

Atom and photon physics

(1)

* Literature:

(*) More applied books:

- A. P. Thorne, "Spectrophysics" (Chapman and Hall)
- A. Corney, "Atomic and Laser Spectroscopy" (Oxford classic texts)
- E. Hecht, "Optics" (Addison-Wesley)
- J. Wilson and J. Hawkes, "Optoelectronics" (Prentice Hall)

(*) More theory-oriented literature:

- "Physics of Atoms and Molecules", B. H. Bransden and C. J. Joachain (especially Chapter 4, 9, 15, 16)
- "Principles of Optics", Born + Wolf
- "The Quantum Theory of Light", R. Loudon

(+) Please note:

- The above-stated list is by no means exhaustive and further books may be necessary
- If necessary we will refer to research articles when dealing with specific topics

* Recommended (parallel) courses:

- Atomic and molecular physics (important for many-e-atoms)
- Advanced Quantum mechanics (time-dependent Hamiltonian, time-dependent perturbation theory, maybe scattering)

(*) Main topics

- Interaction of light with single photons
- LASER
- LASER Spectroscopy (Details \Rightarrow Syllabus in the handbook)
- Multiphoton processes
- Coherence / cavity effects
- Trapping / cooling

(*) Pre-requisite (undergrad. courses)

- Quantum mechanics
- Atomic and molecular physics

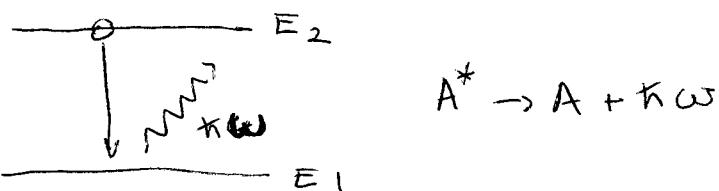
I - Interaction of light with atoms (single photon)

- We will be treating the field CLASSICALLY (no quantum-electrodynamical treatment) \Rightarrow appropriate for relatively strong fields

1 - Processes

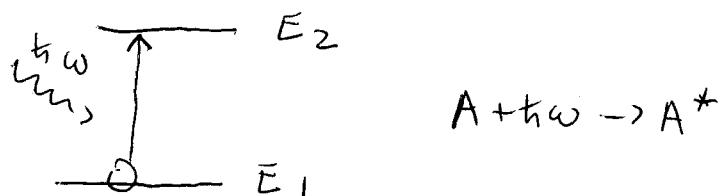
Let us consider an atom A subjected to an external electromagnetic field. This atom may undergo the following processes

① Spontaneous emission: An atom can make a spontaneous transition from an excited state to a state of lower energy, emitting a photon



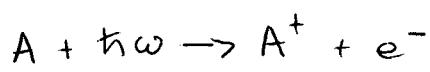
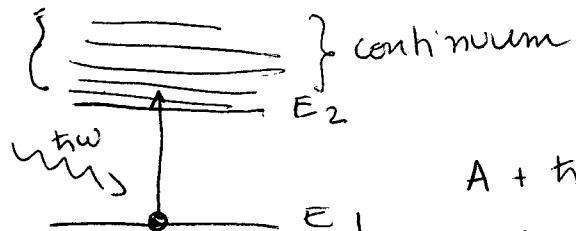
② Absorption: An atom can absorb a photon from the field, making a transition from a state of lower to a state of higher energy

(a) Excitation: The atom is promoted from the ground state to an excited state by absorbing a photon



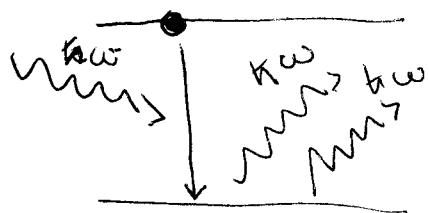
(b) Photoionization: An electron is released due to the fact that the absorbed photon has enough

energy to make it overcome the atomic ionization potential



$$e^- \text{ kinetic energy} : \frac{P^2}{2m} + F_p = h\omega$$

④ Stimulated emission : an atom can emit a photon under the influence of an external

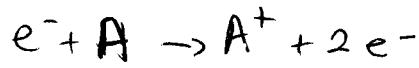


Applications

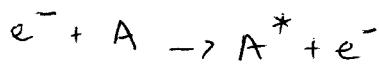
- LASER (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation)
- MASER (microwave amplification by stimulated emission of radiation)

⑤ Please note: excitation and ionization may also occur by collisions. In this case we refer to

(a) Particle-impact ionization : Upon collision, a particle transfers part of its kinetic energy to a bound electron, which is then able to overcome the atomic ionization potential



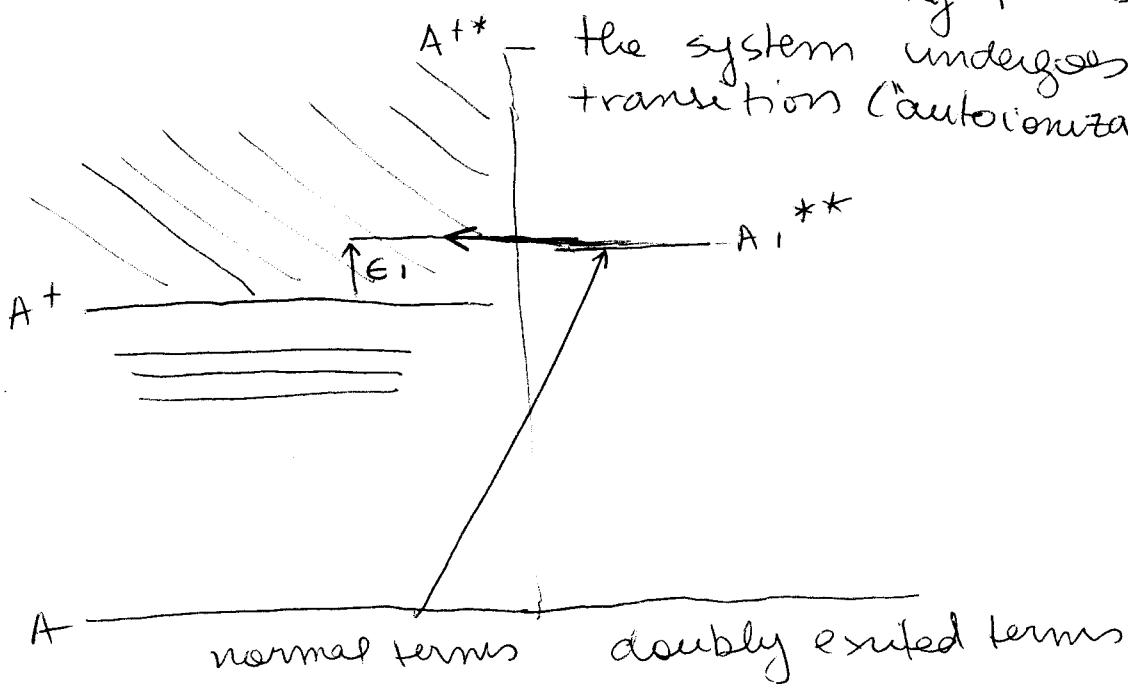
(b) Particle-impact excitation : The process is similar to (a), with the difference that the kinetic energy transferred to the bound electron is no longer enough to release it.



