

## Q02 - Lecture 3

### Transitions between discrete levels by time-dependent interaction

Let's review perturbation theory!

Start with a Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}_0$ , with eigenstates  $|n\rangle$ , eigenvalues  $E_n$ . Then we can write any state:

$$|\psi(t=0)\rangle = \sum \gamma_n |n\rangle$$

And after some time  $t$ , we have:

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = \sum \gamma_n e^{-iE_n t/\hbar} |n\rangle$$

Now we add a time-dependent interaction:

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_1(t)$$

We can treat this as a perturbation if its matrix elements are small compared to the spacing between levels:

$$\langle n | \hat{H}_1(t) | m \rangle \ll |E_n - E_m|$$

The perturbation will cause transitions between eigenstates.

The probability of making a transition to state  $|\phi\rangle$  after time

$t$  is given by:  $P_{\psi(0) \rightarrow \phi}(t) = |\langle \phi | \psi(t) \rangle|^2$

Example I: Interaction of atom with EM field:

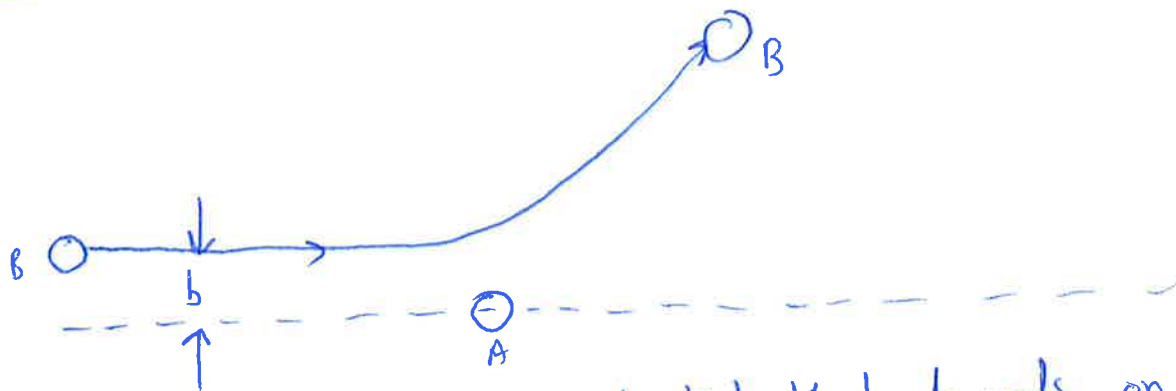
$$\vec{E}(t) = \vec{E} \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

We will see later that:  $H_1(t) = -\hat{\vec{D}} \cdot \vec{E}(t)$  where  $\hat{\vec{D}} = q \hat{\vec{r}}$

Notice that  $\hat{\vec{D}}$  is an operator, but  $\vec{E}$  is just a number!

This is called the "semi-classical treatment"

## Example II: Collision processes



If  $\hat{V}$  is an interaction potential that depends on  $R$ , the distance between  $A$  &  $B$ , then if  $R$  depends on time,  $\hat{V}$  depends on time.

For a collision,  $\hat{V} \rightarrow 0$  @  $t = -\infty, +\infty$

If the collision causes a change in internal state, it is called inelastic.  $b$  is called the "impact parameter".

## Perturbation Theory

The SE gives:  $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} |\psi(t)\rangle = (\hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_1(t)) |\psi(t)\rangle$

We will solve this by making use of the fact that  $\hat{H}_1(t)$  is "small"

Re-scale it:  $\hat{H}_1(t) = \lambda \hat{H}'_1(t)$

where now  $\langle n | \hat{H}'_1(t) | m \rangle \approx |E_n - E_m|$ , &  $\lambda \ll 1$ .

This approach does not always work:

Example I:  $\hat{E}$  must be small.

Example II:  $b$  must be small.

Now we have:  $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} |\psi(t)\rangle = (\hat{H}_0 + \lambda \hat{H}'_1(t)) |\psi(t)\rangle$

Recall that we can express every solution as an expansion of the eigenstates of the original Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}_0$ :

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = \sum \gamma_n(t) e^{-iE_n t/\hbar} |n\rangle$$

but now, the  $\gamma$ 's are a function of time!

Take the SE, multiply by  $\langle k |$ .

Remembering:  $H_0 |n\rangle = E_n |n\rangle$  &  $\sum_n |n\rangle \langle n| = \mathbb{I}$

Then we get:

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \gamma_k(t) = \lambda \sum_n \langle k | \hat{H}_1(t) | n \rangle e^{i(E_k - E_n)t/\hbar} \gamma_n(t)$$

So far, this is exact.

