

Quantum Bifurcations

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20 Glossary

21 **Classical limit** The classical limit is the classical mechanical
22 problem which can be constructed from a given
23 quantum problem by some limiting procedure. Dur-
24 ing such a construction the classical limiting mani-
25 fold should be defined which plays the role of classical
26 phase space. As soon as quantum mechanics is more
27 general than classical mechanics, going to the classical
28 limit from a quantum problem is much more reason-
29 able than discussing possible quantizations of classical
30 theories [73].

31 **Energy-momentum map** In classical mechanics for any
32 problem which allows the existence of several integrals
33 of motion (typically energy and other integrals of-
34 ten named as momenta) the Energy-Momentum (EM)
35 map gives the correspondence between the phase space
36 of the initial problem and the space of values of all in-
37 dependent integrals of motion. The energy-momen-
38 tum map introduces the natural foliation of the clas-
39 sical phase space into common levels of values of en-
40 ergy and momenta [13,34]. The image of the EM map
41 is the region of the space of possible values of integrals
42 of motion which includes regular and critical values.
43 The quantum analog of the image of the energy-mo-
44 mentum map is the joint spectrum of mutually com-
45 muting quantum observables.

Joint spectrum For each quantum problem a maximal
46 set of mutually commuting observables can be intro-
47 duced [16]. A set of quantum wave functions which
48 are mutual eigenfunctions of all these operators exists.
49 Each such eigenfunction is characterized by eigenval-
50 ues of all mutually commuting operators. The repre-
51 sentation of mutual eigenvalues of n commuting oper-
52 ators in the n -dimensional space gives the geometrical
53 visualization of the joint spectrum.
54

Monodromy In general, the monodromy characterizes
55 the evolution of some object after it makes a close path
56 around something. In classical Hamiltonian dynamics
57 the Hamiltonian monodromy describes for completely
58 integrable systems the evolution of the first homology
59 group of the regular fiber of the energy-momentum
60 map after a close path in the regular part of the base
61 space [13].
62

For a corresponding quantum problem the quantum
63 monodromy describes the modification of the local
64 structure of the joint spectrum after its propagation
65 along a close path going through a regular region of
66 the lattice.
67

Quantum bifurcation Qualitative modification of the
68 joint spectrum of the mutually commuting observ-
69 ables under the variation of some external (or inter-
70 nal) parameters and associated in the classical limit
71 with the classical bifurcation is named quantum bifur-
72 cation [59]. In other words the quantum bifurcation is
73 the manifestation of the classical bifurcation presented
74 in the classical dynamic system in the quantum version
75 of the same system.
76

Quantum-classical correspondence Starting from any
77 quantum problem the natural question consists of
78 defining the corresponding classical limit, i.e. the
79 classical dynamic variables forming the classical
80 phase space and the associated symplectic structure.
81 Whereas in simplest quantum problems defined in
82 terms of standard position and momentum operators
83 with commutation relation $[q_i, p_j] = i\hbar\delta_{ij}$, $[q_i, q_j]$
84 $= [p_i, p_j] = 0$ ($i, j = 1 \dots n$) the classical limit phase
85 space is the $2n$ -dimensional Euclidean space with stan-
86 dard symplectic structure on it, the topology of the
87 classical limit manifold in many other important for
88 physical applications cases can be rather non-triv-
89 ial [73,86].
90

Quantum phase transition Qualitative modifications of
91 the ground state of a quantum system occurring under
92 the variation of some external parameters at zero tem-
93 perature are named quantum phase transitions [65].
94 For finite particle systems the quantum phase transi-
95 tion can be considered as a quantum bifurcation [60].
96

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97 **Spontaneous symmetry breaking** Qualitative modifica- 146
 98 tion of the system of quantum states caused by per- 147
 99 turbation which has the same symmetry as the ini- 148
 100 tial problem. Local symmetry of solutions decreases 149
 101 but the number of solutions increases. In the energy 150
 102 spectra of finite particle systems the spontaneous sym- 151
 103 metry breaking produces an increase of the “quaside- 152
 104 generacy”, i. e. formation of clusters of quasi-degener- 153
 105 ate levels whose multiplicity can be much higher than 154
 106 the dimension of the irreducible representations of the 155
 107 global symmetry group [51]. 156

108 **Symmetry breaking** Qualitative changes in the proper- 157
 109 ties (dynamical behavior, and in particular in the joint 158
 110 spectrum) of quantum systems which are due to modi-
 111 fications of the global symmetry of the problem caused
 112 by external (less symmetrical than original problem)
 113 perturbation can be described as symmetry breaking
 114 effects. Typical effects consist of splitting of degener-
 115 ate energy levels classified initially according to irre-
 116 reducible representation of the initial symmetry group
 117 into less degenerate groups classified according to irre-
 118 reducible representation of the subgroup (the symmetry
 119 group of the perturbation) [47].

120 Definition of the Subject

121 Quantum bifurcations (QB) are qualitative phenomena 170
 122 occurring in quantum systems under the variation of some 171
 123 internal or external parameters. In order to make this def- 172
 124 inition a little more precise we add the additional require- 173
 125 ment: The qualitative modification of the “behavior” of 174
 126 a quantum system can be described as QB if it consists 175
 127 of the manifestation for the quantum system of the clas- 176
 128 sical bifurcation presented in classical dynamic systems 177
 129 which is the classical analog of the initial quantum system. 178
 130 Quantum bifurcations are typical elementary steps lead- 179
 131 ing from the simplest in some way effective Hamiltoni- 180
 132 an to more complicated ones under the variation of ex- 181
 133 ternal or internal parameters. As internal parameters one 182
 134 may consider the values of exact or approximate integrals 183
 135 of motion. The construction of an effective Hamiltonian 184
 136 is typically based on the averaging and/or reduction pro- 185
 137 cedure which results in the appearance of “good” quan- 186
 138 tum numbers (or approximate integrals of motion). The 187
 139 role of external parameters can be played by forces of ex- 188
 140 ternal champs, phenomenological constants in the effec- 189
 141 tive Hamiltonians, particle masses, etc. In order to limit 190
 142 the very broad field of qualitative changes and of possible 191
 143 quantum bifurcations in particular, we restrict ourselves 192
 144 mainly to quantum systems whose classical limit is asso- 193
 145 ciated with compact phase space and is nearly integrable. 194

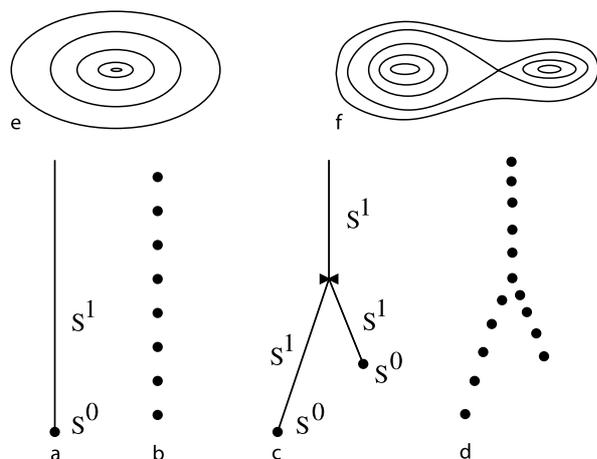
This means that for quantum problems the set of mutually 146
 commuting observables can be constructed within a rea- 147
 sonable physical approximation almost everywhere at least 148
 locally. 149

Quantum bifurcations are supposed to be universal 150
 phenomena which appear in generic families of quantum 151
 systems and explain how relatively simple behavior be- 152
 comes complicated under the variation of some physical 153
 parameters. To know these elementary bricks responsible 154
 for increasing complexity of quantum systems under con- 155
 trol parameter modifications is extremely important in or- 156
 der to make the extrapolation to regimes inaccessible to 157
 experimental study. 158

Introduction 159

In order to better understand the manifestations of quan- 160
 tum bifurcations and their significance for concrete phys- 161
 ical systems we start with the description of several sim- 162
 ple model physical problems which exhibit in some sense 163
 the simplest (but nevertheless) generic behavior. Let us 164
 start with the harmonic oscillator. A one-dimensional har- 165
 monic oscillator has an equidistant system of eigenval- 166
 ues. All eigenvalues can be labeled by consecutive integer 167
 quantum numbers which have the natural interpretation 168
 in terms of the number of zeros of eigenfunctions. The 169
 classical limit manifold (classical phase space) is a stan- 170
 dard Euclidean 2-dimensional space with natural vari- 171
 ables $\{p, q\}$. The classical Hamiltonian for the harmonic 172
 oscillator is an example of a Morse-type function which 173
 has only one stationary point $p = q = 0$ and all non-zero 174
 energy levels of the Hamiltonian are topological circles. If 175
 now we deform slightly the Hamiltonian in such a way that 176
 its classical phase portrait remains topologically the same, 177
 the spectrum of the quantum problem changes but it can 178
 be globally described as a regular sequence of states num- 179
 bered consecutively by one integer and such description 180
 remains valid for any mass parameter value. Note, that for 181
 this problem increasing mass means increasing quantum 182
 state density and approaching classical behavior (classical 183
 limit). 184

More serious modification of the harmonic oscilla- 185
 tor can lead, for example, to creation of new stationary 186
 points of the Hamiltonian. In classical theory this phe- 187
 nomenon is known as fold bifurcation or fold catastro- 188
 phe [3,31]. The phase portrait of the classical problem 189
 changes qualitatively. As a function of energy the con- 190
 stant level set of the Hamiltonian has different topologi- 191
 cal structure (one circle, two circles, figure eight, circle and 192
 a point, or simply point). The quantum version of the same 193
 problem shows the existence of three different sequences 194



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 1

Classical and quantum bifurcations for a one degree-of-freedom system. Situations before (a,b,e) and after (c,d,f) the bifurcation are shown. **a** Energy map for harmonic oscillator-type system. Inverse images of each point are indicated. **b** Quantum state lattice for harmonic oscillator-type system. **c** Energy map after the bifurcation. Inverse images of each point are indicated. **d** Quantum state lattice after bifurcation represented as composed of three regular parts glued together. **e** Phase portrait for harmonic oscillator-type system. Inverse images are S^1 (generic inverse image) and S^0 (inverse image for minimal energy value). **f** Phase portrait after bifurcation

of states which become clearly visible in the limit of the high density of states which can be reached by increasing the mass value parameter [42]. Such qualitative modification of the energy spectrum of the 1D-quantum Hamiltonian gives the simplest example of the phenomenon which can be described as a quantum bifurcation. Figure 1 shows a schematic representation of quantum bifurcations for a model system with one degree-of-freedom in parallel in quantum and classical mechanics.