④ Autoionization:

This process results from the mixing of a bound state and an adjacent ionization continuum. Some bound states may be equal in energy to a continuum state due the simultaneous excitation of 2 e^- 's or the excitation of an e^- from an inner shell

- Consequences:
- Broadening of the bound state
 - non-vanishing probability that
 - the system undergoes a radiationless transition ("autoionization")



⑤ Selection rules determine which of the above-stated processes are allowed or forbidden

⑥ We will analyse three of the above-stated processes in more detail

2 - Transition rates and selection rules

- ④ Simplest case: one e^- atom in an electromagnetic field
- ⑤ We will consider relatively weak fields: first order time dependent perturbation theory

2.(a) - Transition amplitudes

Starting point: time-dependent Schrödinger equation

$$i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(\vec{r}, t) = H(t) \Psi(\vec{r}, t), \text{ with}$$

$$H(t) = \frac{1}{2m} (\vec{p} + q\vec{A}(\vec{r}, t))^2 + V(\vec{r})$$

(Coulomb gauge or velocity gauge or radiation gauge)

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} - \frac{q}{2m} (\vec{A} \cdot \vec{p} + \vec{p} \cdot \vec{A}) + \frac{q^2}{2m} A^2 + V(r)$$

Position space: $\vec{p} \rightarrow -i\hbar \nabla$

$$\Rightarrow (\vec{A} \cdot \vec{p} + \vec{p} \cdot \vec{A}) = -i\hbar (\vec{A} \cdot \nabla + \nabla \cdot \vec{A}) \quad (*)$$

Since, however, $\vec{p} \cdot (\vec{A} \Psi) = \vec{A} \cdot (\nabla \Psi) + (\nabla \cdot \vec{A}) \Psi$
 $= \vec{A} \cdot (\nabla \Psi)$

$$(*) = -i\hbar 2 \vec{A} \cdot \nabla$$

$$\Rightarrow H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{i\hbar q}{m} (\vec{A} \cdot \nabla) + \frac{q^2}{2m} A^2 + V(r) = H_0 + H_{\text{int}}(t)$$

$$H_0 = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} - \frac{ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad (\text{atomic Hamiltonian})$$

$$H_{\text{int}}(t) = -\frac{ie\hbar}{m} \vec{A} \cdot \vec{p} + \frac{e^2}{2m} A^2 \quad (\text{interaction with field})$$

weak fields:

$$\frac{e \vec{A} \cdot \vec{p}}{m} \gg \frac{e^2 A^2}{2m} \Rightarrow \text{term in } A^2 \text{ can be neglected}$$

$H_{\text{int}}(t) \ll H_0 \Rightarrow$ field can be treated as a perturbation

* Time-dependent perturbation theory (1st order)

(more detailed/ formal treatment: Advanced Quantum Mechanics)

$$H = H_0 + \lambda H_{\text{int}}(t) \quad (\text{in our case } \lambda = 1)$$

$H_0 \Psi_k(\vec{r}) = E_k \Psi_k(\vec{r})$ (Unperturbed Hamiltonian gives the Hydrogenic wavefunction eigenstates).

* Ansatz:

$$\Psi(\vec{r}, t) = \sum_k C_k(t) \Psi_k(\vec{r}) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right]$$

Inserting into $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(\vec{r}, t) = [H_0 + \lambda H_{\text{int}}(t)] \Psi(\vec{r}, t)$

$$\Rightarrow i\hbar \left[\sum_k \dot{C}_k(t) \Psi_k(\vec{r}) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right] + \frac{iE_k}{\hbar} C_k(t) \Psi_k(\vec{r}) \right]$$

$$\left. \times \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right] \right] = \sum_k H_0 C_k(t) \Psi_k(\vec{r}) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right] +$$

$$+\sum_k \lambda H_{\text{int}}(t) C_k(t) + \psi_k(\vec{r}) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right] \quad (6)$$

$$\Rightarrow i\hbar \sum_k \dot{C}_k(t) \psi_k(\vec{r}) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right] + \cancel{\sum_k E_k C_k(t) \psi_k(\vec{r})} +$$

$$+ \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right] = \sum_k C_k(t) E_k \psi_k(\vec{r}) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right] +$$

$$+ \sum_k \lambda H_{\text{int}}(t) C_k(t) \psi_k(\vec{r}) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right]$$

$$\Rightarrow i\hbar \sum_k \dot{C}_k(t) \psi_k(\vec{r}) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right] = \sum_k \lambda H_{\text{int}}(t) C_k(t).$$

$$\psi_k(\vec{r}) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right]$$

Multiplying by $\psi_b^*(\vec{r})$, integrating and using the fact that

$$\int \psi_b^*(\vec{r}) \psi_k(\vec{r}) d^3r = \delta_{bk},$$

we have $= \underbrace{c_b(t) \exp\left[-\frac{iE_b t}{\hbar}\right]}$

$$i\hbar \sum_k \dot{C}_k(t) \delta_{bk} \exp\left[-\frac{iE_k t}{\hbar}\right] = \sum_k \lambda \left\{ C_k(t) \psi_b^*(\vec{r}) \right.$$

$$\left. - \frac{iE_k t}{\hbar} \right. d^3r$$

$$i\hbar \dot{c}_b(t) = \sum_k \lambda \left\{ C_k(t) \psi_b^*(\vec{r}) H_{\text{int}}(t) \psi_k(\vec{r}) d^3r e^{-\frac{i\omega_{kb} t}{\hbar}} \right\},$$

$$\omega_{kb} = (E_k - E_b)/\hbar$$

First-order perturbation theory:

$$C_k(t) \approx C_k^{(0)} + \lambda C_k^{(1)}$$

$$\langle \Psi_b | H_{\text{int}} | \Psi_k \rangle$$

$$i\hbar [C_b^{(0)} + \lambda C_b^{(1)}] = \lambda \sum_k C_k^{(0)} \int \Psi_b^*(\vec{r}) H_{\text{int}}(t) \Psi_k(\vec{r}) d^3r \times e^{-i\omega_{kb} t} + O(\lambda^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow C_b^{(0)} = 0$$

$$C_b^{(1)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \sum_k C_k^{(0)} \langle \Psi_b | H_{\text{int}} | \Psi_k \rangle e^{-i\omega_{kb} t}$$

Assumption: the atom is initially in a well-defined stationary state: Ψ_a $C_k^{(0)} = \delta_{na}$

$$C_b^{(1)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \langle \Psi_b | H_{\text{int}} | \Psi_a \rangle e^{-i\omega_{na} t}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_b^{(1)} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \int_0^t \langle \Psi_b | H_{\text{int}} | \Psi_a \rangle e^{-i\omega_{na} t} dt$$

