A Correlated Electron-Nuclear Dynamics with Conditional Wave Functions

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The molecular Schrödinger equation is rewritten in terms of non-unitary equations of motion for the nuclei (or electrons) that depend parametrically on the configuration of an ensemble of generally defined electronic (or nuclear) trajectories. This scheme is exact and does not rely on the tracing-out of degrees of freedom. Hence, the use of trajectory-based statistical techniques can be exploited to circumvent the calculation of the computationally demanding Born-Oppenheimer potential-energy surfaces and non-adiabatic coupling elements. The concept of potential-energy surface is restored by establishing a formal connection with the exact factorization of the full wave function. This connection is used to gain insight from a simplified form of the exact propagation scheme.

In order to describe the correlated motion of electrons and nuclei, many strategies have been proposed to transcend the picture where the nuclei evolve on top of a single Born-Oppenheimer potential-energy surface (BOPES) [1]. Using a time-independent basis-set expansion of the electron-nuclear wave function, full quantum studies provide a complete description of non-adiabatic dynamics [2]. The scaling of these methods (even for a time-dependent basis-set expansion [3]) is however limiting their use to describe a few degrees of freedom. The so-called direct dynamics techniques attempt to alleviate this problem by calculating the BOPESs on-the-fly [4]. Of particular interest here are those methods that use information from quantum chemistry or time-dependent density functional theory calculations in the form of forces. Ab-initio surface hopping, Ehrenfest dynamics [5], or Gaussian wavepacket methods (such as the multiple spawning method) [6], are all able to reproduce the dynamics of some systems of interest [7]. In most of these methods, however, the form of the nuclear wave function is restricted as they use a local- or classical trajectory-based representation of the nuclear wavepacket. In addition to the difficulties of including external fields or calculating the non-adiabatic coupling elements (NACs), this introduces the problem of including quantum effects into methods that are ultimately based on classical mechanics.

In this Letter we propose a general quantum trajectory-based scheme aimed at the study of non-adiabatic dynamics in the presence of arbitrary external electromagnetic fields. The coupled electron-nuclear dynamics is separated without tracing-out degrees of freedom. This can be done at the expense of dealing with non-unitary equations of motion that are obtained by projecting the time-dependent Schrödinger equation (TDSE) on the configuration of an ensemble of trajectories. For the nuclear dynamics in particular, this work lends itself as a rigorous starting point for systematically including non-adiabatic nuclear quantum effects without relying on the computation of BOPESs and NACs. This is shown for a numerically exactly solvable system, where a simplified form of the proposed exact propagation scheme is demonstrated to accurately reproduce non-adiabatically induced tunneling and interferences. This general method constitutes a multi-component extension of the conditional formalism proposed in [8, 9]. Further, the propagation scheme presented here generalizes the conditional formalism beyond its original hydrodynamic formulation [8] and is thus suitable to be coupled with well established electronic structure methods.

Throughout this Letter we use atomic units, and electronic and nuclear coordinates are collectively denoted by \( \mathbf{r} = \{r_1, ..., r_{N_e}\} \) and \( \mathbf{R} = \{R_1, ..., R_{N_n}\} \), being \( N_e \) and \( N_n \) respectively the total number of electrons and nuclei in the system. The full (non-relativistic) electronic-nuclear wave function \( \Psi(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t) \) evolving under external electromagnetic fields satisfies the TDSE,

\[
\frac{i\hbar}{\partial t} \Psi(t) = \left\{ \hat{T}_e(\mathbf{r}) + \hat{T}_n(\mathbf{R}) + \hat{W}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t) \right\} \Psi(t),
\]

where \( \hat{T}_e = \sum_{\xi=1}^{N_e} \left( -i \nabla_\xi - A^{EM}(\mathbf{r}_\xi) \right)^2 / 2m \) and \( \hat{T}_n = \sum_{\nu=1}^{N_n} \left( -i \nabla_\nu - A^{EM}(\mathbf{R}_\nu) \right)^2 / 2M_\nu \) are the electronic and nuclear kinetic energy operators, and \( A^{EM} \) is the external vector potential in the Coulomb gauge due to an arbitrary external electromagnetic field. All scalar potentials are included in \( \hat{W}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t) = \hat{W}_{\text{int}}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}) + \hat{V}_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}, t) + \hat{V}_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{R}, t) \), where \( \hat{V}_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}, t) \) is the electronic (nuclear) external scalar potential, and \( \hat{V}_{\text{int}} = \hat{W}_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}) + \hat{W}_{\text{nn}}(\mathbf{R}) + \hat{W}_{\text{nn}}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}) \) accounts for the internal Coulombic interactions. Next, we present the main result of this Letter.