After looking for one simple example we can formulate a more general question which concerns the appearance in more general quantum systems of qualitative phenomena which can be characterized as quantum bifurcations.

Simplest Effective Hamiltonians

We turn now to several models which describe some specific classes of relatively simple real physical quantum systems formed by a finite number of particles (atoms, molecules, ...). Spectra of such quantum objects are studied nowadays with very high accuracy and this allows us to compare the behavior predicted by quantum bifurcations with the precise information about energy level structure found, for example, from high-resolution molecular spectroscopy.

Typically, the intra-molecular dynamics can be split into electronic, vibrational, and rotational ones due to important differences in characteristic energy excitations or in time scales. The most classical is the rotational motion and probably due to that the quantum bifurcations as a counterpart to classical bifurcations were first studied for purely rotational problems [59,61].

Effective rotational Hamiltonians describe the internal structure of rotational multiplets formed by isolated finite particle systems (atoms, molecules, nuclei) [35]. For many molecular systems in the ground electronic state any electronic and vibrational excitations are much more energy consuming as compared with rotational excitations. Thus, to study the molecular rotation the simplest physical assumption is to suppose that all electronic and all vibrational degrees-of-freedom are frozen. This means that a set of quantum numbers is given which have the sense of approximate integrals of motion specifying the character of vibrational and electronic motions in terms of these “good” quantum numbers. At the same time for a free molecule in the absence of any external fields due to isotropy of the space the total angular momentum J and its projection J_z on the laboratory fixed frame are strict integrals of motion. Consequently, to describe the rotational motion for fixed values of J and J_z it is sufficient to analyze the effective problem with only one degree-of-freedom. The dimension of classical phase space in this case equals two and the two classical conjugate variables are: the projection of the total angular momentum on the body fixed frame and conjugate angle variable. The classical phase space is topologically a two-dimensional sphere, S^2 . There is a one-to-one correspondence between the points on a sphere and the orientation of the angular momentum in the body-fixed frame. Such a representation gives a clear visualization of a classical rotational Hamiltonian as a function defined over a sphere [35,49].

In quantum mechanics the rotation of molecules is traditionally described in terms of an effective rotational Hamiltonian which is constructed as a series in rotational operators J_x, J_y, J_z , the components of the total angular momentum \mathbf{J} . In a suitably chosen molecular fixed frame the effective Hamiltonian has the form

$$H_{\text{eff}} = AJ_x^2 + BJ_y^2 + CJ_z^2 + \sum c_{\alpha\beta\gamma} J_x^\alpha J_y^\beta J_z^\gamma + \dots, \quad (1)$$

where A, B, C and $c_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$ are constants. To relate quantum and classical pictures we note that \mathbf{J}^2 and energy are integrals of Euler’s equations of motion for dynamic variables J_x, J_y, J_z . The phase space of the classical rotational problem with constant $|\mathbf{J}|$ is S^2 , the two-dimensional sphere, and it can be parametrized with spherical

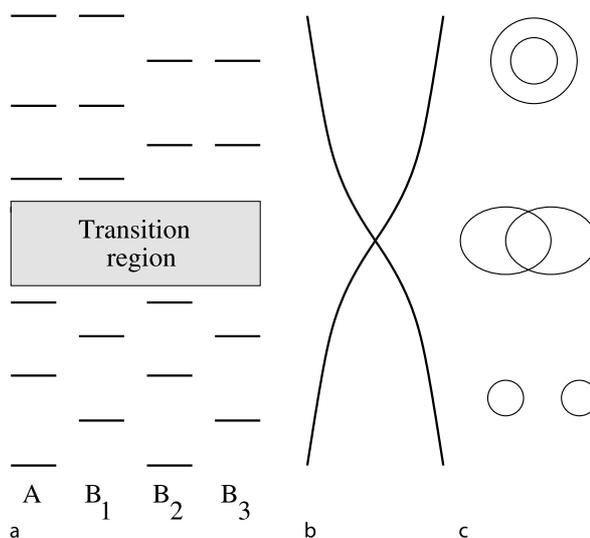
267 angles (θ, ϕ) in such a way that the points on S^2 define the
 268 orientation of \mathbf{J} , i. e. the position of the axis and the direc-
 269 tion of rotation. To get the classical interpretation of the
 270 quantum Hamiltonian we introduce the classical analogs
 271 of the operators J_x, J_y, J_z

$$272 \quad \mathbf{J} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} J_x \\ J_y \\ J_z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sin \theta \cos \phi \\ \sin \theta \sin \phi \\ \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \sqrt{J(J+1)} \quad (2)$$

273 and consider the rotational energy as a function of the dy-
 274 namical variables (θ, ϕ) and the parameter J .

275 Thus, for an effective rotational Hamiltonian the cor-
 276 responding classical symbol is a function $E_J(\theta, \phi)$ de-
 277 fined over S^2 and named usually the rotational energy sur-
 278 face [35].

279 Taking into account the symmetry imposed by the ini-
 280 tial problem and the topology of the phase space the sim-
 281 plest rotational Hamiltonian can be constructed. In clas-
 282 sical mechanics the simplest Hamiltonian can be defined
 283 (using Morse theory [55,88]) as a Hamiltonian function
 284 with the minimal possible number of non-degenerate sta-
 285 tionary points compatible with the symmetry group ac-
 286 tion of the classical phase space. Morse theory in the pre-
 287 sence of symmetry (or equivariant Morse theory) implies
 288 important restrictions on the number of minima, max-
 289 ima, and saddle points. In the absence of symmetry the
 290 simplest Morse type function on the S^2 phase space has
 291 one minimum and one maximum, as a consequence of
 292 Morse inequalities. In the presence of non-trivial symme-
 293 try group action the minimal number of stationary points
 294 on the sphere increases. For example, many asymmetric
 295 top molecules (possessing three different moment of
 296 inertia of the equilibrium configuration) have D_{2h} sym-
 297 metry group [47]. This group includes rotations over π
 298 around $\{x, y, z\}$ axes, reflections in $\{xy, yz, zx\}$ planes
 299 and inversion as symmetry operations. Any D_{2h} invari-
 300 ant function on the sphere has at least six stationary points
 301 (two equivalent minima, two equivalent maxima, and two
 302 equivalent saddle points). This means that in quantum
 303 mechanics the asymmetric top has eigenvalues which form
 304 two regular sequences of quasi-degenerate doublets with
 305 the transition region between them. The correspondence
 306 between the quantum spectrum and the structure of the
 307 energy map for the classical problem is shown in Fig. 2.
 308 Highly symmetrical molecules which have cubic symme-
 309 try, for example, can be described by a simplest Morse-
 310 type Hamiltonian with 26 stationary points (6 and 8 min-
 311 ima/maxima and 12 saddle points). As a consequence, the
 312 corresponding quantum Hamiltonian shows the presence
 313 of six-fold and eight-fold quasi-degenerate clusters of ro-
 314 tational levels.



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 2

a Schematic representation of the energy level structure for asymmetric top molecule. Vertical axis corresponds to energy variation. Quantum levels are classified by the symmetry group of the asymmetric top. Two fold clusters at two ends of the rotational multiplet are formed by states with different symmetry. b Foliation of the classical phase space (S^2 sphere) by constant levels of the Hamiltonian given in the form of its Reeb graph. Each point corresponds to a connected component of the constant level set of the Hamiltonian (energy). c Geometric representation of the constant energy sections

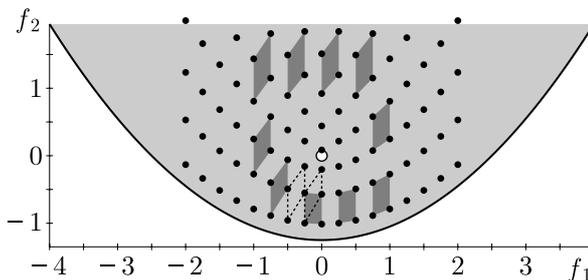
315 As soon as the simplest classical Hamiltonian is char-
 316 acterized by the appropriate system of stationary points
 317 the whole region of possible classical energy values (in
 318 the case of dynamical systems with only one degree-of-
 319 freedom the energy-momentum map becomes simply the
 320 energy map) appears to be split into different regions cor-
 321 responding to different dynamical regimes, i. e. to differ-
 322 ent regions of the phase portrait foliated by topologically
 323 non-equivalent systems of classical trajectories. Accord-
 324 ingly, the energy spectrum of the corresponding quantum
 325 Hamiltonian can be qualitatively described as formed by
 326 regular sequences of states within each region of the clas-
 327 sical energy map.

328 Quantum bifurcations are universal phenomena
 329 which lead to a new organization of the energy spec-
 330 trum into qualitatively different regions in accordance
 331 with corresponding qualitative modifications of the clas-
 332 sical energy-momentum map under the variation of some
 333 control parameter.

Simplest Hamiltonians for Two Degree-of-Freedom Systems

When the quantum system has two or larger number of degrees-of-freedom the simplest dynamical regimes often correspond in classical mechanics to a quasi-regular dynamics which can be reasonably well approximated by an integrable model. The integrable model in classical mechanics can be constructed by normalizing the Hamiltonian and by passing to so-called normal forms [2,49]. The quantum counterpart of normalization is the construction of a mutually commuting set of operators which should not be mistaken with quantization of systems in normal form. Corresponding eigenvalues can be used as “good” quantum numbers to label quantum states. A joint spectrum of mutually commuting operators corresponds to the image of the energy-momentum map for the classical completely integrable dynamical problem. In this context the question about quantum bifurcations first of all leads to the question about qualitative classification of the joint spectra of mutually commuting operators. To answer this question we need to start with the qualitative description of foliations of the total phase space of the classical problem by common levels of integrals of motion which are mutually in involution [2,7]. One needs to distinguish the regular and the singular values of the energy-momentum map. For Hamiltonian systems the inverse images of the regular values are regular tori (one or several) [2]. A lot of different singularities are possible. In classical mechanics different levels of the classifications are studied in detail [7]. The diagram which represents the image of the classical EM map together with its stratification into regular and critical values is named the bifurcation diagram. The origin of such a name is due to the fact that the values of integrals of motion can be considered as control parameters for the phase portraits (inverse images of the EM map) of the reduced systems.