In our situation,

$$H_{\text{int}}(t) = -\frac{i\hbar e}{m} \vec{A} \cdot \nabla \quad \text{so that}$$

$$\langle \Psi_b | H_{\text{int}} | \Psi_a \rangle = \int \Psi_b^*(\vec{r}) \vec{A} \cdot \nabla \Psi_a(\vec{r}) d^3r$$

Considering

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}, t) = \hat{\epsilon} \int_0^\infty A_0(\omega) \cos(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t + \delta\omega) d\omega$$

(8)

$\hat{\epsilon}$ = polarization vector

$A_0(\omega)$ = field amplitude

\vec{k} = wave (propagation) vector

$\delta\omega$ = phases

Monochromatic field: $A_0(\omega) = A_0 \delta(\omega - \omega_0)$

Incoherent radiation: $\delta\omega$ distributed at random

Coherent radiation: $\delta\omega$ const. in a small region of width $\Delta\omega$ around $\omega_0 \Rightarrow$ can be eliminated

$$\Rightarrow c_b^{(1)}(t) = -\frac{e}{2m} \int_0^{\infty} d\omega A_0(\omega) \left[\exp(i\delta\omega) \langle \psi_b | e^{ik \cdot r} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \nabla | \psi_a \rangle \right]$$

$$= \int_0^t dt' \exp[i(\omega_{ba} - \omega)t'] + \exp[-i\delta\omega] \langle \psi_b | e^{-ik \cdot r} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \nabla | \psi_a \rangle$$

$$= \int_0^t dt' \exp[i(\omega_{ba} + \omega)t']$$

* Please note:

- The first integral above is negligible unless $\omega_{ba} \approx \omega$

$$\Rightarrow E_b \approx E_a + \hbar\omega$$

Physically, this corresponds to an absorption process: the system, initially in a state $|\psi_a\rangle$, absorbed one photon and was excited to the state $|\psi_b\rangle$.

- The second integral above is negligible unless $\omega_{ba} \approx -\omega \Rightarrow E_b \approx E_a - \hbar\omega$

Physically, this corresponds to an emission process: the atom, ⑨ initially in $|4_a\rangle$, emitted a photon of energy $\hbar\omega$ and decayed to $|4_b\rangle$.

- Transition probability: $|C_b^{(1)}(t)|^2$

Absorption transition rate

For simplicity: we will consider monochromatic light

$$\int d\omega \rightarrow \int |I|^2 d\omega \quad (\text{interference terms get washed out})$$

$$\Rightarrow |C_b^{(1)}(t)|^2 = \left(\frac{e}{2m}\right)^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega A_0^2(\omega) |\underbrace{\langle 4_b | \exp(i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}) \hat{E} \cdot \vec{D} | 4_a \rangle}_{\text{matrix element } M_{ba}}|^2$$

$$= \left| \int_0^t dt' \exp[i(\tilde{\omega}_{ba} - \omega)t'] \right|^2$$

(*)

$$\begin{aligned} (*) &= \left| \frac{-1 + \cos \tilde{\omega} t + i \sin \tilde{\omega} t}{\tilde{\omega}} \right|^2 = \frac{1}{\tilde{\omega}^2} [1 + \cos^2 \tilde{\omega} t + \sin^2 \tilde{\omega} t - 2 \cos \tilde{\omega} t] \\ &= \frac{2}{\tilde{\omega}^2} [1 - \cos \tilde{\omega} t] = \frac{4 \sin^2(\tilde{\omega} t / 2)}{\tilde{\omega}^2} \end{aligned}$$

Approximations: Since this function has a sharp maximum at $\omega = \omega_{ba}$, we can write the slowly varying terms A_0 and M_{ba} as

$$A_0(\omega) \propto A_0(\omega_{ba})$$

$$M_{ba}(\omega) \approx M_{ba}(\omega_{ba})$$

and set $\int_0^\infty d\omega \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^\infty d\omega$

$$\Rightarrow |C_b^{(1)}(t)|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{e}{m}\right)^2 A_0^2(\omega_{ba}) |M_{ba}(\omega_{ba})|^2 \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{\sin(\bar{\omega}t/2)}{\bar{\omega}^2} d\bar{\omega}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{\sin^2(\bar{\omega}t/2)}{\bar{\omega}^2} d\bar{\omega} = \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{\sin^2 x}{(2x/t)^2} \frac{2dx}{t} = \frac{t}{2} \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx$$

$x = \omega t/2$

$$\Rightarrow |C_b^{(1)}(t)|^2 = \frac{\pi}{2} \left(\frac{e}{m}\right)^2 A_0^2(\omega_{ba}) |M_{ba}(\omega_{ba})|^2 t$$

- Increases linearly with time

- Depends very strongly on the transition matrix element $M_{ba} \Rightarrow$ if this matrix element vanishes, $|C_b^{(1)}(t)|^2 = 0$

Transition rate: $W_{ba} = \frac{d}{dt} |C_b^{(1)}(t)|^2 = \frac{\pi}{2} \left(\frac{e}{m}\right)^2 A_0^2(\omega_{ba}) |M_{ba}|^2$

In terms of the intensity per unit angular frequency range,

$$I(\omega) = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 c \epsilon_0^2(\omega) = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 c \omega^2 A_0^2(\omega)$$

$$W_{ba} = \frac{4\pi^2}{m^2 c} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{I(\omega_{ba})}{\omega_{ba}^2} |M_{ba}(\omega_{ba})|^2$$

The transition rate is proportional to the intensity of the radiation field

* Please note : for n^{th} -order perturbation theory, this rate would be proportional to I^n

* Absorption cross section: $\frac{W_{ba}}{I(\omega_{ba})} = \frac{4\pi^2 \alpha \hbar^2}{m^2 \omega_{ba}} |M_{ba}(\omega_{ba})|^2$

$$\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 hc} = \frac{1}{137} \text{ (fine structure constant)}$$

* Stimulated emission transition rate

Similarly

$$\bar{W}_{ab} = \frac{4\pi^2}{m^2 c} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{I(\omega_{ba})}{\omega_{ba}^2} |\bar{M}_{ab}(\omega_{ba})|^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{M}_{ab} &= \langle \Psi_a | \exp[-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}] \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \nabla | \Psi_b \rangle \\ &= \int \Psi_a^*(\vec{r}) \exp[-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}] \epsilon \nabla \Psi_b(\vec{r}) d^3 r \end{aligned}$$

(Here we interchanged the labels of the states)

It is possible to show that

$$\bar{M}_{ab} = -M_{ba}^* \Rightarrow \bar{W}_{ab} = W_{ba}$$

Physically, this is consistent with the principle of detailed

balancing: in an enclosure containing atoms and radiation in equilibrium, the transition probability from a to b is the same as from b to a, for any pair of states a, b.

* Please note:

- Despite the fact that $W_{ba} = \bar{W}_{ab}$, stimulated emission is usually less intense than absorption. This is due to the fact that the initial population of the upper level b is smaller than that of the lower level a.
 - Stimulated emission becomes dominant if a population inversion is achieved (LASER, MASER)
-

* Spontaneous emission

A rigorous treatment of this process requires a quantum electrodynamical approach. We will state, however, some key results and provide an ad-hoc discussion.