Theorem. (a) The molecular wave function \( \Psi(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t) \) satisfying the TDSE [1] can be exactly decomposed either in terms of nuclear or electronic conditional wave
functions
\[
\psi_n(R, t; r^\alpha(t)) := \int \delta(r^\alpha(t) - r) \Psi(r, R, t) dr,
\]
(provided that the ensemble of trajectories \(\{r^\alpha(t), R^\alpha(t)\}\), where \(\alpha\) is the trajectory label, explores the support of \(|\Psi(R, R, t)|^2\) at any time \(t\).

(b) The conditional wave functions \(\psi_n(R, t; r^\alpha(t))\) and \(\psi_c(r, t; R^\alpha(t))\) obey respectively the following non-unitary equations of motion:

\[
vidt \psi_n(R, t; r^\alpha(t)) = \left\{ \hat{T}_n + \hat{W}(r^\alpha(t), R, t) \right\} \psi_n(R, t; r^\alpha(t)) + \hat{T}_c \Psi(R, r, t)|_{r^\alpha(t)} + i\nabla_r \Psi(R, r, t)|_{r^\alpha(t)} \cdot r^\alpha(t),
\]

\[
vidt \psi_c(r, t; R^\alpha(t)) = \left\{ \hat{T}_c + \hat{W}(r, R^\alpha(t), t) \right\} \psi_c(r, t; R^\alpha(t)) + \hat{T}_n \Psi(R, r, t)|_{R^\alpha(t)} + i\nabla_R \Psi(R, r, t)|_{R^\alpha(t)} \cdot R^\alpha(t).
\]

For the sake of simplicity, we omit from now on the explicit time-dependence of the trajectories, i.e. \(\{r^\alpha, R^\alpha\} \equiv \{r^\alpha(t), R^\alpha(t)\}\).

**Proof.** — Part (a) To demonstrate that expressions (2) and (3) are exact decompositions of the molecular wave function, we only need to realize that an ensemble of these conditional wave functions can be used to reconstruct the full wave function as follows,

\[
\Psi(R, r, t) = \begin{cases} \hat{D}_r[\psi_n], & \text{if } \sum_{\alpha=1}^\infty \delta(r^\alpha - r) \neq 0 \\
0, & \text{if } \sum_{\alpha=1}^\infty \delta(r^\alpha - r) = 0 \end{cases}
\]

or

\[
\Psi(R, r, t) = \begin{cases} \hat{D}_R[\psi_c], & \text{if } \sum_{\nu=1}^\infty \delta(R^\nu - R) \neq 0 \\
0, & \text{if } \sum_{\nu=1}^\infty \delta(R^\nu - R) = 0 \end{cases}
\]

where we have defined the transformations, \(\hat{D}_r[f(r^\alpha)] = \sum_{\alpha=1}^\infty \delta(r^\alpha - r)f(r^\alpha)/\sum_{\alpha=1}^\infty \delta(r^\alpha - r)\) and \(\hat{D}_R[g(R^\nu)] = \sum_{\nu=1}^\infty \delta(R^\nu - R)g(R^\nu)/\sum_{\nu=1}^\infty \delta(R^\nu - R)\), connecting respectively the (parametrized) electronic and nuclear subspace with the full configuration space. Introducing the definitions [2] and [3] respectively into Eqs. [6] and [7], the full wave function \(\Psi(R, r, t)\) is immediately recovered provided that \(\{r^\alpha, R^\alpha\}\) exhaust the support of \(|\Psi(R, r, t)|^2\). Notice that the second condition in [6] and [7] is required in order to avoid singularities on the definitions of \(\hat{D}_r\) and \(\hat{D}_R\) due to the formation of nodes.