For quantum problems the analog of the classical stratification of the EM map for integrable systems is the splitting of the joint spectrum of several commuting observables into regions formed by regular lattices of joint eigenvalues. Any local simply connected neighborhood of a regular point of the lattice can be deformed into part of the regular Z^n lattice of integers. This means that local quantum numbers can be consistently introduced to label states of the joint spectrum. If the regular region is not simply connected it still can be characterized locally by a set of “good” quantum numbers. At the same time this is impossible globally. Likewise in classical mechanics the Hamiltonian monodromy is the simplest obstruction to the existence of the global action-angle variables [17,57], in



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 3
 Joint spectrum of two commuting operators together with the image of the classical EM map for the resonant 1 : (-1) oscillator given by (3). Quantum monodromy is seen as a result of transportation of the elementary cell of the quantum lattice along a close path through a non simply connected region of the regular part of the image of the EM map. Taken from [58]

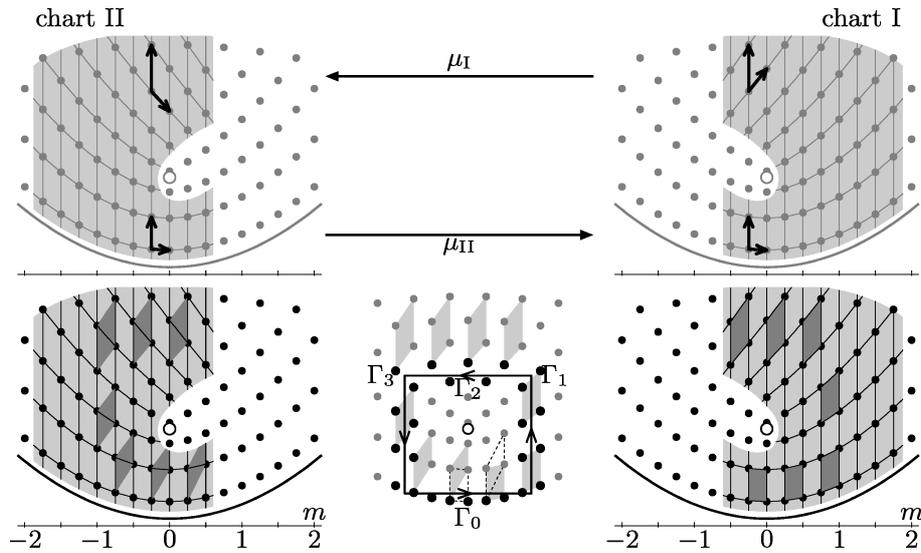
quantum mechanics the analog notion of quantum monodromy [14,33,68,80] characterizes the global non-triviality of the regular part of the lattice of joint eigenvalues. Figure 3 demonstrates the effect of the presence of a classical singularity (isolated focus-focus point) on the global properties of the quantum lattice formed by joint eigenvalues of two commuting operators for a simple problem with two degrees-of-freedom, which is essentially the 1 : (-1) resonant oscillator [58]. Two integrals of motions in this example are chosen as

$$f_1 = \frac{1}{2} (p_1^2 + q_1^2) - \frac{1}{2} (p_2^2 + q_2^2), \tag{3}$$

$$f_2 = p_1 q_2 + p_2 q_1 + \frac{1}{4} (p_1^2 + q_1^2 + p_2^2 + q_2^2)^2. \tag{4}$$

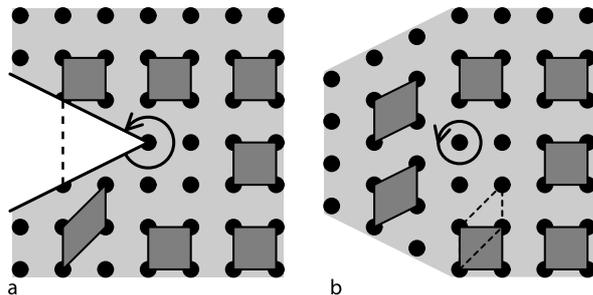
Locally in any simply connected region which does not include the classical singularity of the EM map situated at $f_1 = f_2 = 0$, the joint spectrum can be smoothly deformed to the regular Z^2 lattice [58,89]. Such lattices are shown, for example, in Fig. 4. If somebody wants to use only one chart to label states, it is necessary to take care in respect of the multivaluedness of such a representation. There are two possibilities:

- (i) One makes a cut and maps the quantum lattice to a regular Z^2 lattice with an appropriate solid angle removed from it (see Fig. 5 [58,68,89]). Points on the boundary of such a cut should be identified and a special matching rule explaining how to cross the path should be introduced. Similar constructions are quite popular in solid state physics in order to represent defects of lattices, like dislocations, disclinations, etc. We just note that the “monodromy defect” introduced



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 4

Two chart atlas which covers the quantum lattice of the $1 : (-1)$ resonant oscillator system represented in Fig. 3. *Top plots* show the choice of basis cells and the gluing map between the charts. *Bottom plots* show the transport of the elementary cell (dark gray quadrangles) in each chart. *Central bottom panel* shows close path Γ and its quantum realization (black dots) leading to non-trivial monodromy (compare with Fig. 3). Taken from [58]



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 5

Construction of the $1 : (-1)$ lattice defect starting from the regular Z^2 lattice. The solid angle is removed from the regular Z^2 lattice and points on the so-obtained boundary are identified by vertical shifting. *Dark gray quadrangles* show the evolution of an elementary lattice cell along a closed path around the defect point. Taken from [58]

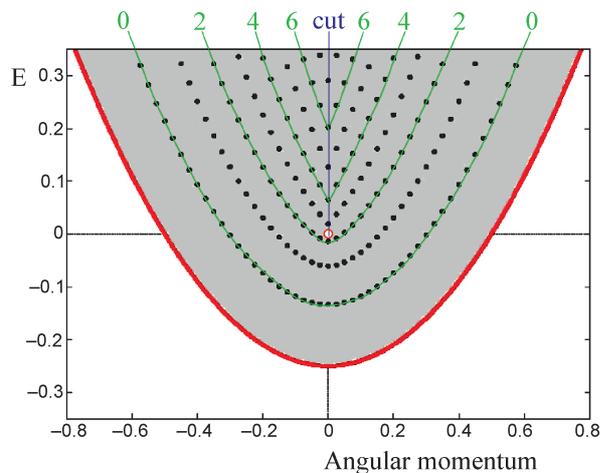
413 in such a way is different from standard construction
 414 for dislocation and disclination defects [45,50]. The
 415 inverse procedure of the construction of the “monodromy defect” [89] from a regular lattice is represented in Fig. 5. Let us note that the width of the solid angle removed depends on the direction of the cut and the direction of the cut itself can be chosen in an ambiguous way.
 417
 418
 419
 420

- 421 (ii) An alternative possibility is to make a cut in such
 422 a way that the width of the removed angle becomes

423 equal to zero. For focus-focus singularities one such
 424 direction always exists and is named an eigenray by
 425 Symington [75]. The same construction is used in
 426 some physical papers [10,11,84]. The inconvenience
 427 of such a procedure is the appearance of discontinuity
 428 of the slope of the constant action (quantum num-
 429 ber) line at the cut, whereas the values of actions them-
 430 selves are continued (see Fig. 6). This gives the wrong
 431 impression that this eigenray is associated with some
 432 special non-regular behavior of the initial problem,
 433 whereas there is no singularity except at one focus-
 434 focus point.

Bifurcations and Symmetry

435
 436 The general mathematical answer about the possible qual-
 437 itative modifications of a system of stationary points of
 438 functions depending on some control parameters can be
 439 found in bifurcation (or catastrophe) theory [3,31,32]. It
 440 is important that the answer depends on the number of
 441 control parameters and on the symmetry. Very simple
 442 classification of possible typical bifurcations of stationary
 443 points of a one-parameter family of functions under pres-
 444 ence of symmetry can be formulated for dynamical sys-
 445 tems with one degree-of-freedom. The situation is particu-
 446 larly simple because the phase space is two-dimensional
 447 and the complete list of local symmetry groups (which are



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 6

Representation of the quantum joint spectrum for the “Mexican hat” potential $V(r) = ar^4 - br^2$ with the “cut” along the eigenray. For such a cut the left and the right limits at the cut give the same values of actions (good quantum numbers) but the lines of constant values of actions exhibit a “kink” at the cut (the discontinuity of the first derivative)

the stabilizers of stationary points) includes only 2D-point groups [83]. It should be noted that the global symmetry of the problem can be larger than the local symmetry of the bifurcating stationary points. In such a case the bifurcations occur simultaneously for all points forming one orbit of the global symmetry group [51,52]. We describe briefly here (see Table 1) the classification of the bifurcations of stationary points in the presence of symmetry for families of functions depending on one parameter and associated quantum bifurcations [59,61]. Their notation includes the local symmetry group and several additional indexes which specify creation/annihilation of stationary points and the local or non-local character of the bifurcation. The list of possible bifurcations includes:

C_1^\pm A non-symmetrical non-local bifurcation resulting in the appearance (+) or disappearance (-) of a stable-unstable pair of stationary points with the trivial local symmetry C_1 . In the quantum problem this bifurcation is associated with the appearance or disappearance of a new regular sequence of states glued at its end with the intermediate part of another regular sequence of quantum states [42,77].

$C_2^{L\pm}$ A local bifurcation with the broken C_2 local symmetry. This bifurcation results either in appearance of a triple of points (two equivalent stable points with C_1 local symmetry and one unstable point with C_2 local symmetry) instead of one stable point with C_2 sym-

metry, or in inverse transformation. The number of stationary points in this bifurcation increases or decreases by two. For the quantum problem the result is the transformation of a local part of a regular sequence of states into one sequence of quasi-degenerate doublets.

$C_2^{N\pm}$ A non-local bifurcation with the broken C_2 local symmetry. This bifurcation results in appearance (+) or disappearance (-) of two new unstable points with broken C_2 symmetry and simultaneous transformation of the initially stable (for +) or unstable (for -) stationary point into an unstable/stable one. The number of stationary points in this bifurcation increases or decreases by two. For the quantum problem this means the appearance of a new regular sequence of states near the separatrix between two different regular regions.