- QED transition rate (absorption), 1st-order perturbation theory

$$W_{ba} = \frac{4\pi^2}{m^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \underbrace{\frac{N(w_{ba}) \hbar}{V w_{ba}}}_{\substack{\# \text{ of photons} \\ \text{Volume}}} |M_{ba}|^2 \delta(\omega - \omega_{ba})$$

Using $I(\omega) = \frac{\hbar \omega N(\omega) c}{V}$ and integrating around ω_{ba}

$$\Rightarrow W_{ba} = \frac{4\pi^2}{m^2 c} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{I(\omega_{ba})}{w_{ba}^2} |M_{ba}(\omega_{ba})|^2$$

The semi-classical result is recovered

* QED rate for emission stimulated emission

$$W_{ab} = \frac{4\pi^2}{m^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{[N(\omega_{ba}) + 1] \hbar}{V\omega_{ba}} |M_{ba}|^2 \delta(\omega - \omega_{ba})$$

↑ spontaneous emission

Not quite the same! Instead of $N(\omega_{ba})$ we have $N(\omega_{ba}) + 1$

- Semi-classical approximation: $N(\omega_{ba}) \gg 1$ so treat spontaneous emission is neglected
(valid for intense fields)

In the absence of an external field, $N=0$ and

$$W_{ab}^S = \frac{4\pi^2}{m^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{\hbar^2}{V\omega_{ba}} |M_{ba}|^2 \delta(\omega - \omega_{ba})$$

To obtain the physical transition rate the above-stated rate must be summed over the number of allowed photon states

$$\underbrace{P_a(\omega) d\omega d\Omega}_{\substack{\text{Density of states} \\ \text{freq. element}}} = \frac{V \omega^2}{(2\pi)^3 c^3} d\omega d\Omega$$

$$W_{ab}^S = \frac{\hbar^2}{2\pi m^2 c^3} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \underbrace{\int d\Omega \sum_{\lambda=1}^2 \omega_{ba} |M_{ba}^\lambda(\omega_{ba})|^2}_{\substack{\text{sum over polarization vectors} \\ \text{integral over all angles of emission}}}$$

2.(b) - The Dipole Approximation

Let us consider the matrix element

$$\begin{aligned} M_{ab} &= \langle \Psi_b | \exp(i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}) \hat{\vec{E}} \cdot \nabla | \Psi_a \rangle \\ &= \int \Psi_b^*(\vec{r}) \exp(i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}) \hat{\vec{E}} \cdot \nabla \Psi_a(\vec{r}) d^3r \end{aligned}$$

In many cases, this matrix element may be simplified by expanding

$$\exp(i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}) = 1 + (i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}) + \frac{1}{2!} (i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r})^2 + \dots$$

Ⓐ Zeroth-order term: electric dipole approximation

Ⓑ First-order term: electric quadrupole approximation / magnetic dipole approximation

In the dipole approximation,

- $\vec{A}(t), \vec{E}(t)$ depend only on the time t
- The magnetic field vanishes as $\nabla \times \vec{A} = 0$

This is a very good approximation for optical transitions

- Atomic distances: $r \approx 10^{-8} \text{ cm}$
- Optical wavevector: $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \approx 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ $\rightarrow \vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} \approx 10^{-3}$

- Since the wavelength of the radiation field is much larger than the atomic distances involved, this is a long wavelength approximation
- The dipole approximation breaks down for high-frequency (e.g. X-Ray) radiation

Ⓐ Transition matrix element

$$\begin{aligned} M_{ba}^D &= \hat{\vec{E}} \cdot \langle \Psi_b | \nabla | \Psi_a \rangle = \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{\vec{E}} \cdot \langle \Psi_b | \vec{p} | \Psi_a \rangle \\ &= \frac{im}{\hbar} \hat{\vec{E}} \cdot \langle \Psi_b | \vec{r} | \Psi_a \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Using the Heisenberg equations of motion for \vec{r} :

(15)

$$\dot{\vec{r}} = (i\hbar)^{-1} [\vec{r}, H] \approx (i\hbar)^{-1} [\vec{r}, H_0] \quad (\text{the field is a perturbation})$$

$$\langle \Psi_b | \dot{\vec{r}} | \Psi_a \rangle = (i\hbar)^{-1} \langle \Psi_b | \vec{r} H_0 - H_0 \vec{r} | \Psi_a \rangle$$

$$\text{Reminder: } \langle \Psi_b | H_0 = \langle \Psi_b | E_b$$

$$H_0 |\Psi_a \rangle = E_a |\Psi_a \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \Psi_b | \dot{\vec{r}} | \Psi_a \rangle = \frac{1}{i\hbar} (E_a - E_b) \langle \Psi_b | \vec{r} | \Psi_a \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} M_{ba}^D &= \frac{im}{\hbar} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \frac{1}{i} \omega_{ab} \langle \Psi_b | \vec{r} | \Psi_a \rangle \\ &= -\frac{m}{\hbar} \omega_{ba} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \langle \Psi_b | \vec{r} | \Psi_a \rangle = -\frac{m}{\hbar} \omega_{ba} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{r}_{ba} \end{aligned}$$

④ Definitions

- Electric dipole moment operator: $\vec{D} = -e \vec{r}$
- Dipole matrix element: $D_{ba} = -e \vec{r}_{ba}$

⑤ Absorption transition rate

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_{ba}^D &= \frac{4\pi^2}{c\hbar^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) I(\omega_{ba}) |\hat{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{r}_{ba}|^2 \\ &= \frac{4\pi^2}{c\hbar^2} \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) I(\omega_{ba}) |\hat{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{D}_{ba}|^2 \end{aligned}$$

$\hat{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{D}_{ba}$ = component of the dipole matrix element along the polarization of the radiation field.

⑥ Please note:

The transition defined by ω_{ba}^D is an electric dipole transition

$D_{ba} = 0 \Rightarrow$ the transition is forbidden

$D_{ba} \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ the transition is allowed

Example

Let us consider Hydrogen in a monochromatic field of frequency ω polarized along the z axis. Assume that the dipole approximation is valid.