Part (b) Equations (4) and (5) can be derived by simply evaluating the Schrödinger equation (1) at the configuration of the electronic and nuclear trajectories respectively, \(r^\alpha\) and \(R^\alpha\), and then using the chain rule to write the total time derivatives as \(d_t \psi_n = \partial_t \psi_n + \nabla_r \Psi|r^\alpha \cdot r^\alpha\) and \(d_t \psi_c = \partial_t \psi_c + \nabla_R \Psi|_{R^\alpha} \cdot R^\alpha\).

As written in (2) and (3), \(\psi_n(R, t; r^\alpha)\) and \(\psi_c(r, t; R^\alpha)\) represent 3\(N_r\)- and 3\(N_e\)-dimensional slices of the full molecular wave function taken along the nuclear and electronic coordinates respectively. Each conditional wave function constitutes in this regard a small portion of the full molecular system, i.e. an open quantum system. Note that their evolution is non-unitary due to the last two terms in (4) and (5) (in general complex functionals of the full wave function). The non-unitarity of Eqs. (1) and (6) can be understood as the result of separating a certain number of degrees of freedom without tracing over the rest. From this point of view, the conditional splitting, represented here by Eqs. (2) and (3), has the advantage that the propagation of the nuclear equations of motion (1) does not require the calculation of BOPESs nor of the NACs. While usual methods choose a set of relevant potential-energy surfaces to describe the dynamics (i.e. a truncation of Hilbert space), here the truncation of the active-space is determined by real-space (trajectory-based) sampling of the initial state. This makes the method particularly advantageous when studying processes that involve many BOPESs or external electromagnetic fields, as in laser-induced dynamics or scattering from metallic surfaces.

Let us emphasize that the decomposition of the molecular wave function in (2) and (3) is only one case among many other possible conditional decompositions. The above theorem provides, nevertheless, a general prescription to decompose the electron-nuclear wave function into a complete set of conditional wave functions. Particularly appealing is also the separation of the conditions of a trajectory-based simulation can be generated with importance sampling techniques, conditional decompositions allow to circumvent the problem of storing and propagating a many-particle wave function whose size scales exponentially with the number of particles.

In the above theorem, it remains to specify the trajectories \(\{r^\alpha, R^\alpha\}\). As already mentioned, the only requirement to be fulfilled by these trajectories is that they must explore the support of the quantum probability density \(|\Psi(R, r, t)|^2\). Notice that for the simplest case where \(r^\alpha = R^\alpha = 0\), Eqs. (4) and (5) both reduce to the TDSE equation (1). Alternatively, a smart choice of the trajec-
tories \{\mathbf{r}^\alpha, \mathbf{R}^\alpha\} can be used to circumvent the use of computationally demanding fixed-grid methods (at the expense of dealing with non-unitary equations of motion). Here we choose \{\mathbf{r}^\alpha, \mathbf{R}^\alpha\} to be Bohmian trajectories because of their particular efficiency to sample the quantum probability density \[10\] and because they do provide, in addition, an intuitive picture of quantum dynamics in terms of trajectories \[11\]. Specifically, a proper sampling of the initial electron-nuclear wave function guarantees that \(|\Psi(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t)|^2\) can be exactly reproduced at any time in terms of quantum trajectories \{\mathbf{r}^\alpha, \mathbf{R}^\alpha\} defined as \[12\]

\[
\mathbf{r}^\alpha(t) = \mathbf{r}^\alpha(0) + \int_0^t \mathbf{v}^\alpha_r(\mathbf{r}^\alpha(t'), \mathbf{R}^\alpha(t'), t')\,dt',
\]

\[
\mathbf{R}^\alpha(t) = \mathbf{R}^\alpha(0) + \int_0^t \mathbf{v}^\alpha_n(\mathbf{r}^\alpha(t'), \mathbf{R}^\alpha(t'), t')\,dt',
\]

where electronic and nuclear velocity fields are defined as \[\mathbf{v}^\alpha_r(\mathbf{r}^\alpha, \mathbf{R}^\alpha) = (\nabla \chi^\alpha / m)|_{\mathbf{r}^\alpha} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v}^\alpha_n(\mathbf{r}^\alpha, \mathbf{R}^\alpha) = (\nabla \psi^\alpha / M)|_{\mathbf{R}^\alpha},\]

where \(\chi^\alpha(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t)\) is the phase of the full wave function \(\Psi = |\psi|e^{i\chi}\). Note that the choice of Bohmian trajectories is not mandatory. Alternatively, trajectory-based Monte-Carlo or importance-sampling techniques can also be used provided that they sample exhaustively the quantum-probability density.