C_n^N ($n = 3, 4$) A non-local bifurcation corresponding to passage of n unstable stationary points through a stable stationary point with C_n local symmetry which is accompanied with the minimum \leftrightarrow maximum change for a stable point with the C_n local symmetry. The number of stationary points remains the same. For the quantum problem this bifurcation corresponds to transformation of the increased sequence of energy levels into a decreased sequence.

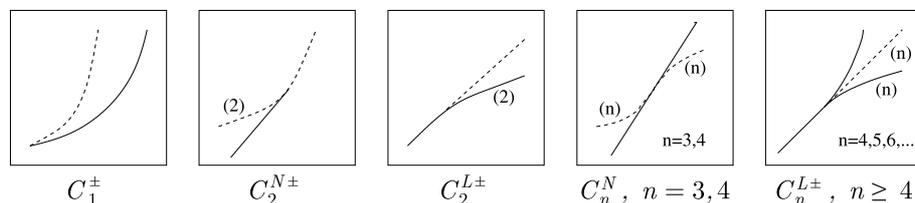
$C_n^{L\pm}$ ($n \geq 4$) A local bifurcation which results in appearance (+) or disappearance (-) of n stable and n unstable stationary points with the broken C_n symmetry and a simultaneous minimum \leftrightarrow maximum change of a stable point with the C_n local symmetry. The number of stationary points increases or decreases by $2n$. In the quantum problem after bifurcation a new sequence of n -times quasi-degenerate levels appears/disappears.

Universal quantum Hamiltonians which describe the qualitative modification of the quantum energy level system around the bifurcation point are given in [59,61].

The presence of symmetry makes it much easier to observe the manifestation of quantum bifurcations. Modification of the local symmetry of stable stationary points results in the modification of the cluster structure of energy levels, i. e. the number and the symmetry types of energy level forming quasi-degenerate groups of levels. This phenomenon is essentially the spontaneous breaking of symmetry [51]. Several concrete molecular systems which show the presence of quantum bifurcations in rotational structure under rotational excitation are cited in Table 2. Many other examples can be found in [9,23,59,67,71,87,88,91,92] and references therein. In purely vibrational problems breaking dynamical $SU(N)$ symmetry of the isotrope harmonic oscillator till finite

Quantum Bifurcations, Table 1

Bifurcations in the presence of symmetry. *Solid lines* denote stable stationary points. *Dashed lines* denote unstable stationary points. *Numbers in parenthesis* indicate the multiplicity of stationary points

**Quantum Bifurcations, Table 2**

Molecular examples of quantum bifurcations in the rotational structure of individual vibrational components under the variation of the absolute value of angular momentum, J . J_c is the critical value corresponding to bifurcation

Molecule	Component	J_c	Bifurcation type
SiH ₄	$\nu_2(+)$	12	C_2^{N+}
SnH ₄	$\nu_2(-)$	10	$C_2^{N+}, C_3^N, C_4^N, C_2^{N-}$
CF ₄	$\nu_2(+)$	50	C_4^{L+}
H ₂ Se	$ 0\rangle$	20	C_2^{L+}

525 symmetry group results in formation of so-called non-
 526 linear normal modes [23,54] or quasimodes [1], or local
 527 modes [9,25,38,39,43,46,48]. In the case of two degrees-
 528 of-freedom the analysis of the vibrational problem can be
 529 reduced to the analysis of the problem similar to the rota-
 530 tional one [35,66] and all the results about possible types
 531 of bifurcations found for rotational problems remain valid
 532 in the case of intra-molecular vibrational dynamics.

533 Imperfect Bifurcations

534 According to general results the possible types of bifur-
 535 cations which are generically present (and persist un-
 536 der small deformations) in a family of dynamical systems
 537 strictly depend on the number of control parameters. In
 538 the absence of symmetry only one bifurcation of station-
 539 ary points is present for a one-parameter family of Morse-
 540 type functions, namely the formation (annihilation) of two
 541 new stationary points. This corresponds to saddle-node
 542 bifurcation for one degree-of-freedom Hamiltonian sys-
 543 tems. The presence of symmetry increases significantly the
 544 number of possible bifurcations even for families with only
 545 one parameter [31,32]. From the physical point-of-view it
 546 is quite natural to study the effect of symmetry breaking on
 547 the symmetry allowed bifurcation. Decreasing symmetry
 548 naturally results in the modification of the allowed types
 549 of bifurcations but at the same time it is quite clear that
 550 at sufficient slight symmetry breaking perturbation the re-

sulting behavior of the system should be rather close to the
 behavior of the original system with higher symmetry.

In the case of a small violation of symmetry the so-called “imperfect bifurcations” can be observed. Imperfect bifurcations, which are well known in the classical theory of bifurcations [32] consist of the appearance of stationary points in the neighborhood of another stationary point which does not change its stability. In some way one can say that imperfect bifurcation mimics generic bifurcation in the presence of higher symmetry by the special organization of several bifurcations which are generic in the presence of lower symmetry. Naturally quantum bifurcations follow the same behavior under the symmetry breaking as classical ones. Very simple and quite natural examples of imperfect quantum bifurcations were demonstrated on the example of the rotational structure modifications under increasing angular momentum [90]. The idea of appearance of imperfect bifurcations is as follows. Let us suppose that some symmetrical molecule demonstrates under the variation of angular momentum a quantum rotational bifurcation allowed by symmetry. The origin of this bifurcation is due, say, to centrifugal distortion effects which depend strongly on J but are not very sensitive to small variation of masses even in the case of symmetry breaking isotopic substitution. In such a case a slight modification of the masses of one or several equivalent atoms breaks the symmetry and this symmetry violation can be made very weak due to the small ratio $\Delta M/M$ under isotope substitution. In classical theory the effect of symmetry breaking can be easily seen through the variation of the position of stationary points with control parameter. For example, instead of a pitchfork bifurcation which is typical for C_2 local symmetry, we get for the unsymmetrical problem (after slight breaking of C_2 symmetry) a smooth evolution of the position of one stationary point and the appearance of two new stationary points in fold catastrophe (see Fig. 7). In associated quantum bifurcations the most important effect is the splitting of clusters. But one should be careful with this interpretation because in quantum mechanics of finite particle systems the clusters are always split

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591 due to quantum mechanical tunneling between different
592 equivalent regions of localization of quantum wave func-
593 tions. Intercluster splitting increases rapidly approaching
594 the region of classical separatrix. The behavior of quan-
595 tum tunneling was studied extensively in relation to the
596 quantum breathers problem [6,29]. Systematic application
597 of quasi-classical methods to reproduce quantum energy
598 level structure near the singularities of the energy-momen-
599 tum maps where exponentially small corrections are im-
600 portant is possible but requires special efforts (see for ex-
601 ample [12]) and we will not touch upon this problem here.

602 Organization of Bifurcations

603 The analysis of the quantum bifurcations in concrete ex-
604 amples of rotating molecules have shown that in some
605 cases the molecule undergoes several consecutive qualita-
606 tive changes which can be interpreted as a sequence of bi-
607 furcations which sometimes cannot even be separated into
608 elementary bifurcations for the real scale of the control pa-
609 rameter [88]. One can imagine in principle that successive
610 bifurcations lead to quantum chaos in analogy with clas-
611 sical dynamical systems where the typical scenario for the
612 transition to chaos is through a sequence of bifurcations.
613 Otherwise, the molecular examples were described with
614 effective Hamiltonians depending only on one degree-of-
615 freedom and the result of the sequence of bifurcations was
616 just the crossover of the rotational multiplets [64]. In some
617 sense such a sequence of bifurcations can be interpreted as
618 an imperfect bifurcation assuming initially higher dynam-
619 ical symmetry, like the continuous $SO(3)$ group.

620 Later, a similar crossover phenomenon was found in a
621 quite different quantum problem, like the hydrogen atom
622 in external fields [24,53,72]. The general idea of such or-
623 ganization of bifurcations is based on the existence of two
624 different limiting cases of dynamical regimes for the same
625 physical quantum system (often under presence of the
626 same symmetry group) which are qualitatively different.
627 For example, the number of stationary points, or their sta-
628 bility differs. If H_1 and H_2 are two corresponding effec-
629 tive Hamiltonians, the natural question is: Is it possible to
630 transform H_1 into H_2 by a generic perturbation depend-
631 ing on only one parameter? And if so, what is the minimal
632 number of bifurcations to go through?

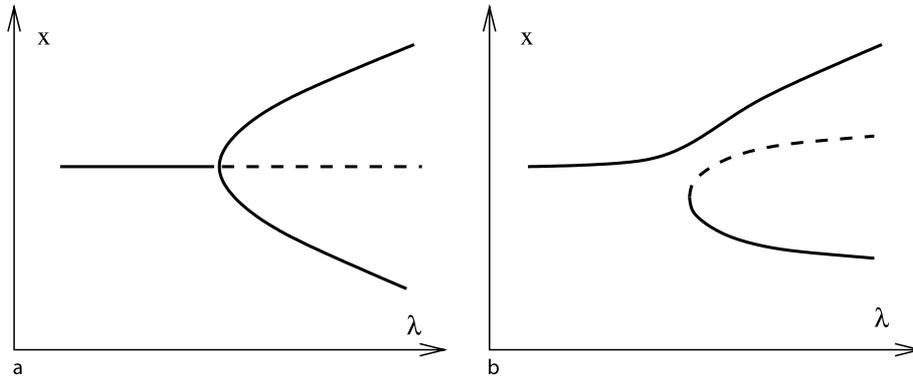
633 The simplest quantum system for which such a ques-
634 tion becomes extremely natural is the hydrogen atom in
635 the presence of external static electric (F) and magnetic (G)
636 fields. Two natural limits – the Stark effect in the electric
637 field and Zeeman effect in the magnetic field – show quite
638 different qualitative structure even in the extremely low

639 field limit [15,20,63,72,78]. Keeping a small field one can
640 go from one (Stark) limit to another (Zeeman) and this
641 transformation naturally goes through qualitatively differ-
642 ent regimes [24,53]. In spite of the fact that the hydro-
643 gen atom (even without spin and relativistic corrections)
644 is only a three degree-of-freedom system, the complete de-
645 scription of qualitatively different regimes in a small field
646 limit is still not done and remains an open problem [24].