Compute the transition rate

$$W_{ba}^D = \frac{4\pi}{c\hbar^2} \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) I(\omega_{ba}) |\vec{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{D}_{ba}| \text{ corresponding to}$$

a one-photon absorption process between the $1s$ state and

(a) The $2p$ state

(b) The $2s$ state

$$\begin{array}{c} \vec{E}(t) = E_0 \sin \omega t \hat{e}_z \\ \hline m=1 \quad m=0 \quad m=-1 \quad 2p \\ \hline \quad \quad \quad 1s \end{array}$$

$$\text{Initial state: } \Psi_{1s} = R_{10}(r) Y_0^0 = 2 \left(\frac{z}{a_0} \right)^{3/2} \exp\left(-\frac{zr}{a_0}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}}$$

$$\text{Final state: } \Psi_{2p} = R_{21}(r) Y_1^m \quad (\text{we do not know to which one the system will go})$$

$$\Psi_{2p} = 2 \left(\frac{z}{2a_0} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{zr}{a_0} \right) \exp\left[-\frac{zr}{2a_0}\right] Y_1^m$$

$$\text{Transition frequency: } \omega_{ba} = \omega_{1s \rightarrow 2p} = \frac{3}{8} \frac{mc^2}{\hbar} (z_\alpha)^2$$

Dipole matrix element $\vec{D}_{ba} = -e \vec{r}_{ba}$ with $b = 2p$
 $a = 1s$

$$\vec{r}_{ba} = \int \Psi_{2p}^*(\vec{r}) \vec{r} \Psi_{1s}(\vec{r}) d^3r$$

Explicit expression for \vec{r} :

$$\vec{r} = r \cos\theta \hat{e}_z + r \sin\theta \cos\phi \hat{e}_x + r \sin\theta \sin\phi \hat{e}_y$$

Using the fact that

$$\sin\cos\phi = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} [Y_1^0(\theta, \phi) - Y_1^{-1}(\theta, \phi)]$$

$$\sin\theta \sin\phi = i \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} [Y_1^1(\theta, \phi) + Y_1^{-1}(\theta, \phi)]$$

$$\cos\theta = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{3}} Y_1^0(\theta, \phi)$$

we find

$$\vec{r} = r \left[\sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{3}} Y_1^0 \hat{e}_z + i \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} [Y_1^1 + Y_1^{-1}] \hat{e}_y + \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} [Y_1^{-1} - Y_1^1] \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{r}_{ba} = \int_{\sqrt{4\pi}}^{\infty} R_{21}(r) R_{10}(r) r^3 dr \int d\Omega \left[\sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{3}} Y_1^0 \hat{e}_z + i \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} [Y_1^1 + Y_1^{-1}] \hat{e}_y + \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} [Y_1^{-1} - Y_1^1] \hat{e}_x \right] Y_1^{*m}$$

- Radial integral: $\int_0^{\infty} R_{21}(r) R_{10}(r) r^3 dr = \left(\frac{z}{a_0}\right)^4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \int_0^{\infty} r^4 \exp\left[-\frac{3zr}{2a_0}\right] dr = \frac{a_0}{z} \frac{24}{\sqrt{6}} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^5$

- Angular integral: we will use $\int Y_e^{*m}(\theta, \phi) Y_e^{m'}(\theta, \phi) d\Omega = \delta_{m,0} \delta_{m,m'}$

z component: $\int Y_1^{*m} Y_1^0 d\Omega = \delta_{m,0} \delta_{1,-1}$

x component: $\int Y_1^{*m} [Y_1^{-1} - Y_1^1] d\Omega = \delta_{m,-1} - \delta_{m,1}$

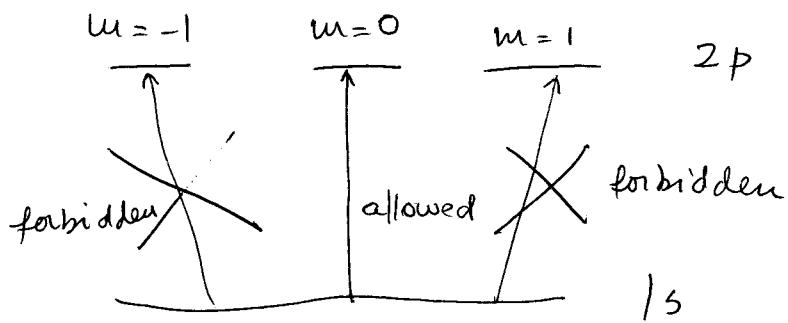
y component: $\int Y_1^{*m} [Y_1^1 + Y_1^{-1}] d\Omega = \delta_{m,1} + \delta_{m,-1}$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{r}_{ba} = \underbrace{\frac{q_0}{2} \frac{24}{\sqrt{6}} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^5}_{C_1} \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \delta_{m,0} \hat{e}_z + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} [\delta_{m,+1} - \delta_{m,-1}] \hat{e}_x + \frac{i}{\sqrt{6}} [\delta_{m,+1} + \delta_{m,-1}] \hat{e}_y \right]$$

④ Assumption: The electric field is linearly polarized along \hat{e}_z . Hence, only $\vec{r}_{ba} \cdot \hat{e}_z$ will contribute

$$\vec{r}_{ba} \cdot \hat{e}_z = \frac{C_1}{\sqrt{3}} \delta_{m,0}$$

$$W_{ba} = \frac{4\pi}{C\hbar^2} \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) J(\omega_{1s-2p}) \left| \frac{C_1}{\sqrt{3}} \delta_{m,0} \right|^2$$



④ Please note:

If, instead, our laser field were circularly polarized, the situation would be different

$$\vec{E} = E_0 f(t) [\hat{e}_x \pm i \hat{e}_y]$$

$$+ \text{Sign: } \vec{r}_{ba} \cdot \hat{e} = \vec{r}_{ba} \cdot (\hat{e}_x + i \hat{e}_y)$$

$$\vec{r}_{ba} \cdot \hat{e}_x = \frac{C_1}{\sqrt{6}} [\delta_{m,+1} + \delta_{m,-1}]$$

(19)

$$\vec{r}_{ba} \cdot \hat{\vec{e}}_y = \frac{c_1}{\sqrt{6}} i [\delta_{m,1} + \delta_{m,-1}]$$

$$\vec{r}_{ba} \cdot (\hat{\vec{e}}_x + i \hat{\vec{e}}_y) = -\frac{c_1}{\sqrt{3}} \delta_{m,1}$$

\Rightarrow In this case, the transition from 1s to the 2p state with $m=1$ is allowed.

Similarly,

$$\vec{r}_{ba} \cdot (\hat{\vec{e}}_x - i \hat{\vec{e}}_y) = \frac{c_1}{\sqrt{3}} \delta_{m,-1}$$

\Rightarrow transition to the state with $m=-1$ is allowed

(b) Let us assume now that, instead of 2p, the excited state b to which the transition should occur is 2s

$$\text{Initial state: } R_{10}(r) Y_0^0 = \Psi_{1s}$$

$$\text{Final state: } \Psi_{2s} = R_{20} Y_0^0$$

Dipole matrix element:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}_{ba} &= \int \Psi_{2s}^* (\vec{r}) \vec{r} \Psi_{1s} (\vec{r}) d^3 r \\ &= \int_0^\infty R_{10}(r) R_{20}(r) r^3 dr \left[\sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{3}} \int Y_0^0 Y_1^0 Y_0^0 d\Omega \right] \hat{e}_z + \\ &\quad + i \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} \left[\int Y_1^* Y_0^0 Y_0^0 d\Omega + \int Y_1^{-1} Y_0^* Y_0^0 d\Omega \right] \hat{e}_y \end{aligned}$$

$$+ \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} \left[\int Y_1^{-1} Y_0^* Y_0^0 d\Omega - \left[Y_1^1 Y_0^* Y_0^0 d\Omega \right]_{\hat{x}} \right]$$