Now, let's expand  $\gamma$  in a power series of  $\lambda$ :

$$\gamma_k(t) = \gamma_k^{(0)}(t) + \lambda \gamma_k^{(1)}(t) + \lambda^2 \gamma_k^{(2)}(t) + \dots$$

This is useful because, since  $\lambda$  is small, most of the behaviour of  $\gamma$  will be captured by the first few orders. Substitute this in and collect terms of the same order of  $\lambda$ :

$$\text{Order 0} \quad i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \gamma_k^{(0)}(t) = 0$$

In other words,  $\gamma_k^{(0)} = \text{constant}$  and just given by the initial condition of the problem.

$$\text{Order 1} \quad i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \gamma_k^{(1)}(t) = \sum_n \langle k | \hat{H}_1(t) | n \rangle e^{i(E_k - E_n)t/\hbar} \gamma_n^{(0)}(t)$$

$$\text{Order } r \quad i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \gamma_k^{(r)}(t) = \sum_n \langle k | \hat{H}_1(t) | n \rangle e^{i(E_k - E_n)t/\hbar} \gamma_n^{(r-1)}(t)$$



## Please Notice

- each order ( $r$ ) depends only on the solution to the  $(r-1)^{th}$  order  $\Rightarrow$  CAN SOLVE ITERATIVELY
- $\lambda$  itself has disappeared!

## First Order Theory

Let's work out the probability of making a transition from state  $|i\rangle$  to state  $|k\rangle$  using first order PT.

Zeroth order:  $\gamma_k^{(0)} = \delta_{ki}$

Then the first order is simply:

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \gamma_k^{(1)}(t) = \sum_n \langle k | \hat{H}'(t) | n \rangle e^{+i(E_k - E_n)t/\hbar} \gamma_n^{(0)}(t)$$
$$= \langle k | \hat{H}'(t) | i \rangle e^{+i(E_k - E_i)t/\hbar} \delta_{ki}$$

Now integrate to get the answer:

$$\gamma_k^{(1)}(t) = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t d\tau \langle k | \hat{H}'(\tau) | i \rangle e^{i(E_k - E_i)\tau/\hbar}$$

But recall that the transition amplitude is:

$$\gamma_k(t) = \underbrace{\gamma_k^{(0)}(t)}_0 + \lambda \gamma_k^{(1)}(t) + \dots$$

So  $S_{ki} \equiv \gamma_k^{(1)}(t)$ , but also recall  $\lambda \hat{H}'(t) = \hat{H}_1(t)$

then:

$$S_{ki} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t d\tau \langle k | \hat{H}_1(\tau) | i \rangle e^{i(E_k - E_i)\tau/\hbar}$$

And  $P_{i \rightarrow k} = |S_{ki}|^2 = \frac{1}{\hbar^2} \left| \int_{t_0}^t d\tau \langle k | \hat{H}_1(\tau) | i \rangle e^{i(E_k - E_i)\tau/\hbar} \right|^2$

Now imagine a perturbation of the type:

$$\hat{H}_1(t) = \hat{W} f(t)$$

operator acting  
on atomic variables

function

if  $W_{ki} = \langle k | \hat{W} | i \rangle$ , then we have (for  $t_0 = -\infty, t = \infty$ )

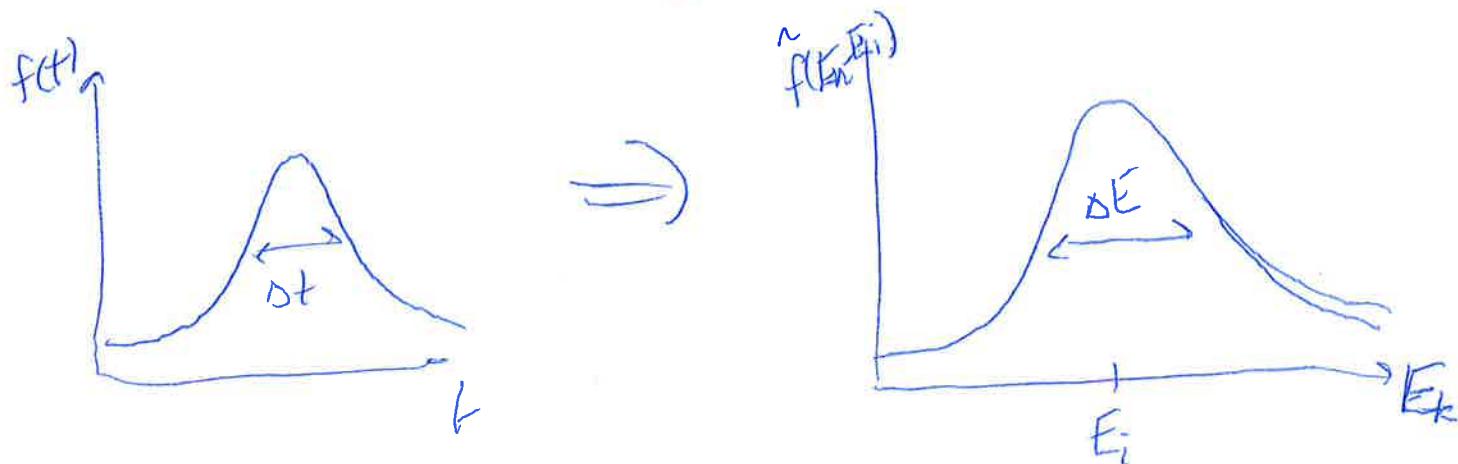
$$S_{ki} = \frac{W_{ki}}{i\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt f(t) e^{i(E_k - E_i)t/\hbar}$$