647 An example of clearly seen qualitative modifications of
648 the quantum energy level system of the hydrogen atom un-
649 der the variation of F/G ratio of the strengths of two par-
650 allel electric and magnetic fields is shown in Fig. 8. The
651 calculations are done for a two degree-of-freedom system
652 after the normalization with respect to the global action.
653 In quantum mechanics language this means that only en-
654 ergy levels which belong to the same n -shell of the hy-
655 drogen atom are treated and the interaction with other n'
656 shells is taken into account only effectively. The limiting
657 classical phase space for this effective problem is the four-
658 dimensional space $S^2 \times S^2$, which is the direct product
659 of two two-dimensional spheres. In the presence of axial
660 symmetry this problem is completely integrable and the
661 Hamiltonian and the angular momentum provide a com-
662 plete set of mutually commuting operators. Energies of
663 stationary points of classical Hamiltonian limit are shown
664 on the same Fig. 8 along with quantum levels. When one
665 of the characteristic frequencies goes through zero, the so-
666 called collapse phenomena occurs. Some other non-triv-
667 ial resonance relations between two frequencies are also
668 indicated. These resonances correspond to special orga-
669 nization of quantum energy levels. At the same time it
670 is not necessary here to go to joint spectrum representa-
671 tion in order to see the reorganization of stationary points
672 of the Hamiltonian function on $S^2 \times S^2$ phase space un-
673 der the variation of the external control parameter F/G . A
674 more detailed treatment of qualitative features of the en-
675 ergy level systems for the hydrogen atom in low fields is
676 given in [15,20,24].

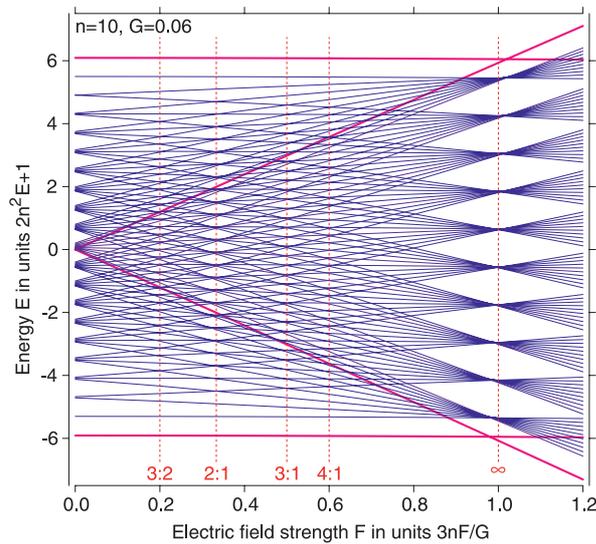
677 Bifurcation Diagrams for Two Degree-of-Freedom 678 Integrable Systems

679 Let us consider now the two degree-of-freedom integrable
680 system with compact phase space as a bit more complex
681 but still reasonably simple problem. Many examples of
682 such systems possess EM maps with the stratification of
683 the image formed by the regular part surrounded by the
684 singular boundary. The most naturally arising examples of
685 classical phase spaces, like $S^2 \times S^2$, CP^2 , are of that type.
686 All internal points on the image of the EM map are regu-
687 lar in these cases. In practice, real physical problems, even



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 7

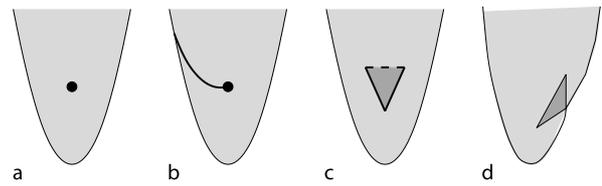
Imperfect bifurcations. **a** Position x of stationary points as a function of control parameter λ during a pitchfork bifurcation in the presence of C_2 local symmetry. **b** Modifications induced by small symmetry perturbation of lower symmetry. *Solid line*: Stable stationary points. *Dashed lines*: Unstable stationary points



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 8

Reorganization of the internal structure of the n -multiplet of the hydrogen atom in small parallel electric and magnetic fields. Energies of stationary points of the classical Hamiltonian (*red solid lines*) are shown together with quantum energy levels (*blue solid lines*). The figure is done for $n = 10$ (there are $n^2 = 100$ energy levels forming this multiplet). As the ratio F/G of electric F and magnetic G fields varies this two degree-of-freedom system goes through different zones associated with special resonance relations between two characteristic frequencies (shown by *vertical dashed lines*). Taken from [24]

688 after necessary simplifications and approximations lead to
 689 more complicated models. Some examples of fragments of
 690 images of the EM map with internal singular points are
 691 shown in Fig. 9. In classical mechanics the inverse images



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 9

Typical images of the energy momentum map for completely integrable Hamiltonian systems with two degrees-of-freedom in the case of: **a** integer monodromy, **b** fractional monodromy, **c** non-local monodromy, and **d** bidromy. Values in the *light shaded area* lift to single 2-tori; values in the *dark shaded area* lift to two 2-tori. Taken from [69]

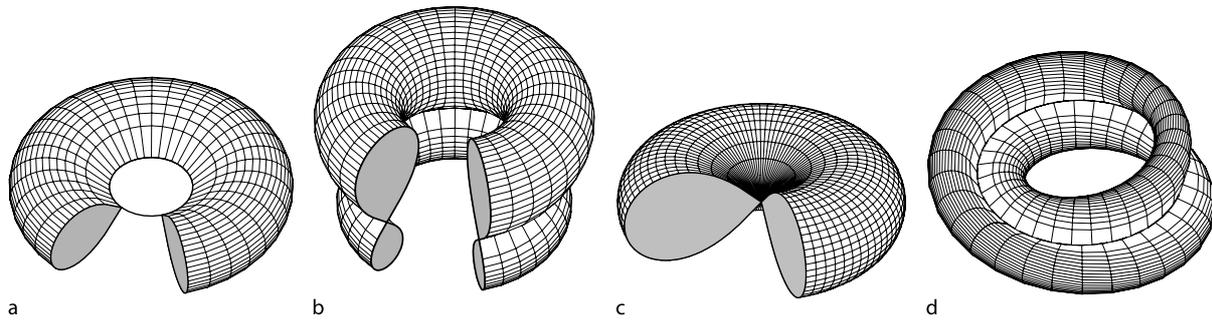
of critical values are singular tori of different kinds. Some of them are represented in Fig. 10. Inverse images of critical points situated on the boundary of the EM image have lower dimension. They can be one-dimensional tori (S^1 -circles), or zero-dimensional (points).

The natural question now is to describe typical generic modifications of the Hamiltonian which lead to qualitative modifications of the EM map image in classical mechanics and to associated modifications of the joint spectrum in quantum mechanics.

The simplest classical bifurcation leading to modification of the image of the EM map is the Hamiltonian Hopf bifurcation [79]. It is associated with the following modification of the image of the EM map. The critical value of the EM map situated on the boundary leaves the boundary and enters an internal domain of regular values (see Fig. 11) **CE2**. As a consequence, the toric fibration over the closed path surrounding an isolated singularity is non-trivial. Its non-triviality can be characterized by the Ham-

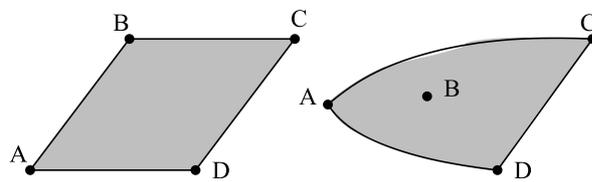
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Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 10

Two-dimensional singular fibers in the case of integrable Hamiltonian systems with two degrees-of-freedom (left to right): singular torus, bitorus, pinched and curled tori. Singular torus corresponds to critical values in Fig. 9c, d (ends of bitoris line). Bitorus corresponds to critical values in Fig. 9c, d, which belong to singular line (fusion of two components). Pinched torus corresponds to isolated focus-focus singularity in Fig. 9a. Curled torus is associated with critical values at singular line in Fig. 9b (fractional monodromy). Taken from [69]



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 11

Qualitative modification of the image of the EM map due to Hamiltonian Hopf bifurcation. Left: Simplest integrable toric fibration over $S^2 \times S^2$ classical phase space. A, B, C, D: Critical values corresponding to singular S^0 fibers. Regular points on the boundary correspond to S^1 fibers. Regular internal points: Regular T^2 fibers. Right: Appearance of an isolated critical value inside the field of regular values. Critical value B corresponds to pinched torus shown in Fig. 10

711 ltonian monodromy which describes the mapping from
712 the fundamental group of the base space into the first ho-
713 mology group of the regular fiber [18]. A typical pattern
714 of the joint spectrum around such a classical singularity
715 is shown in Fig. 3. The joint spectrum manifests the pres-
716 ence of quantum monodromy. Its interpretation in terms
717 of regular lattices is given in Figs. 4 and 5.

718 Taking into account additional terms of higher order
719 it is possible to distinguish different types of Hamiltonian
720 Hopf bifurcations usually named as subcritical and super-
721 critical [19,79]. New qualitative modification, for exam-
722 ple, corresponds to transformation of an isolated singular
723 value of the EM map into an “island”, i. e. the region of the
724 EM image filled by points whose inverse images consist
725 of two connected components. Integrable approximation
726 for vibrational motion in the LiCN molecule shows the
727 presence of such an island associated with the non-local
728 quantum monodromy (see Fig. 12) [40]. The monodromy
729 naturally coincides with the quantum monodromy of iso-
730 lated focus-focus singularity which deforms continuously

731 into the island monodromy. It is interesting to note that in
732 molecule HCN which is rather similar to LiCN, the region
733 with two components in the inverse image of the EM map
734 exists also but the monodromy cannot be defined due to
735 impossibility to go around the island [22].