Angular integrals:

$$\int Y_0^* Y_1^0 Y_0^0 d\Omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}} \int Y_0^* Y_1^0 d\Omega = \delta_{1,0} = 0$$

$$\int Y_0^* Y_1^{\pm 1} Y_0^0 d\Omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}} \int Y_0^* Y_1^{\pm 1} d\Omega = \epsilon_{1,0} \delta_{0,\pm 1} = 0$$

\Rightarrow The transition $1s \rightarrow 2s$, within the dipole approximation, is forbidden

These are examples of SELECTION RULES for dipole transitions

2. (c) - Selection rules

Let us consider an atom in a radiation field. We wish to know which transitions are allowed and which ones forbidden

④ Importance

- Allows one to determine which transitions are allowed and forbidden once the angular momentum quantum numbers are specified (very helpful in computing the spectra)
- Useful for computing the [↑] lifetimes of levels
radiative

For convenience, we will write the dipole operator

$\vec{r} = x\hat{e}_x + y\hat{e}_y + z\hat{e}_z$ in terms of its components in the spherical basis $\{\hat{E}_1, \hat{E}_0, \hat{E}_{-1}\}$, with

$$\hat{E}_1 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{E}_x + i\hat{E}_y), \quad \hat{E}_0 = \hat{E}_z, \quad \hat{E}_{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{E}_x - i\hat{E}_y)$$

- Dipole components

along \hat{E}_1 : $r_1 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x + iy) = r\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right)^{1/2} Y_1^1(\theta, \phi)$

along \hat{E}_0 : $r_0 = z = r\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right)^{1/2} Y_1^0(\theta, \phi)$

along \hat{E}_{-1} : $r_{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x - iy) = r\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right)^{1/2} Y_1^{-1}(\theta, \phi)$

* Electric dipole transitions

The transition amplitude depends on $\vec{r}_{ba} \cdot \vec{E}_q$

\downarrow \downarrow
dipole matrix element polarization vector

- Initial-state wavefunction

$$\Psi_a(\vec{r}) = R_{n'e}(r) Y_e^m(\theta, \phi)$$

$$\Psi_b(\vec{r}) = R_{n'e'}(r) Y_{e'}^{m'}(\theta, \phi)$$

$$\vec{r}_{ba} \cdot \vec{E}_q \underbrace{\int_0^\infty R_{n'e}(r) R_{n'e'}(r) r^3 dr}_{J_r}$$

$$\underbrace{\int Y_{e'}^{*m'}(\theta, \phi) Y_1^q(\theta, \phi) Y_e^m(\theta, \phi) d\Omega}_{J_q}$$

Radial integral I_r : non-vanishing

Angular integral I_{θ} : may vanish

Using the fact that $\gamma_e^m(\theta, \phi) = e^{im\phi} P_e(\cos\theta)$,

we have

$$I_{\theta} = \int_{-1}^1 P_e^{m'}(\cos\theta) \underbrace{P_1^q(\cos\theta)}_{\begin{array}{l} \sin\theta, q=\pm 1 \\ \cos\theta, q=0 \end{array}} P_e^m(\cos\theta) d\cos\theta \times \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-im'\phi + iq\phi + im\phi} d\phi$$

I_{θ}

I_{ϕ}

Magnetic quantum numbers

We will consider $I_{\phi} = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(m-m'+q)\phi} d\phi$;

$$I_{\phi} \neq 0 \Rightarrow m - m' + q = 0$$

(a) $q = 0$ (polarization vector in the z direction)

$$m' = m \text{, i.e., } \boxed{\Delta m = 0}$$

(b) $q = \pm 1$ (circularly polarized light)

$$m' = m \pm 1; \text{i.e., } \boxed{\Delta m = \pm 1}$$

Orbital angular momentum

We will consider I_{θ} , which, apart from the numerical factors, may be written as

$$I_{\theta 1} = \int_{-1}^1 d(\cos\theta) P_l^m(\cos\theta) P_{l'}^{m'}(\cos\theta) \cos\theta, \quad q = 0 \quad (a)$$

$$I_{\theta 2} = \int_{-1}^1 d(\cos\theta) P_l^m(\cos\theta) P_{l'}^{m+1}(\cos\theta) \sin\theta, \quad q = \pm 1 \quad (b)$$

(a) linearly polarized light

We will use

$$(2l+1) \cos\theta P_l^m(\cos\theta) = (l+1-m) P_{l+1}^m(\cos\theta) + (l-m) \times P_{l-1}^m(\cos\theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow I_{\theta 1} = \int_{-1}^1 d(\cos\theta) \left[\left(\frac{l+1-m}{2l+1} \right) P_{l+1}^m(\cos\theta) P_{l'}^{m'}(\cos\theta) + \right. \\ \left. + \frac{(l-m)}{(2l+1)} P_{l-1}^m(\cos\theta) \right] P_{l'}^{m'}(\cos\theta)$$

associated

From the orthogonality relation of the Legendre functions

$$\int_{-1}^1 d(\cos\theta) P_{l+1}^m(\cos\theta) P_{l'}^{m'}(\cos\theta) = \frac{2(l \pm 1 + m)!}{(2(l \pm 1) + 1)(l \pm 1 - m)!} S_{l \pm 1, l'}$$

\Rightarrow Only the terms for which $l' = l \pm 1$ survive

$$\boxed{\Delta l = \pm 1}$$

That is why a $1s \rightarrow 2s$ transition is forbidden

(b) circularly polarized light

$$\boxed{\Delta l = \pm 1}$$

Proof along the same lines, but using

$$(2l+1) \sin\theta P_l^{m-1}(\cos\theta) = P_{l+1}^m(\cos\theta) - P_{l-1}^m(\cos\theta)$$

★ Please note: (a) The above-stated rule may also be understood using parity arguments

Under $\vec{r} \rightarrow -\vec{r}$, $R_{me}(-) Y_l^m(\theta, \varphi) = (-1)^l R_{me}(r) Y_l^m(\theta, \varphi)$
 $\Rightarrow l$ odd $\Rightarrow Y_l^m$ odd
 $\Rightarrow l$ even $\Rightarrow Y_l^m$ even

$$\int Y_{l'}^{m'}(\theta, \varphi) Y_{l+1}^{q+1}(\theta, \varphi) Y_{l-1}^m(\theta, \varphi) d\Omega$$
 is non-vanishing if the integrand is even

- vanishing if the integrand is odd

$\Rightarrow l + l' + 1$ even

If l odd, l' even

If l even, l' odd

\Rightarrow The dipole operator only connects states of different parity (LaPorte's rule)

(b) If there exists a spin-orbit coupling $\vec{s}(r) \vec{l} \cdot \vec{s}$

between \vec{l} and \vec{s} , the stationary states of the electron are labeled by the quantum numbers l, s, j, m_j , with $\vec{j} = \vec{l} + \vec{s}$.

The electric dipole selection rules can then be obtained by computing the dipole matrix elements in the basis of the eigenstates of \vec{J}

They are

$$\Delta J = 0, \pm 1, J=0 \xleftarrow{\downarrow} J=0$$

$$\Delta \ell = \pm 1$$

$$\Delta m_J = 0, \pm 1$$

notation for a forbidden transition

$\Delta J=0$ is NOT forbidden - this is due to the fact that J is not related to the parity of the level.

