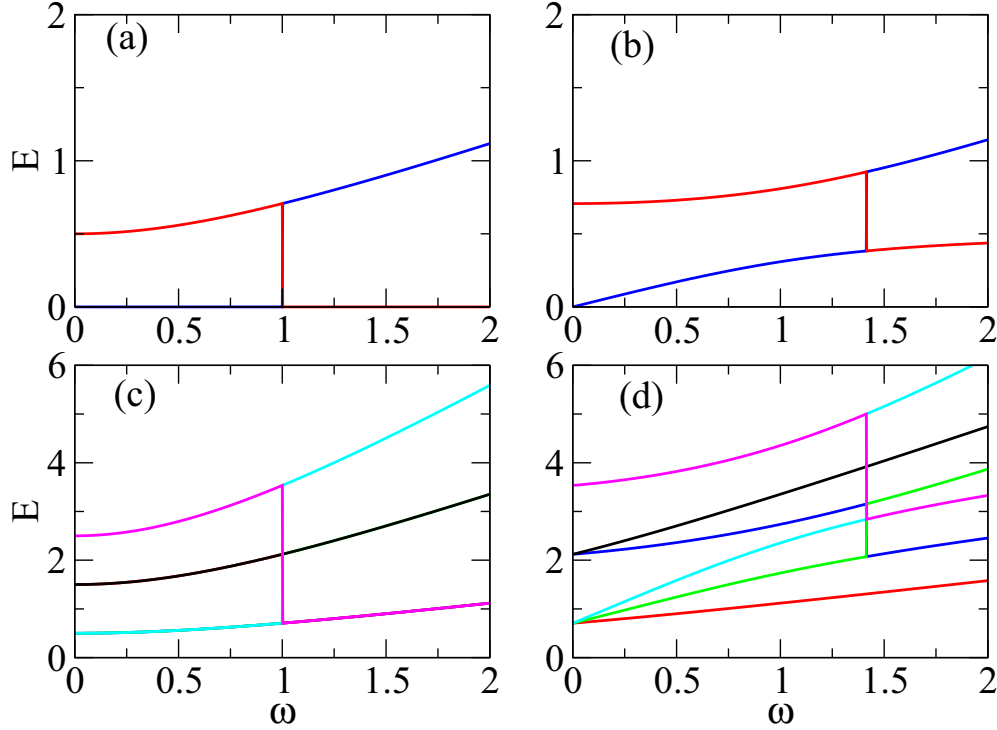


FIG. 1. Eigenenergies of  $H_c$  as a function of  $\omega$  for harmonically confined electrons ( $N = 50$ ) in the shifted Fock space case for  $\lambda = 0.1$ . (a)  $\omega_s$  (bottom curve at  $\omega = 0$ ) and  $\omega_t$  (top curve at  $\omega = 0$ ) in the  $\omega_0 \approx 0$  case. (b)  $\omega_s$  (bottom curve at  $\omega = 0$ ) and  $\omega_t$  (top curve at  $\omega = 0$ ) for  $\omega_0 = 1$ . (c)  $E_c$  for the  $\omega_0 \approx 0$  case with  $n_s + n_t \leq 5$ . If  $\omega < \lambda'$  then  $\omega_s = 0$ , and the lowest curve is  $n_t = 0$ , the middle curve  $n_t = 1$ , and the top curve is  $n_t = 2$  for any  $n_s$  for  $\omega < \lambda'$ . If  $\omega > \lambda'$  then the lowest curve is  $n_s = 0$ , the middle curve  $n_s = 1$ , and the upper curve is  $n_s = 2$  for any  $n_t$ . (d)  $E_c$  for the  $\omega_0 = 1$  case with  $n_s + n_t \leq 5$ . In this case there is no degeneracy and one has six lines corresponding to  $(n_s, n_t) = (0, 1), (1, 0), (0, 1), (1, 1), (2, 0), (0, 2)$ .

### 3. Numerical examples

Figure 1 shows the eigenenergies of  $H_c$  as a function of  $\omega$  for  $N = 50$  and  $\lambda = 0.1$ . The eigenfrequencies  $\omega_s$  and  $\omega_t$  as a function of  $\omega$  are compared in Fig. 1(a) for the  $\omega_0 \approx 0$  case. The frequency  $\omega_s$  is zero when  $\omega < \lambda' = \sqrt{2} \cdot 50 \cdot 0.1^2 = 1$  and at that point  $\omega_s$  and  $\omega_t$  are switched and  $\omega_t$  becomes zero. In the harmonic confinement case [Fig. 1(b)] using  $\omega_0 = 1$ ,  $\omega_s$  is smaller than  $\omega_t$  when  $\omega < \lambda' = \sqrt{1 + 2 \cdot 50 \cdot 0.1^2} = \sqrt{2}$  but it is not zero. At  $\lambda' = \sqrt{2}$  the two frequencies are switched as before.