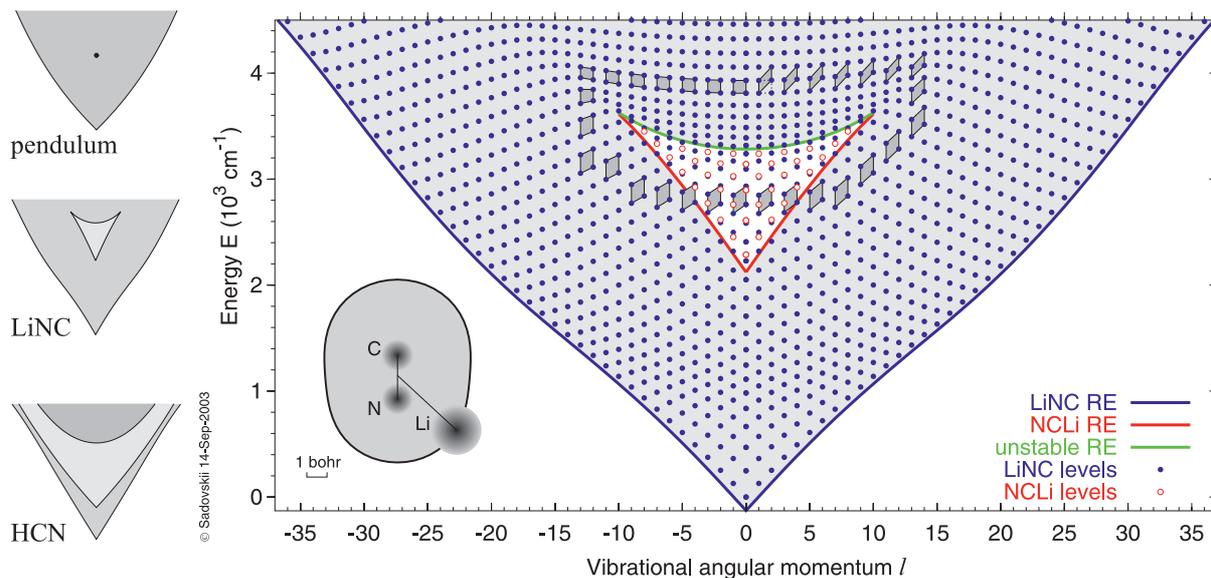
736 In the quantum problem the presence of “standard”
737 quantum monodromy in the joint spectrum of two mutu-
738 ally commuting observables can be seen through the map-
739 ping of a locally regular part of the joint spectrum lat-
740 tice to an idealized Z^2 lattice. Existence of local actions
741 for the classical problem which are defined almost every-
742 where and the multivaluedness of global actions from one
743 side and the quantum-classical correspondence from an-
744 other side allow the interpretation of the joint spectrum
745 with quantum monodromy as a regular lattice with an iso-
746 lated defect.

747 Recently, the generalization of the notion of quan-
748 tum (and classical) monodromy was suggested [21,58].
749 For quantum problems the idea is based on the possibil-
750 ity to study instead of the complete lattice formed by the
751 joint spectrum only a sub-lattice of finite index. Such a
752 transformation allows one to eliminate certain “weak line
753 singularities” presented in the image of the EM map. The
754 resulting monodromy is named “fractional monodromy”
755 because for the elementary cell in the regular region the
756 formal transformation after a propagation along a close
757 path crossing “weak line singularities” turns out to be rep-
758 resented in a form of a matrix with fractional coefficients.

759 An example of quantum fractional monodromy can be
760 given with a $1 : (-2)$ resonant oscillator system possessing
761 two integrals of motion f_1, f_2 in involution:

$$f_1 = \frac{\omega}{2} (p_1^2 + q_1^2) - \frac{2\omega}{2} (p_2^2 + q_2^2) + R_1(q, p), \quad (5)$$

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Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 12

Quantum joint spectrum for the quantum model problem with two degrees-of-freedom describing two vibrations in the LiNC molecule. The non-local quantum monodromy is shown by the evolution of the elementary cell of the quantum lattice around the singular line associated with gluing of two regular lattices corresponding in molecular language to two different isomers, LiNC and LiNC. Classical limit (left) shows the possible deformation of isolated focus-focus singularity for pendulum to non-local island singularity for LiNC model. In contrast to LiNC, the HCN model has an infinite island which cannot be surrounded by a close path. Taken from [40]

$$f_2 = \text{Im} [(q_1 + ip_1)^2(q_2 + ip_2)] + R_2(q, p). \quad (6)$$

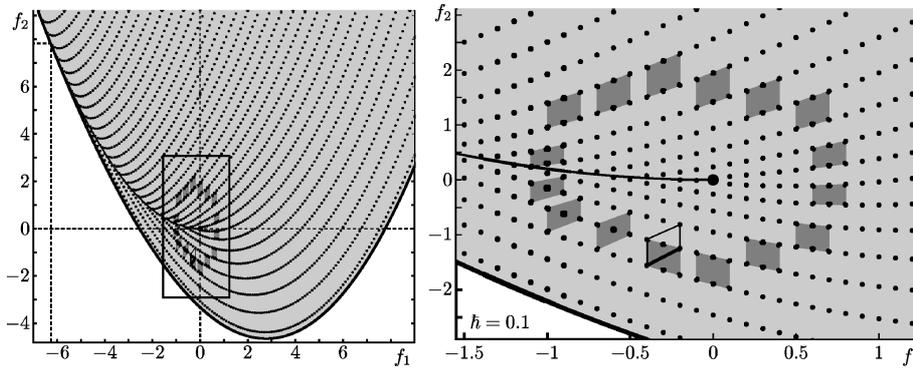
The corresponding joint spectrum for the quantum problem is shown in Fig. 13. It can be represented as a regular Z^2 lattice with a solid angle removed (see Fig. 14). The main difference with the standard integer monodromy representation is due to the fact that even after gluing two sides of the cut we get the one-dimensional singular stratum which can be neglected only after going to a sub-lattice (to a sub-lattice of index 2 for 1 : 2 fractional singularity).

Another kind of generalization of the monodromy notion is related to the appearance of multi-component inverse images for the EM maps. We have already mentioned such a possibility with the appearance of non-local monodromy and Hamiltonian Hopf bifurcations (see Fig. 12). But in this case two components of the inverse image belong to different regular domains and cannot be joined by a path going only through regular values. Another possibility is suggested in [69,70] and is explained schematically in Fig. 15. This figure shows that the arrangement of fibers can be done in such a way that one connected component can be deformed into another connected component along a path which goes only through

regular tori. The existence of a quantum joint spectrum corresponding to such a classical picture was demonstrated on the example of a very well-known model problem with three degrees-of-freedom: Three resonant oscillators with 1 : 1 : 2 resonance, axial symmetry and with small detuning between double degenerate and non-degenerate modes [30,70]. The specific behavior of the joint spectrum for this model can be characterized as self-overlapping of a regular lattice. The possibility to propagate the initially chosen cell through a regular lattice from the region of self-overlapping of lattice back to the same region but to another component was named “bidromy”. More complicated construction for the same problem allows us to introduce the “bipath” notion. The bipath starts at a regular point of the EM image, and crosses the singular line by splitting itself into two components **CE3**. Each component belongs to its proper lattice in the self-overlapping region. Two components of the path can go back through the regular region only and fuse together. The behavior of quantum cells along a bipath is shown in Fig. 16. Providing a rigorous mathematical description of such a construction is still an open problem. Although the original problem has three degrees-of-freedom, it is possible to construct a model system with two degrees-of-freedom and with similar properties.

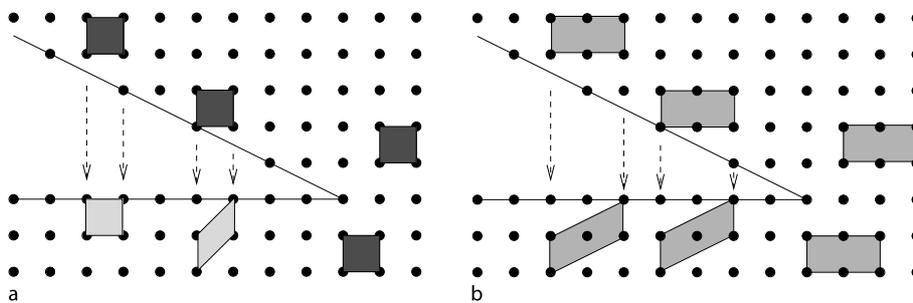
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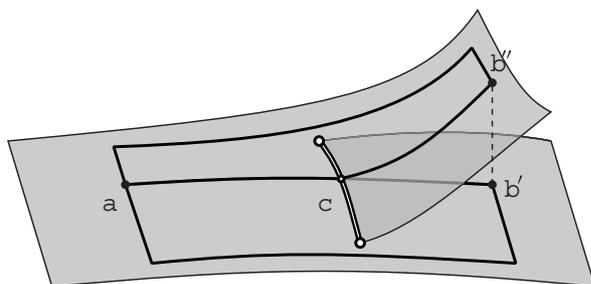
Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 13

Joint quantum spectrum for two-dimensional non-linear 1 : (−2) resonant oscillator (5). The singular line is formed by critical values whose inverse images are curled tori shown in Fig. 10. In order to get the unambiguous result of the propagation of the cell of the quantum lattice along a closed path crossing the singular line, the elementary cell is doubled. Taken from [58]



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 14

Representation of a lattice with 1 : 2 rational defect by cutting and gluing. *Left:* The elementary cell goes through cut in an ambiguous way. The result depends on the place where the cell crosses the cut. *Right:* Double cell crosses the cut in an unambiguous way. Taken from [58]



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 15

Schematic representation of the inverse images for a problem with bidromy in the form of the unfolded surface. Each connected component of the inverse image is represented as a *single point*. The path $b' - a - b''$ starts and ends at the same point of the space of possible values of integrals of motion but it starts at one connected component and ends at another one. At the same time the path goes only through regular tori. Taken from [70]

Bifurcations of “Quantum Bifurcation Diagrams”

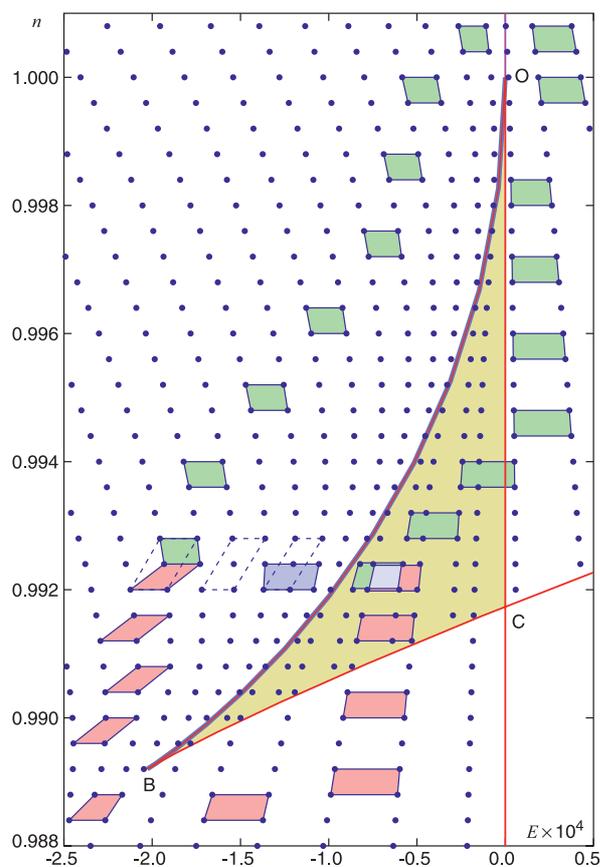
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We want now to stress some differences in the role of internal and external control parameters. From one point-of-view a quantum problem, which corresponds in the classical limit to a multidimensional integrable classical model, possesses a joint spectrum qualitatively described by a “quantum bifurcation diagram”. This diagram shows that the joint spectrum is formed from several parts of regular lattices through a cutting and gluing procedure. Going from one regular region to another is possible by crossing singular lines. The parameter defined along such a path can be treated as an internal control parameter. It is essentially a function of values of integrals of motion. To cross the singular line is equivalent to passing **CE5** the quantum bifurcation for a family of reduced systems with a smaller number of degrees of freedom.