While not required in principle, in practice it is often useful to propagate both the nuclear and electronic conditional wave functions, \[3\] and \[4\], to compute the quantum trajectories via conditional velocity fields defined as \[\mathbf{v}^\alpha_r(\mathbf{r}^\alpha, \mathbf{R}^\alpha) = (\nabla \chi^\alpha / m)|_{\mathbf{r}^\alpha} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v}^\alpha_n(\mathbf{r}^\alpha, \mathbf{R}^\alpha) = (\nabla \psi^\alpha / M)|_{\mathbf{R}^\alpha},\]

where \(\chi^\alpha(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t)\) and \(\psi^\alpha(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t)\) are respectively the phases of the electronic and nuclear conditional wave functions \(\psi^\alpha = |\psi^\alpha|e^{i\chi^\alpha}\) and \(\psi^\alpha = |\psi^\alpha|e^{i\chi^\alpha}\). In this way the reconstruction of the full wave function is avoided at the expense of solving twice the number of equations of motion \[3\] and \[4\]. Remarkably, the resulting propagation scheme, namely Eqs. \[3\] and \[4\] together with the trajectories in \[5\] and \[6\], does not require the computation of the quantum potential, in this manner overcoming a bottleneck in Bohmian trajectory-based approaches \[13\].

In the remaining part of the letter, we explore a first approximation to this general method to solve the vibronic problem. Let us first switch off the external vector potential \(\mathbf{A}^{\mathcal{EM}}\). In addition, we assume a zero order expansion of the complex functionals in \[4\] and \[5\] around the nuclear and electronic variables respectively, i.e. \(\tilde{T}_r |\psi^\alpha| + i \tilde{N}_r |\psi^\alpha| \cdot \mathbf{r}^\alpha = f_n(\mathbf{r}^\alpha, t)\) and \(\tilde{T}_n |\psi^\alpha| + i \tilde{N}_r |\psi^\alpha| \cdot \mathbf{R}^\alpha = f_e(\mathbf{R}^\alpha, t)\). Notice that this approximation corresponds to the Hermitian limit of Eqs. \[4\] and \[5\] and thus the time evolution of \(\psi^\alpha_n(\mathbf{R}, t; \mathbf{r}^\alpha)\) and \(\psi^\alpha_e(\mathbf{r}, t; \mathbf{R}^\alpha)\) becomes unitary. The approximated functionals entail now a pure time-dependent phase that can be omitted because the velocity fields \(\mathbf{v}^\alpha_r(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t)\) and \(\mathbf{v}^\alpha_n(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{R}, t)\) are, by definition, invariant under such a global phase transformation. From now on we call the resulting propagation scheme, Eqs. \[8\] and \[9\] together with the Hermitian limit of Eqs. \[4\] and \[5\], the **Hermitian conditional approach**.

To assess this approximated scheme, it is useful to restore the concept of a potential-energy surface. This can be done by connecting this general method to the exact factorization of the molecular wave function \[14\]. By rewriting the nuclear conditional wave function as a direct product of electronic and nuclear probability amplitudes, i.e.

\[
\psi^\alpha_n(\mathbf{R}, t; \mathbf{r}^\alpha) = \Phi^\alpha_R(\mathbf{r}^\alpha, t)\chi(\mathbf{R}, t),
\]

equations of motion for both terms in \[10\] can be derived. Of particular interest is here \(\chi(\mathbf{R}, t)\) because it allows to isolate the role played by each term in \[4\] on the dynamics of the nuclear probability density, \(|\chi^\alpha(\mathbf{R}, t)|^2\), in terms of a time-dependent potential-energy surface (TDPES) \[15\]. In particular, the Hermitian limit of \[4\] leads to the following equation of motion for \(\chi(\mathbf{R}, t)\) \[14\]

\[
i\partial_t \chi(\mathbf{R}, t) = \sum_{\nu=1}^{N_n} \frac{1}{2M_\nu} \left( -i \nabla_{\nu} + \mathcal{A}_\nu(\mathbf{R}, t) \right)^2 \\
+ W_{ex}(\mathbf{R}, t) + \mathcal{\tilde{e}}(\mathbf{R}, t) \right) \chi(\mathbf{R}, t),
\]