Figure 1(c) shows the lowest eigenstates

$$E_c = \left(n_s + \frac{1}{2}\right)\omega_s + \left(n_t + \frac{1}{2}\right)\omega_t \quad (35)$$

of  $H_c$ , where  $(n_s, n_t)$  are integers, for the  $\omega_0 \approx 0$  case. For  $\omega < \lambda'$  the energy only depends on  $n_t$ , otherwise the energy only depends on  $n_s$ . This leads to many degenerate states. For example, any  $(n_s, n_t = 0)$  pair constitutes a ground state if  $\omega < \lambda'$  and any  $(n_s = 0, n_t)$  pair is a ground state if  $\lambda' < \omega$ .

In the harmonic confinement case [Fig. 1(d)], this degeneracy is removed, and the energies of the different  $(n_s, n_t)$  pairs are switched to  $(n_t, n_s)$  at  $\omega = \lambda'$ , but  $(n_s = 0, n_t = 0)$  is the ground state for all  $\omega$ .

### B. Exact diagonalization

The Hamiltonian in Eq. (17) can also be solved by exact diagonalization using the product of center-of-mass eigenfunctions and photon Fock states as basis states

$$|n_u, n_q\rangle = \phi_{n_u}(u)|n_q\rangle. \quad (36)$$

To diagonalize  $H_c$ , one needs the matrix elements of the Hamiltonian, which are readily available. The operators  $H_u$  and  $u$  act on the real space, and  $\hat{a} + \hat{a}^\dagger$  acts on the photon space. The matrix elements of  $q$  and  $u$  are

$$\langle m|q|n\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega}}D_{mn}, \quad (37)$$

$$\langle i|u|j\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_u}}D_{ij}, \quad (38)$$

where

$$D_{mn} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ \sqrt{1} & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & \sqrt{3} & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3} & 0 & \sqrt{4} & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{4} & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}. \quad (39)$$

Thus, the matrix elements of  $H_c$  are

$$\begin{aligned} \langle i, m | H_c | j, n \rangle &= \delta_{mn} \delta_{ij} \left( j + \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{\omega_u}{2} \\ &+ \delta_{mn} \delta_{ij} \left( n + \frac{1}{2} \right) \omega + \sqrt{\frac{N\omega}{2\omega_u}} \lambda D_{mn} D_{ij}. \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

After the diagonalization, we have the eigenenergies and the eigenfunctions. The eigenfunction has the following form:

$$\Phi_c = \sum_{n_u, n_q} c_{n_u, n_q} \phi_{n_u}(u) |n_q\rangle, \quad (41)$$

where  $c_{n_u, n_q}$  are the components of the eigenvector.

In the large  $N$  limit we have  $\omega_u \approx \sqrt{2N}\lambda$  and the coupling strength in the last term of Eq. (40) will be

$$\sqrt{\omega}(N/8)^{1/4}, \quad (42)$$

which is independent of  $\lambda$ . In this case,  $\omega_u$  is very large and the lowest  $u$  harmonic oscillator state dominates

$$\Phi_c = \sum_{n_q} c_{0, n_q} \phi_0(u) |n_q\rangle. \quad (43)$$

Figure 2 shows typical occupation probabilities of the basis states obtained by diagonalization of  $H_c$  for the  $\omega_0 \approx 0$  case. If  $\omega$  and  $\lambda'$  are about the same then the diagonal of the  $(n_u, n_q)$  matrix dominates [Fig. 2(a)]. The checkerboard pattern is due to the odd-even coupling between the  $u$  and  $q$  coordinates in Eq. (40). If  $\lambda' \ll \omega$  then the  $q$  coordinate dominates and the larger  $n_q$  values are coupled with the lower  $n_u$  values [Fig. 2(b)]. On the other hand, for  $\omega \ll \lambda'$  the  $u$  coordinate dominates and the  $n_u$  couples with the lower  $n_u$ -values [Fig. 2(c)]. This agrees with the results of the previous section.