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On the other side we can ask the following more general question. What kinds of generic modifications of “bi-

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Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 16

Joint quantum spectrum for problem with bidromy. Quantum states are given by two numbers (energy, E , and polyad number, n) which are the eigenvalues of two mutually commuting operators. Inside the OAB curvilinear triangle two regular lattices are clearly seen. One can be continued smoothly through the OC boundary whereas another continues [CE4](#) through the BC boundary. This means that the regular part of the whole lattice can be considered as a one self-overlapping regular lattice. The figure suggests also the possibility to define the propagation of a double cell along a “bipath” through the singular line BO which leads to splitting of the cell into two elementary cells fusing at the end into one cell defining in such a way the “bidromy” transformation associated with a bipath. Taken from [70]

829 bifurcation diagrams” are possible for a family of integrable
830 systems depending on some external parameters? Hamil-
831 tonian Hopf bifurcation leading to the appearance of a new
832 isolated singular value and as a consequence appearance
833 of monodromy is just one of the possible effects of this
834 kind. Another possibility is the transformation of an iso-
835 lated focus-focus singular value into the island associated
836 with the presence of a second connected component of the
837 inverse image of the EM map. It is also possible that such

838 an island is born within the regular region of the EM map.
839 In such a case naturally the monodromy transformation
840 associated with a closed path surrounding the so-obtained
841 island should be trivial (identity).

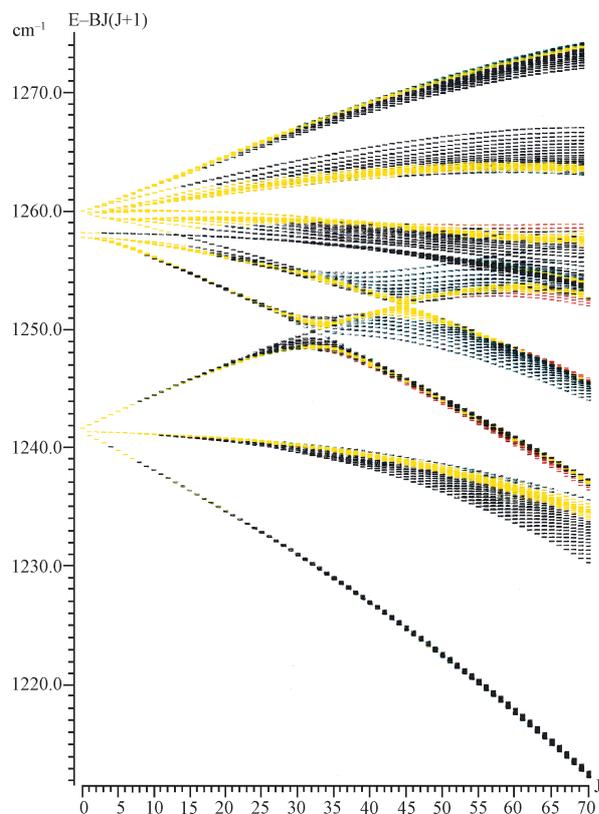
842 The boundary of the image of the EM map can also
843 undergo transformation which results in the appearance
844 of the region with two components in the inverse image
845 but, in contrast to the previous example of the appearance
846 of an island, these two components can be smoothly de-
847 formed one onto [CE6](#) another along a continuous path go-
848 ing only through regular values of the EM map. Examples
849 of all such modifications were studied on simple models
850 inspired by concrete quantum molecular systems like the
851 H atom, CO_2 , LiCN molecules and so on [24,30,40].

Semi-Quantum Limit and Reorganization of Quantum Bands

852 Up to now we have discussed the qualitative modifications
853 of internal structures of certain groups of quantum lev-
854 els which are typically named bands. Their appearance is
855 physically quite clear in the adiabatic approximation. The
856 existence of fast and slow classical motions manifests it-
857 self in quantum mechanics through the formation of so-
858 called energy bands. The big energy difference between en-
859 ergies of different bands correspond to fast classical vari-
860 ables whereas small energy differences between energy lev-
861 els belonging to the same band correspond to classical slow
862 variables. Typical bands in simple quantum systems corre-
863 spond to vibrational structure of different electronic states,
864 rotational structure of different vibrational states, etc.

867 If now we have a quantum problem which shows the
868 presence of bands in its energy spectrum, the natural gen-
869 eralization consists of putting this quantum system in
870 a family, depending on one (or several) control param-
871 eters. What are the generic qualitative modifications which
872 can be observed within such a family of systems when
873 control parameters vary? Apart from qualitative modifi-
874 cations of the internal structure of individual bands which
875 can be treated as the earlier discussed quantum bifurca-
876 tions, another qualitative phenomenon is possible, namely
877 the redistribution of energy levels between bands or more
878 generally, the reorganization of bands under the variation
879 of some control parameters [8,26,28,62,68]. In fact this
880 phenomenon is very often observed in both the numeri-
881 cal simulations and the real experiments with molecular
882 systems exhibiting bands. A typical example of molecular
883 rovibrational energy levels classified according to their en-
884 ergy and angular momentum is shown in Fig. 17. It is im-
885 portant to note that the number of energy levels in bands
886 before and after their “intersection” changes.

[CE6](#) Do you mean “into”?



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 17

System of rovibrational energy levels of $^{13}\text{CF}_4$ molecule represented schematically in E, J coordinates. The number of energy levels in each clearly seen band is $2J + 1 + \delta$, where δ is a small integer which remains constant for isolated bands and changes at band intersections. In the semi-quantum model δ is interpreted as the first Chern class, characterizing the non-triviality of the vector bundle formed by eigenfunctions of the “fast” subsystem over the classical phase space of the “slow” subsystem [27]

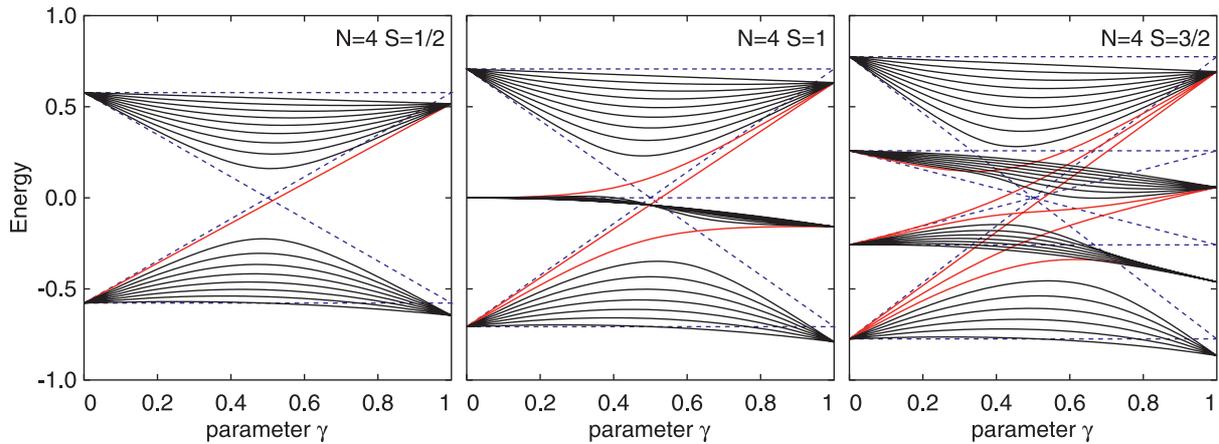
The same phenomenon of the redistribution of energy levels between energy bands can be understood by the example of a much simpler quantum system of two coupled angular momenta, say orbital angular momentum and spin in the presence of a magnetic field interacting only with spin [62,68].

$$H = \frac{1-\gamma}{S} S_z + \frac{\gamma}{NS} (\mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{S}), \quad 0 \leq \gamma \leq 1. \quad (7)$$

The Hamiltonian for such a system can be represented in the form of a one-parameter family (7) having two natural limits corresponding to uncoupled and coupled angular momenta. The interpolation of eigenvalues between these two limits is shown in Fig. 18 for different values of spin quantum number, $S = 1/2, 1, 3/2$. The quantum number

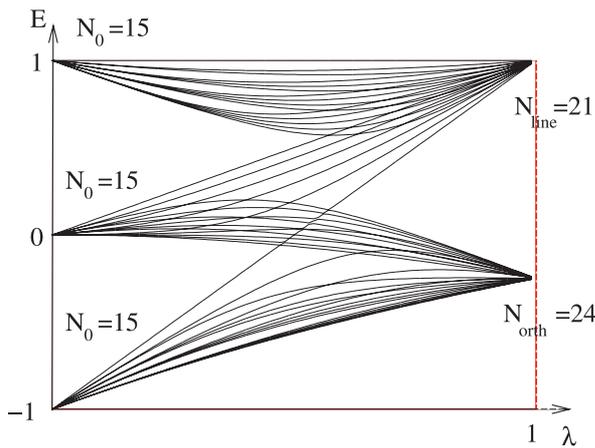
of orbital momentum is taken to be $N = 4$. Although this value is not much larger than the S values, the existence of bands and their reorganization under the variation of the external parameter γ is clearly seen in the figure.