where \(\mathcal{A}_\nu(\mathbf{R}, t)\) is the \(\nu\)-component of the time-dependent Berry phase \[14\], and the approximated TDPES, \(\mathcal{\tilde{e}}(\mathbf{R}, t)\), are defined as

\[
\mathcal{\tilde{e}}(\mathbf{R}, t) = \epsilon(\mathbf{R}, t) - \int \tilde{D}_r \left[ \Phi^\alpha_R(\mathbf{r}^\alpha, t) \left( \tilde{T}_e + \tilde{r}^\alpha \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{r}} \right) \Phi^\alpha_R(\mathbf{r}, t) \right]_{\mathbf{r}^\alpha} \, dr,
\]

where \(\Phi^\alpha_R(\mathbf{r}^\alpha, t) = \psi^\alpha_n(\mathbf{R}, t; \mathbf{r}^\alpha) / \chi(\mathbf{R}, t)\). Equation \[11\] establishes a direct correspondence between the complex functionals in \[4\] and the last term on the r.h.s of \[12\]. More precisely, computing the nuclear probability density from approximated nuclear conditional wave functions as \(|\chi^\alpha(\mathbf{R}, t)|^2 = \int dr \tilde{D}_r \left[ |\psi^\alpha_n(\mathbf{R}, t; \mathbf{r}^\alpha)|^2 \right]\) is equivalent to propagate the nuclear probability density according to Eqs. \[11\] and \[12\] \[15\]. Eqs. \[11\] and \[12\] also make evident that the range of validity of the Hermitian conditional scheme depends on the choice of trajectories through the electronic velocity field \(\mathbf{r}\). While neglecting the averaged electronic kinetic energy in \[12\] could seem a crude approximation in the Born-Oppenheimer limit \[14\], in the following example we show that this is not the case for general situations where non-adiabatic effects are important.

In what follows, we address two distinctive aspects of the correlated electron-nuclear motion, namely tunneling and interferences. A detailed discussion of the performance of the Hermitian scheme to describe the splitting
of the nuclear probability density can be found in [16]. A numerically exactly solvable problem that exhibits the characteristic features associated with non-adiabatic processes is the model of Shin and Metiu [17], which consists of three ions and a single electron. Two ions are fixed at a distance $L = 19.0a_0$, and the third ion and the electron are free to move in one dimension along the line joining the fixed ions. The Hamiltonian for this system reads

$$
\hat{H}(r, R) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} - \frac{1}{2M} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2} + \frac{1}{2M} \left( |\frac{L}{2} - R| + \frac{1}{|\frac{L}{2} + R|} \right) + \frac{1}{4} \left( r - \frac{1}{2R} \right) - \frac{1}{4} \left( r + \frac{1}{2R} \right),
$$

(13)

where the symbols $r$ and $R$ are replaced by $r$ and $R$, and the coordinates of the electron and the movable nucleus are measured from the center of the two fixed ions. For the remaining parameters we choose $M = 1836a.u.$ and $R_f = 7a_0$, $R_I = 4.4a_0$, and $R_r = 3.1a_0$ such that the first BOPES, $\epsilon_{BO}^{(1)}$, is strongly coupled to the second BOPES, $\epsilon_{BO}^{(2)}$, within an extended region defined by $R < -4a_0$. In addition, there is a moderate coupling between the second BOPES, $\epsilon_{BO}^{(2)}$, and the third BOPES, $\epsilon_{BO}^{(3)}$ for $R > 2a_0$ (see Fig.1c). The coupling to the rest of the BOPESs is negligible. We suppose the system to be initially excited to $\epsilon_{BO}^{(2)}$ and the initial nuclear wave function to be a Gaussian wavepacket with $\epsilon = 1/\sqrt{2.85}$, centered at $R = -7.0a_0$, i.e. the initial full wave function is $\Psi(r, R, t_0) = A e^{-(R+7)^2/\sigma^2} \Phi^{(2)}_R(r)$ with $A$ being a normalization constant. Starting with $\Psi(r, R, t_0)$, we first sample its probability density with trajectories and then propagate Eqs. (8) and (9) together with the Hermitian limit of Eqs. (1) and (2). In Fig.1a we show snapshots at different times of the nuclear probability density for the exact calculation (in black solid line) and for the approximated solution (in blue circles) computed as $|\chi(R, t)|^2 = \int dr dR \left| \left| \psi_0(R, t; r^a) \right| \right|^2$. Showing an excellent agreement, this propagation scheme is demonstrated to capture not only the conspicuous electronic transition between $\epsilon_{BO}^{(2)}$ and $\epsilon_{BO}^{(1)}$, but also the interfaces originating at later times from contributions of higher adiabatic populations (see the rise of the population of $\epsilon_{BO}^{(3)}$ in the inset on Fig.1c). The BOPESs constitute a formidable interpretative tool to understand electron-nuclear adiabatic dynamics, however they provide here a biased picture of the complex dynamics guiding the transit from the initial state at time $t = 0$fs to the final state at $t = 17.5$fs. Alternatively, here we gain insight into this complex dynamics by analyzing the quantum velocity fields $\nu^n(r, R, t)$ and $\nu^e(r, R, t)$ computed respectively from the approximated conditional wave functions $\nu_0(R, t; r^a)$ and $\psi_0(r, t; R^a)$. Snapshots of these velocity fields in terms of arrow maps are displayed in Fig.1b together with contour lines representing the two-dimensional potential-energy surface.