#### IV. SOLUTION OF THE RELATIVE MOTION PART

We will use the SVM and the DFT approaches to calculate the wave function of the relative motion. These approaches are briefly described in the following.

##### A. SVM approach

In this approach the spatial part of the wave function is expanded into explicitly correlated Gaussians

$$\Phi_k(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{A} \left\{ e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i < j}^N \alpha_{ij}^k (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i^k (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{s}_i^k)^2} \chi_S \right\}, \quad (44)$$

where  $\mathcal{A}$  is an antisymmetrizer,  $\chi_S$  is the  $N$  electron spin function (coupling the spin to  $S$ ), and  $\alpha_{ij}^k$ ,  $\beta_i^k$  and  $\mathbf{s}_i^k$  are nonlinear parameters.

The necessary matrix elements can be analytically calculated [67,74]. The basis functions are optimized by selecting the best spatial basis parameters using the SVM. In the SVM, the basis functions are optimized by randomly generating a large number of candidates and selecting the ones that give the lowest energy [67,74]. The size of the basis can be increased by adding the best states one by one. Once a basis is generated it can be refined by replacing states with randomly selected better basis functions. This approach is very efficient in finding suitable basis functions.

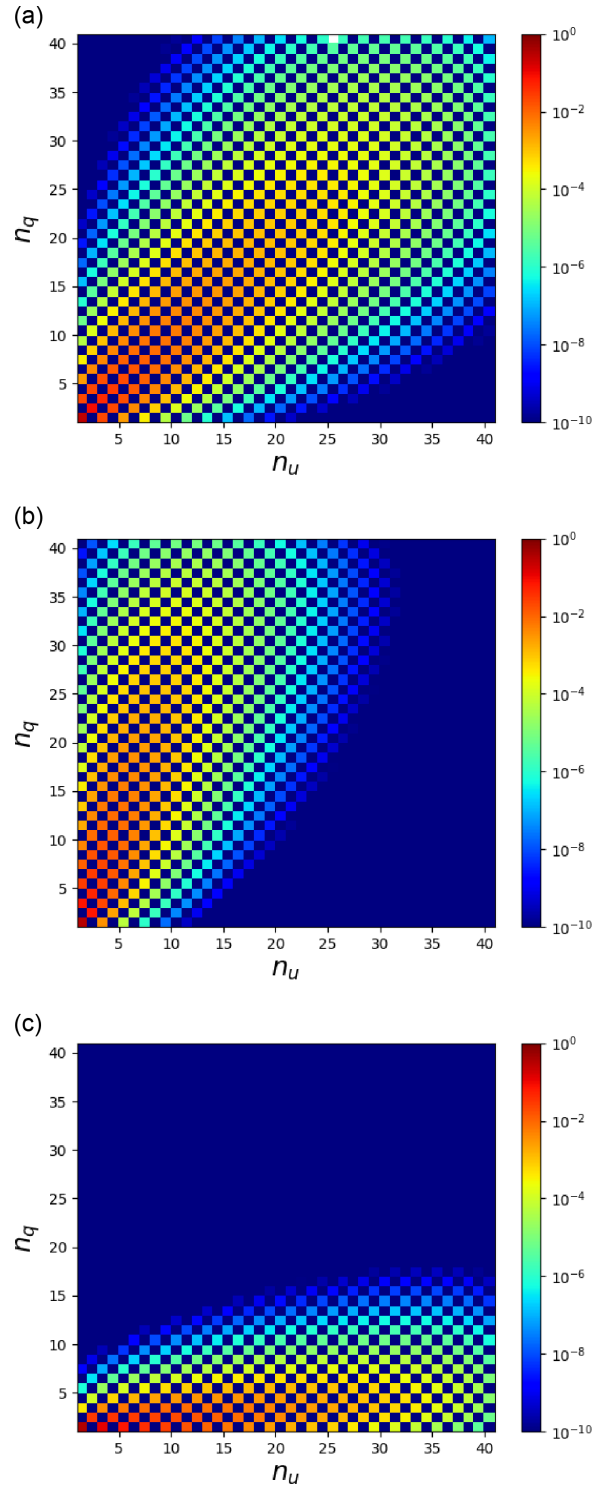


FIG. 2. Occupation probabilities for different parameters for the  $\omega_0 \approx 0$  case. (a)  $N = 50$ ,  $\lambda = 0.1$  and  $\omega = 1$ , (b)  $N = 50$ ,  $\lambda = 0.1$ , and  $\omega = 10$ . (c)  $N = 500$ ,  $\lambda = 0.1$  and  $\omega = 1$ .