Although the detailed description of this reorganization of bands will take us rather far away from the principal subject it is important to note that in the simplest situations there exists a very close relation between the redistribution phenomenon and the Hamiltonian Hopf bifurcations leading to the appearance of Hamiltonian monodromy [81]. In the semi-quantum limit when part of the dynamical variables are treated as purely classical and all the rest as quantum, the description of the complete system naturally leads to a fiber bundle construction [27]. The role of the base space is taken by the classical phase space for classical variables. A set of quantum wave-functions associated with one point of the base space forms a complex fiber. As a whole the so-obtained vector bundle with complex fibers can be topologically characterized by its rank and Chern classes [56]. Chern classes are related to the number of quantum states in bands formed due to quantum character of the total problem with respect to “classical” variables. Modification of the number of states in bands can occur only at band contact and is associated with the modification of Chern classes of the corresponding fiber bundle [26]. The simplest situation takes place when the number of degrees of freedom associated with classical variables is one. In this case only one topological invariant – the first Chern class is sufficient to characterize the non-triviality of the fiber bundle and the difference in Chern classes is equal to the number of energy levels redistributed between corresponding bands. Moreover, in the generic situation (in the absence of symmetry) the typical behavior consists of the redistribution of only one energy level between two bands. The generic phenomena become more complicated with increasing the number of degrees of freedom for the classical part of variables. The model problem with two slow degrees of freedom (described in classical limit by the CP^2 phase space) and three quantum states was studied in [28]. A new qualitative phenomenon was found, namely, the modification of the number of bands due to formation of topologically coupled bands. Figure 19 shows the evolution of the system of energy levels along with the variation of control parameter λ . Three quantum bands (at $\lambda = 0$) transform into two bands (in the $\lambda = 1$) limit. One of these bands has rank one, i. e. it is associated with one quantum state. Another has rank two. It is associated with two quantum states. Both bands have non-trivial topology (non-trivial Chern classes). Moreover, it is quite important that the newly formed topologically coupled band of rank two can



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 18

Rearrangement of energy levels between bands for model Hamiltonian (7) with two, three, or four states for “fast” variable. Quantum energy levels are shown by *solid lines*. Classical energies of stationary points for energy surfaces are shown by *dashed lines*. Taken from [68]



Quantum Bifurcations, Figure 19

Rearrangement of three bands into two topologically non-trivially coupled bands. Example of a model with three electronic states and vibrational structure of polyads formed by three quasi-degenerate modes. At $\lambda = 0$ three bands have each the same number of states, namely 15. In the classical limit each initial band has rank one and trivial topology. At $\lambda = 1$ there are only two bands. One of them has rank 2 and non-trivial first and second Chern classes. Taken from [28]

consequence of topological restrictions imposed by a fiber bundle structure of the studied problem.

It is interesting to mention here the general mathematical problem of finding proper equivalence or better to say correspondence between some construction made over real numbers and their generalizations to complex numbers and quaternions. This paradigm of complexification and quaternionization was discussed by Arnold [4,5] on many different examples. The closest to the present subject is the example of complexification of the Wigner-Neumann non-crossing rule resulting in a quantum Hall effect (in physical terms). In fact, the mathematical basis of the quantum Hall effect is exactly the same fiber bundle construction which explains the redistribution of energy levels between bands in the above-mentioned simple quantum mechanical model.

Multiple Resonances and Quantum State Density

Rearrangement of quantum energy states between bands is presented in the previous section as an example of a generic qualitative phenomenon occurring under variation of a control parameter. One possible realization of bands is the sequence of vibrational polyads formed by a system of resonant vibrational modes indexed by the polyad quantum number. In the classical picture this construction corresponds to the system of oscillators reduced with respect to the global action. The reduced classical phase space is in such a case the weighted projective space. In the case of particular $1 : 1 : \dots : 1$ resonance the corresponding reduced phase space is a normal complex projec-

951 be split into two bands of rank one only if a coupling with
952 the third band is introduced.

953 The corresponding qualitative modifications of quantum
954 spectra can be considered as natural generalizations
955 of quantum bifurcations and probably should be treated as
956 topological bifurcations. Thus, the description of possible
957 “elementary” rearrangements of energy bands is a direct

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987 tive space CP^n . The specific resonance conditions impose
 988 for a quantum problem specific conditions on the num-
 989 bers of quantum states in polyads. In the simplest case of
 990 harmonic oscillators with $n_1 : n_2 : \dots : n_k$ resonance the
 991 numbers of states in polyads are given by the generating
 992 function

$$993 \quad g = \frac{1}{(1-t^{n_1})(1-t^{n_2})\dots(1-t^{n_k})} = \sum_N C_N t^N, \quad (8)$$

994 where N is the polyad quantum number. Numbers C_N are
 995 integers for integer N values, but they can be extended to
 996 arbitrary N values and represented in the form of a quasi-
 997 polynomial, i.e. a polynomial in N with coefficients being
 998 a periodic function whose **CE7** period equals the least com-
 999 mon multiplier of $n_i, i = 1, \dots, k$. Moreover, the coeffi-
 1000 cients of the polynomial can be expressed in terms of so-
 1001 called Todd polynomials which indicates the possibility of
 1002 topological interpretation of such information [52,88].

1003 Physical Applications and Generalizations

1004 The most clearly seen physical applications of quantum bi-
 1005 furcations is the qualitative modification of the rotational
 1006 multiplet structure under rotational excitation, i. e. under
 1007 the variation of the absolute value of the angular momen-
 1008 tum. This is related first of all with the experimental pos-
 1009 sibility to study high J multiplets (which are quite close
 1010 to the classical limit but nevertheless manifest their quan-
 1011 tum structure) and to the possibility to use symmetry argu-
 1012 ments, which allow one to distinguish clusters of states
 1013 before and after bifurcation just by counting the number
 1014 of states in the cluster, which depends on the order of
 1015 group of stabilizer. Nuclear rotation is another natural ex-
 1016 ample of quantum rotational bifurcations [60]. Again the
 1017 interest in corresponding qualitative modifications is due
 1018 to the fact that rotational bands are extremely well stud-
 1019 ied up to very high J values. But in contrast to molecu-
 1020 lar physics examples, in nuclear physics it mostly happens
 1021 that only ground states (for each value of J) are known.
 1022 Thus, one speaks more often about qualitative changes of
 1023 the ground state (in the absence of temperature) named
 1024 quantum phase transitions [65].

1025 Internal structure of vibrational polyads is less evi-
 1026 dent for experimental verifications of quantum bifurca-
 1027 tions, but it gives many topologically non-trivial examples
 1028 of classical phase spaces on which the families of Hamil-
 1029 tonians depending on parameters are defined [25,30,38,
 1030 41,44,46,66,76,77,85]. The main difficulty here is the small
 1031 number of quantum states in polyads accessible to exper-
 1032 imental observations. But this problem is extremely inter-
 1033 esting from the point-of-view of extrapolation of theoretic-

1034 cal results to the region of higher energy (or higher polyad
 1035 quantum numbers) which is responsible as a rule for many
 1036 chemical intra-molecular processes. Certain molecules,
 1037 like CO_2 , or acetylene (C_2H_2) are extremely well studied
 1038 and a lot of highly accurate data exist. At the same time
 1039 the qualitative understanding of the organization of ex-
 1040 cited states even in these molecules is not yet completed
 1041 and new qualitative phenomena are just starting to be dis-
 1042 covered.

1043 Among other physically interesting systems it is nec-
 1044 essary to mention model problems suggested to study the
 1045 behavior of Bose condensates or quantum qubits [36,37,
 1046 74,82]. These models have a mathematical form which is
 1047 quite similar to rotational and vibrational models. At the
 1048 same time their physical origin and the interpretation of
 1049 results is quite different. This is not an exception. For ex-
 1050 ample, the model Hamiltonian corresponding in the clas-
 1051 sical limit to a Hamiltonian function defined over S^2 clas-
 1052 sical phase space is relevant to rotational dynamics, descrip-
 1053 tion of internal structure of vibrational polyads formed by
 1054 two (quasi)degenerate modes, in particular to so-called lo-
 1055 cal-normal mode transition in molecules, interaction of
 1056 electromagnetic field with a two-level system, the Lipkin-
 1057 Meshkov-Glick model in nuclear physics, entanglement
 1058 of qubits, etc.

1059 Future Directions

1060 To date many new qualitative phenomena have been sug-
 1061 gested and observed in experimental and numerical stud-
 1062 ies due to intensive collaboration between mathematicians
 1063 working in dynamical system theory, classical mechanics,
 1064 complex geometry, topology, etc., and molecular physi-
 1065 cists using qualitative mathematical tools to classify behav-
 1066 ior of quantum systems and to extrapolate this behavior
 1067 from relatively simple (low energy regions) to more com-
 1068 plicated ones (high energy regions). Up to now the main
 1069 accent was placed on the study of the qualitative features
 1070 of isolated time-independent molecular systems. Specific
 1071 patterns formed by energy eigenvalues and by common
 1072 eigenvalues of several mutually commuting observables
 1073 were the principal subject of study. Existence of qualita-
 1074 tively different dynamical regimes for time-independent
 1075 problems at different values of exact or approximate inte-
 1076 grals of motion were clearly demonstrated. Many of these
 1077 new qualitative features and phenomena are supposed to
 1078 be generic and universal although their rigorous mathe-
 1079 matical formulation and description is still absent.

1080 On the other side, the analysis of the time-dependent
 1081 processes should be developed. This step is essential in
 1082 order to realize at the level of quantum micro-systems

CE7 Is my change here OK?

1083 the transformations associated with the qualitative mod-
1084 ifications of dynamical regimes and to control such time-
1085 dependent processes as elementary reactions, information
1086 data storage, and so on. From this global perspective the
1087 main problem of the future development is to support the
1088 adequate mathematical formulation of qualitative meth-
1089 ods and to improve our understanding of qualitative mod-
1090 ifications occurring in quantum micro-systems in order to
1091 use them as real micro-devices.

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