If ℓ and s are good quantum numbers, one can still have

$$\Delta \ell = 0, \pm 1, 0 \leftrightarrow 0$$

$$\Delta s = 0$$

This rule, however, breaks down for heavier elements, since the spin-orbit coupling is quite strong in this case.

(26)

* Electric quadrupole transition / magnetic dipole transition

Let us now consider the second term of the expansion

$$\exp(i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}) \approx 1 + i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} + \dots$$

In this case,

$$M_{ba} = \langle \psi_b | (\epsilon^* \vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}) (\hat{\epsilon} \cdot \nabla r) | \psi_a \rangle$$

Assumptions

- $\vec{k} = k \hat{e}_z$ (propagation direction along the z axis)
- $\hat{\epsilon} = \epsilon \hat{x}$ (polarization direction along the x axis)

$$\Rightarrow M_{ba} = ik \langle \psi_b | \times \frac{\partial}{\partial z} | \psi_a \rangle = i \frac{\omega_{ba}}{c} \langle \psi_b | \times \frac{\partial}{\partial z} | \psi_a \rangle$$

Writing

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_b | \times \frac{\partial}{\partial z} | \psi_a \rangle &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \langle \psi_b | \times \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - z \frac{\partial}{\partial x} | \psi_a \rangle}_{(*)} + \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \langle \psi_b | \times \frac{\partial}{\partial z} + z \frac{\partial}{\partial x} | \psi_a \rangle}_{(**)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and using } \frac{iL_y}{\hbar} = \times \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - z \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$$

$$(*) = \frac{1}{2} \langle \psi_b | \frac{iL_y}{\hbar} | \psi_a \rangle = \frac{i}{2\hbar} \langle \psi_b | L_y | \psi_a \rangle$$

$$(**) =$$

$$\text{using } -ik \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \vec{p}_z \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = -\frac{1}{ik} \vec{p}_z = -\frac{m\vec{z}}{i\hbar}$$

$$-ik \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \vec{p}_x \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{ik} \vec{p}_x = -\frac{m\vec{x}}{i\hbar}$$

Together with the Heisenberg equations,

$$\dot{z} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [zH_0 - H_0 z]$$

$$\dot{x} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [xH_0 - H_0 x]$$

we find

$$(\star a) \quad x \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{m}{\hbar^2} [z, H_0]$$

$$(\star b) \quad z \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{mz}{\hbar^2} [x, H_0] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} z = \frac{m}{\hbar^2} [x, H_0] z$$

$$\Rightarrow (\star a) + (\star b) = \frac{m}{\hbar^2} \left[x [z, H_0] + [x, H_0] z \right]$$

$$= \frac{m}{\hbar^2} [xz, H_0]$$

Matrix element (\star) :

$$\frac{m}{2\hbar^2} \langle \psi_b | xzH_0 - H_0 xz | \psi_a \rangle$$

$$= -\frac{m\omega_{ba}}{2\hbar} \langle \psi_b | xz | \psi_a \rangle$$

$$M_{ba} = -\frac{\omega_{ba}}{2\hbar c} \underbrace{\langle \psi_b | Ly | \psi_a \rangle}_{\text{Magnetic dipole transitions}} + \underbrace{\frac{im\omega_{ba}^2}{2\hbar c} \langle \psi_b | xz | \psi_a \rangle}_{\text{electric quadrupole transitions}}$$

$$M_{ba}^{(1)}$$

$$M_{ba}^{(2)}$$

Magnetic dipole transitions

$M_{ba}^{(1)}$ is proportional to the ^{orbital} magnetic dipole

moment operator

$$\vec{\mu}_L = -\frac{e}{2m} \vec{L} = -\mu_B \left(\frac{\vec{L}}{\hbar} \right)$$

Spin can be included by taking $\vec{L} \rightarrow \vec{L} + 2\vec{s}$ so that

$$M_{ba}^{(1)} = -\frac{\omega_{ba}}{2\pi c} \langle \psi_b | L_y + 2s_y | \psi_a \rangle$$

This matrix element induces magnetic dipole transitions

Selection rules: $M_{ba}^{(1)} \neq 0$

- Neither L_y nor s_y changes the orbital quantum number l since $[\vec{L} + 2\vec{s}, \vec{l}^2] = 0$
 $\Rightarrow \Delta l = 0$ $[\vec{L} + 2\vec{s}, s^2] = 0$
- L_y changes m_l by ± 1 (check 3rd year Quantum mechanics for details)
 $\Rightarrow \Delta m_L = \pm 1$
- S_y changes m_s by $\pm 1 \Rightarrow \Delta m_s = \pm 1$

If instead of L_y, S_y we had S_z, L_z , this would give $\Delta m_e = 0$
 $\Delta m_S = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \Delta l = 0 \\ \Delta m_e = \pm 1, 0 \\ \Delta m_S = \pm 1, 0 \end{cases}$$

Please note:

- In the presence of the spin-orbit coupling the eigenstates of H_0 are labeled by the quantum numbers l, j since $[\vec{L}, \vec{j}^2] \neq 0$ $[\vec{S}, \vec{j}^2] \neq 0$ the above-stated matrix

element may connect states with the same ℓ but different J (29)

In this case, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta \ell &= 0 \\ \Delta J &= \pm 1, 0 \quad (J=0 \leftrightarrow J'=0) \\ \Delta m_J &= \pm 1, 0\end{aligned}$$

- The atomic states a and b must have the same parity.
- For a rigorous derivation of the above-stated selection rules, see an explanation based on the Wigner-Eckart theorem (e.g., A. Corney, pp. 130) (Chen-Tannoudji, Complement D)
- For an atom whose nucleus has a magnetic moment, magnetic dipole transitions can take place between two hyperfine structure components of the same fine structure level

$$(\Delta L = \Delta S = \Delta J = 0), \text{ but } \Delta F \neq 0$$

Example : states $F=0$ and $F=1$ of the atomic hydrogen ground state.