##### B. DFT calculation

The DFT Hamiltonian is defined as

$$H_x^{\text{DFT}} = -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_{\mathbf{r}}^2 + V_H[\rho(\mathbf{r})] + V_{EX}[\rho_{\uparrow}(\mathbf{r}), \rho_{\downarrow}(\mathbf{r})] + V_c(\mathbf{r}), \quad (45)$$



TABLE I. Comparison of the energy of the relative motion calculated by SVM and DFT for different confinement strengths.  $S$  is the spin and  $N$  is the number of particles.

N	S	$\omega_0$	DFT	SVM
2	0	0.5	1.743	1.659
		1.0	3.232	3.000
		1.5	4.626	4.268
2	1	0.5	1.980	1.913
		1.0	3.837	3.596
		1.5	5.627	5.236
3	0.5	0.5	3.703	3.583
		1.0	6.727	6.369
		1.5	9.544	8.982
3	1.5	0.5	3.840	3.714
		1.0	7.173	6.760
		1.5	10.34	9.681
4	0	0.5	6.074	6.071
		1.0	10.83	10.62
		1.5	15.23	14.57
4	1	0.5	6.049	5.964
		1.0	10.79	10.34
		1.5	15.18	14.48
4	2	0.5	6.493	6.349
		1.0	11.94	11.63
		1.5	17.10	16.27
5	0.5	0.5	8.905	8.880
		1.0	15.64	15.27
		1.5	21.81	21.39
5	1.5	0.5	9.092	9.074
		1.0	16.15	15.78
		1.5	22.67	22.04
5	2.5	0.5	9.476	9.287
		1.0	17.19	16.57
		1.5	24.45	23.50

where  $V_H$  is the Hartree,  $V_{EX}$  is the exchange correlation,  $V_c$  is the confining potential, and  $\mathbf{r}$  is the single-particle coordinate of the electron. The local density approximation (LDA) is used for the exchange-correlation part and the system is spin polarized,  $\rho = \rho_\uparrow + \rho_\downarrow$  with

$$\rho_\uparrow(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_i \phi_{\uparrow,i}(\mathbf{r})^2 \quad \rho_\downarrow(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_i \phi_{\downarrow,i}(\mathbf{r})^2, \quad (46)$$

where  $\phi_\uparrow$  and  $\phi_\downarrow$  are the Kohn-Sham orbitals of the spin-up and spin-down electrons, respectively. The DFT equations are solved on a numerical grid with finite difference representation of the kinetic energy operator and using a grid spacing of 0.2 a.u.

### C. Numerical results

In this section we present numerical examples for the calculation of the energies and wave functions of the relative motion in two dimensions. The extension to three spatial dimension is straightforward. The energies calculated by SVM and DFT show similar trends as a function of the number of particles and spin symmetry (Table I). The SVM energies are accurate upper bounds of the exact energy and

are always found to be smaller than the DFT ones. The DFT and SVM electron densities (see Fig. 3) are similar. The SVM and DFT figures are rotated with respect to each other because the ground state is rotationally invariant [due to the choice of  $\lambda = \lambda(1, 1, 0)$ ] and there is no preferred direction. The SVM and the DFT finds different, but equivalent rotated states.

The SVM energies are accurate and converged up to the digits shown. A more sophisticated exchange-correlation potential would perhaps improve the agreement between the SVM and DFT energies. The energy of the relative motion only adds a constant shift to the total energy for a given electron number,  $N$ , independently from  $\lambda$  and  $\omega$ , and therefore its accurate value is somewhat less important. The SVM and DFT numbers follow the same trend as a function of spin and electron numbers and the energy differences by adding or removing an electron between appropriate spin states are very similar.

Figure 4 shows the DFT energy as a function of the number of electrons. The figure shows the energy for a spin 0 cases and one can see a smooth increase of energy with the increase of the number of electrons.

## V. SUMMARY

We have shown that by decoupling the relative and the center-of-mass motion the energy and wave function of a confined  $N$ -electron system in an optical cavity can be straightforwardly calculated. The relative Hamiltonian has to be solved with a numerical approach, the light coupled CM motion can be solved analytically or by exact diagonalization. The advantage of the former is that the energy is analytical and simple, but the eigenfunctions are shifted Fock states depending on both the spatial and photon coordinates. The advantage of the latter is that the eigenfunctions are defined as products of spatial and photon basis states, which gives a more explicit physical picture of the spatial and photon space probability amplitudes in the wave function.