The first thing to notice is the fact that while in the picture of the BOPESs initial and final states are connected via tunneling (along the nuclear coordinates), no tunneling is indeed taking place along this direction in the configuration space. At the very beginning of the non-adiabatic process ($t = 0.9$fs), the trajectories at the rear of the wavepacket (with respect to the nuclear coordinates) carry a large momentum that forces the molecular wave function to squeeze at later times (e.g. at $t = 6.3$fs). This contraction in the nuclear coordinates is accompanied by a stretching of the wave function in the electronic coordinates that leads to a dripping of probability density out of the main “reaction path” via tunneling. During this tunneling process, quantum trajectories undergo a very fast motion in the electronic direction (notice the different sizes of the arrows in Fig.1b). This high energy density transported from one side to the other of the potential-energy surface induces a (tunneling) back and forth flow of probability density from one valley to the other (see the snapshots at times $t = 10.6$fs and $t = 17.5$fs). As a direct consequence, an interference pattern originates in close analogy with the quantum “Bosons effect” described by McCullough and Wyatt [15]. A remarkably vortical behavior, reminiscent of the quantum “whirlpool effect” [13], can be also observed whenever quasi-nodes in the full wave function develop at times $t = 10.6$fs and $t = 17.5$fs.

This example demonstrates how the conditional formalism, even in the Hermitian limit, provides a powerful machinery to describe complex features ubiquitous in non-adiabatic processes such as tunneling or interferences. Furthermore, the above example evidences the extraordinary interpretative nature of the conditional formalism to grasp the “microscopic” behavior of quantum dynamics in terms of local velocities when it is used together with an adequate choice of the trajectories.

To summarize, we have presented an exact trajectory-based decomposition of the Schrödinger equation in terms of conditional nuclear and electronic wave functions [2] and [3]. Their evolution according to equations [4] and [5] is non-unitary and lends itself as a rigorous procedure to deal with open quantum systems by means of important sampling techniques. In particular, the propagation of equation [4] (together with a proper sampling of the electronic sub-space) does not entail integrals over the electronic degrees of freedom and hence we expect it to be numerically efficient and of particular interest in scenarios where several BOPESs and external electromagnetic fields are involved. The choice of Bohmian trajectories to sample the configuration space adds an interpretative value to the method and provides a numerically stable algorithm that circumvents the calculation of the computationally demanding quantum potential. However, other choices for the trajectories based on importance-sampling or Monte-Carlo techniques are possible. In this respect, the use of time-dependent den-
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FIG. 1. (a) Exact (black solid-line) and approximated (blue circles) nuclear probability densities renormalized as $|\chi_{\text{dn}}(\mathbf{R},t)|^2 = |\chi(\mathbf{R},t)|^2 / \max |\chi(\mathbf{R},t)|^2$ at four different times. (b) Arrows refer to the (two-dimensional) velocity field computed from the approximated conditional wave functions. The gray contour lines represent the corresponding electron-nuclear two-dimensional potential energy surface. (c) First (red), second (green) and third (magenta) BOPEs involved in the non-adiabatic process. In the inset: adiabatic populations as a function of time computed from the exact solution.

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