* Electric quadrupole transitions

$$M_{ba}^{(2)} = -i \frac{m\omega_{ba}^2}{2\pi c} \langle \psi_b | xz | \psi_a \rangle$$

- xz is a component of the electric quadrupole operator of the atom
- xz is even \Rightarrow it couples states of the SAME parity

$$\langle \Psi_b | \vec{z} | \Psi_a \rangle = \int \Psi_b^*(\vec{r}) \times z \Psi_a(\vec{r}) d^3 r$$

$$\Psi_b(\vec{r}) = R_{m'l'} Y_{l'}^{m'}(\theta, \phi)$$

$$\Psi_a = R_{nlm}(\vec{r}) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

$$z = r \sin \theta \cos \phi = r \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{3}} [Y_1^{-1}(\theta, \phi) - Y_1^1(\theta, \phi)]$$

$$z = r \cos \theta = r \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{3}} Y_1^0(\theta, \phi)$$

$$x z = r^2 \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{3}} \left[\underbrace{Y_1^0(\theta, \phi) Y_1^1(\theta, \phi)}_{\propto Y_2^{-1}(\theta, \phi)} - \underbrace{Y_1^0(\theta, \phi) Y_1^1(\theta, \phi)}_{\propto Y_2^1(\theta, \phi)} \right]$$

Hence

$$\langle \Psi_b | \vec{z} | \Psi_a \rangle \propto \int Y_{l'}^{m'}(\theta, \phi) Y_2^{\pm 1}(\theta, \phi) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) d\Omega$$

* Radial integral

$$\int Y_{l'}^{m'}(\theta, \phi) Y_2^{\pm 1}(\theta, \phi) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \neq 0 \text{ if}$$

$$\Delta l = 0, \pm 2, \Delta m = \pm 1$$

(The proof is similar to that performed for dipole transitions)

If we have z^2 this will give

$$\Delta l = 0, \pm 2, \Delta m = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \Delta l = 0, \pm 2 \\ \Delta m = 0, \pm 1 \end{cases}$$

④ Please note

For a many- e^- atom, $\chi_2 \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^N x_i z_i$

In this case, the electric quadrupole selection rules read

(a) $\Delta M_J = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$

(in terms of total

(b) $\Delta J = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$

angular momentum operator
 \vec{J})

And, if L, S are good quantum numbers

(a) $\Delta S = 0$

(b) $\Delta L = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$

(c) $\Delta M_L = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$

Rigorous proof : Wigner-Eckart theorem

SUMMARY

(32)

Selection rules for single photon transitions in atomic Spectra

Rule	Electric Dipole	Magnetic dipole	Electric Quadrupole
1	$\Delta J = 0, \pm 1$ $(0 \leftrightarrow 0)$	$\Delta J = 0, \pm 1$ $(0 \leftrightarrow 0)$	$\Delta J = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$ $(0 \leftrightarrow 0; \frac{1}{2} \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2}; 0 \leftrightarrow 1)$
2	$\Delta m_J = 0, \pm 1$	$\Delta m_J = 0, \pm 1$	$\Delta m_J = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$
3	Parity Change	No parity change	No parity change
4	One electron jump $\Delta \ell = \pm 1$	No electron jump $\Delta \ell = 0, \Delta n = 0$	One or no electron jump $\Delta \ell = 0, \pm 2$
5	$\Delta S = 0$	$\Delta S = 0$	$\Delta S = 0$
6	$\Delta L = 0, \pm 1$ $(0 \leftrightarrow 0)$	$\Delta L = 0$	$\Delta L = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$ $(0 \leftrightarrow 0; 0 \leftrightarrow 1)$

3 - The Einstein coefficients

- Developed by Einstein, 1916
- Give the correct expressions for the rate of spontaneous emission/absorption of radiation

Let us consider an enclosure containing atoms and radiation in equilibrium at absolute temperature T and the two non-degenerate atomic levels a, b , with energies E_a, E_b such that $E_b > E_a$

$$E_b \longrightarrow b$$

$$E_a \longrightarrow a$$

$\epsilon(\omega_{ba})$ = energy density of radiation at the angular frequency $\omega_{ba} = \frac{E_b - E_a}{\hbar}$

N_{ba} is the number of atoms making the transition from a to b per unit time by absorbing radiation.

$$N_{ba} = B_{ba} N_a \epsilon(\omega_{ba})$$

Y

Einstein coefficient for absorption

Using $\epsilon(\omega) = \frac{I(\omega)}{c}$ and the absorption rate w_{ba} per atom in the dipole approximation

$$w_{ba}^D = \frac{4\pi^2}{c\hbar^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) I(\omega_{ba}) \underbrace{|\vec{r}_{ba} \cdot \hat{\epsilon}|^2}_{= |r_{ba}|^2 \cos^2 \theta}$$

and averaging over $\cos^2 \theta$ (unpolarised light), we find

$$W_{ba}^D = \frac{4\pi^2}{3\epsilon\kappa^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \epsilon(\omega_{ba}) |\vec{r}_{ba}|^2$$

Since $\dot{N}_{ba} = \frac{\dot{N}_{ba}}{N_b} N_b$ one may write

$$\frac{\dot{N}_{ba}}{N_b} = B_{ba} \epsilon(\omega_{ba}) \Rightarrow \boxed{B_{ba} = \frac{4\pi^2}{3\epsilon\kappa^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) |\vec{r}_{ba}|^2}$$

We will now consider the number of atoms making the transition $b \rightarrow a$ per unit time, i.e., \dot{N}_{ab}

$$\dot{N}_{ab} = \underbrace{A_{ab} N_b}_{\text{Spontaneous transitions/time}} + \underbrace{B_{ab} N_b \epsilon(\omega_{ba})}_{\text{stimulated transitions/time}}$$

$$\text{Equilibrium} \Rightarrow \dot{N}_{ab} = \dot{N}_{ba}$$

$$B_a N_a \epsilon(\omega_{ba}) = [A_{ab} + B_{ab} \epsilon(\omega_{ba})] N_b$$

$$\frac{N_a}{N_b} = \frac{A_{ab} + B_{ab} \epsilon(\omega_{ba})}{B_{ba} \epsilon(\omega_{ba})} \quad (*)$$

The system is in thermal equilibrium. Hence,

$$\frac{N_a}{N_b} = \exp \left[- (E_a - E_b) / (k_b T) \right] = \exp \left[\frac{\hbar \omega_{ba}}{k_b T} \right] \quad (++)$$

$$(*) = (++) \Rightarrow \frac{A_{ab} + B_{ab} \epsilon(\omega_{ba})}{B_{ba} \epsilon(\omega_{ba})} = \exp \left[\frac{\hbar \omega_{ba}}{k_b T} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon(\omega_{ba}) = \frac{A_{ab}}{B_{ba} \exp[\hbar\omega_{ba}/(k_b T)] - B_{ab}} \quad (*)$$

On the other hand, since the atoms are in equilibrium with radiation, $\epsilon(\omega_{ba})$ will also be given by the Planck distribution law

$$\epsilon(\omega_{ba}) = \frac{\hbar \omega_{ba}^3}{\pi^2 c^3} \frac{1}{\exp[\hbar\omega_{ba}/(k_b T)] - 1} \quad (**)$$

Hence $(*) = (**) \Rightarrow B_{ab} = B_{ba}$ (principle of detailed balancing)

$$A_{ab} = \frac{\hbar \omega_{ba}^3}{\pi^2 c^3} B_{ab}$$

Since

$$B_{ab} = \frac{\omega_{ba}}{\epsilon(\omega_{ba})} = \frac{4\pi^2}{3\hbar^2} \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) |D_{ba}|^2$$

we find $A_{ab} = \frac{\omega_{ba}^3}{\pi^2 c^3} \times \frac{4\pi^2}{3\hbar^2} \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) |D_{ba}|^2$

$$A_{ab} = \frac{4\omega_{ba}^3}{3c^3 \hbar} \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) |D_{ba}|^2$$