The relative wave function is completely decoupled from the light and can be solved with suitable approximations or numerical methods. In this work, we have used the SVM and the DFT approaches. The SVM is limited to few-electron systems because it explicitly antisymmetrizes the trial functions and the  $N!$  scaling becomes prohibitively expensive for larger  $N$ . For few electrons, however, the SVM is very accurate, providing benchmark results for DFT and other approaches. The DFT can be easily used for larger systems, even for hundreds of electrons. In the present work, we have considered systems up to 100 electrons. The comparison of the energies and densities of the DFT and SVM calculations shows that the DFT predicts reasonable energies on the spin-polarized LDA level. The energy of the relative Hamiltonian only shifts the energy of the system, and it is independent of  $\lambda$  and  $\omega$ .

The effective coupling strength depends on the number of particles and that offers an interesting possibility of tuning the transition energies and resonance parameters by changing the number of particles. The electron number also changes the relative importance of  $\omega$  and  $\lambda$ , and one can selectively excite

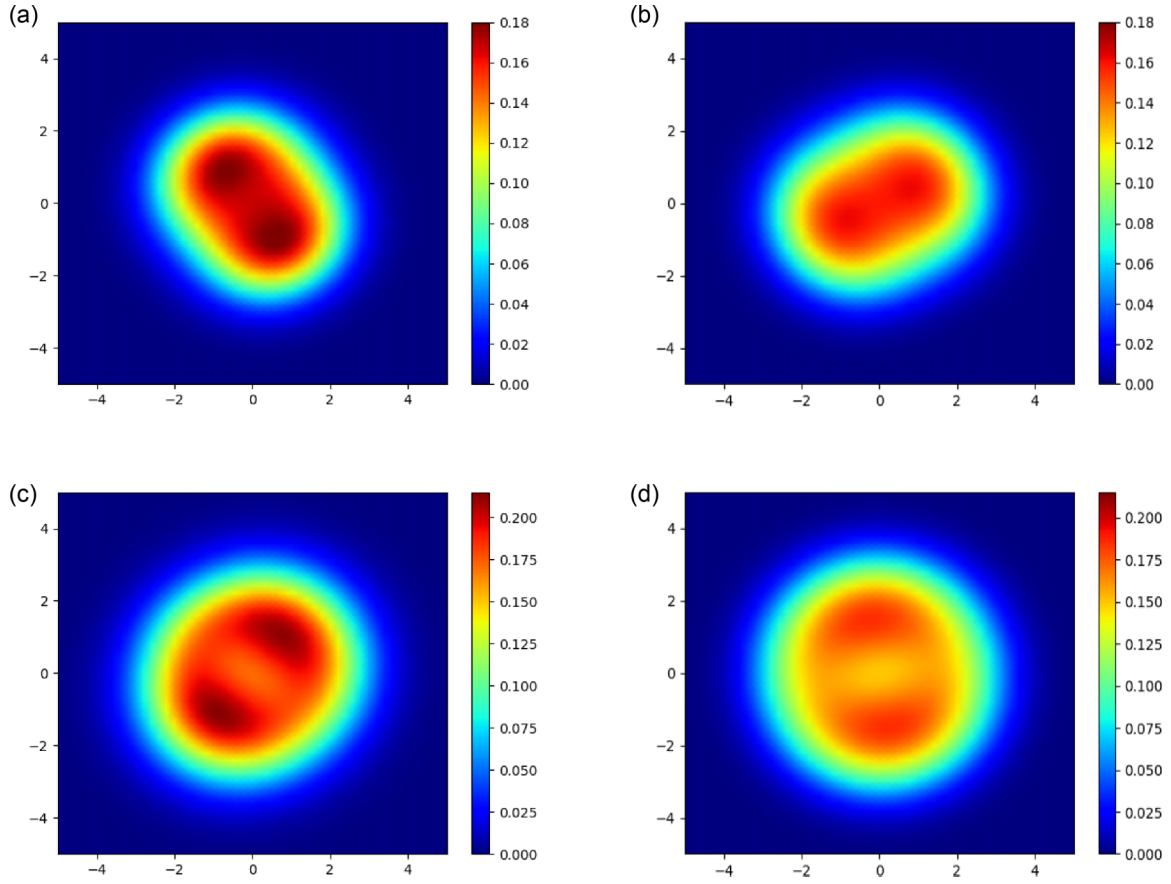


FIG. 3. Electron density for three electrons (a) SVM, (b) DFT and five electrons (c) SVM, (d) DFT for  $\omega_0 = 0.5$ .

spatial or photonic components by changing the number of electrons in the system.

The present approach can also be extended to a time-dependent Hamiltonian to work out an analytical solution for real-time dynamics as a possible benchmark for QED time-dependent DFT calculations. We plan to work on that problem in the future.

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Y.A. and J.M. equally contributed to this work.

#### APPENDIX: DECOUPLING THE PHOTONS IN THE MULTIPHOTON MODES CASE

$$H_c = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial u^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_u^2 u^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{Np} \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_i^2 q_i^2 - \sqrt{2N} \omega_i \lambda_i u q_i \right). \quad (\text{A1})$$

We can introduce the substitutions,  $u = \frac{u_i}{\sqrt{Np}}$ ,  $\omega_{u_i} = \frac{\omega_u}{Np}$ . This simplifies our Hamiltonian into the following,

$$H_c = \sum_{i=1}^{Np} \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_i^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_{u_i}^2 u_i^2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_i^2 q_i^2 - \sqrt{2N} \omega_i \lambda_i u_i q_i \right), \quad (\text{A2})$$

which can be written in the form,

$$H_c = \sum_{i=1}^{Np} H_{c_i}, \quad (\text{A3})$$

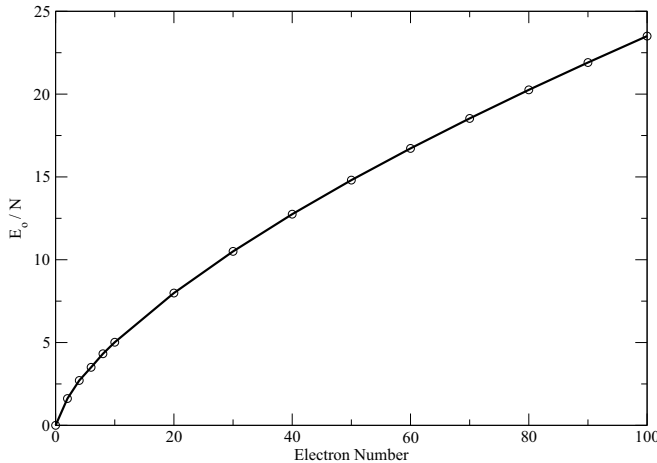


FIG. 4. Energy per electron in harmonically confined  $N$ -electron system calculated by DFT.

where

$$H_{c_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_i^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_{u_i}^2 u_i^2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_i^2 q_i^2 - \sqrt{2N} \omega_i \lambda_i u_i q_i. \quad (\text{A4})$$

We can then separate out each of the  $H_{c_i}$  and solve them individually. We once again use the following shifted Fock states,

$$s_i = u_i \sin(\alpha_i) + q_i \cos(\alpha_i) \quad (\text{A5})$$

$$t_i = -u_i \cos(\alpha_i) + q_i \sin(\alpha_i). \quad (\text{A6})$$

Setting

$$\tan(2\alpha_i) = \frac{2\sqrt{2N}\omega_i\lambda_i}{\chi_i}, \quad \chi_i = \omega_{u_i}^2 - \omega_i^2 \quad (\text{A7})$$

we can ensure the coupling term of the Hamiltonian is eliminated. As a result, the Hamiltonian simplifies to,

$$H_{c_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial s_i^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_{s_i}^2 s_i^2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t_i^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_{t_i}^2 t_i^2, \quad (\text{A8})$$

where

$$\omega_{s_i} = |\sin(\alpha_i)| \sqrt{\omega_{u_i}^2 + \frac{\omega_i^2}{\tan^2(\alpha_i)} - \frac{2\sqrt{2N}\omega_i\lambda_i}{\tan(\alpha_i)}} \quad (\text{A9})$$

$$\omega_{t_i} = |\cos(\alpha_i)| \sqrt{\omega_{u_i}^2 + \omega_i^2 \tan^2(\alpha_i) + 2\sqrt{2N}\omega_i\lambda_i \tan(\alpha_i)}, \quad (\text{A10})$$

where  $\omega_{u_i}^2 = \frac{\omega_0^2 + 2N\lambda^2}{N_p^2}$ .

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