But this is just the Fourier transform of  $f(t)$  !!!

Writing  $\tilde{f}(E) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt f(t) e^{iEt/\hbar}$

then  $P_{i \rightarrow k} = |S_{ki}|^2 = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |W_{ki}|^2 |\tilde{f}(E_k - E_i)|^2$

Example: Collision taking place in time  $\Delta t$   
then  $f(t)$  looks like gaussian with width  $\Delta t$ :

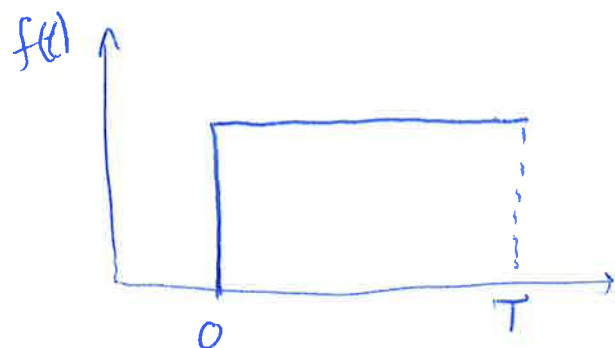


where  $\Delta E \approx \frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}$

Thus a collisional interaction for  $\Delta t$  duration will only significantly populate levels for which

$$|E_k - E_i| < \hbar / \Delta t$$

Next example, consider a perturbation suddenly turned on:



We know the Fourier transform of a square pulse: So,

$$S_{ki} = \frac{W_{ki}}{\hbar} \frac{e^{i(E_k - E_i)T/\hbar} - 1}{i(E_k - E_i)/\hbar}$$

Corrections:

or  $P_{i \rightarrow k}(T) = \frac{|W_{ki}|^2}{\hbar^2} g_T(E_k - E_i)$

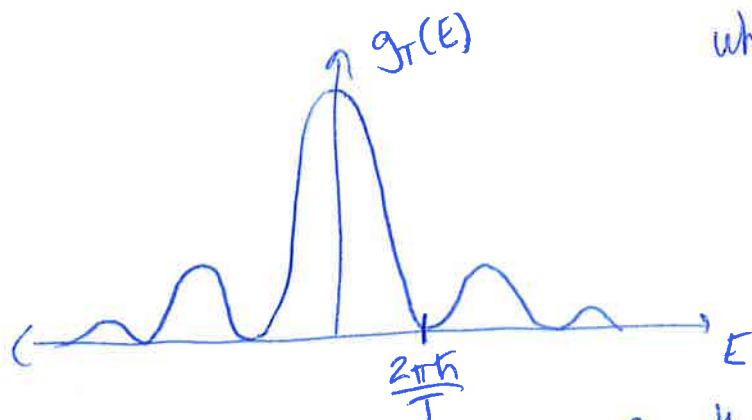
where  $g_T(E) = \frac{\sin^2(E/2\hbar)}{(E/2\hbar)^2} T^2$

$$\delta_T(E) = \frac{g_T(E)}{2\pi\hbar T}$$

then

$$P_{i \rightarrow k}(T) = T \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |W_{fi}|^2 \delta_T(E_k - E_i)$$

where  $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \delta_T(E) = \delta(E)$



So, as before, we have an estimate for the efficiently populated states:

$$E_i - \frac{\pi\hbar}{T} < E_k < E_i + \frac{\pi\hbar}{T}$$

The energy is conserved to a precision  $\frac{2\pi\hbar}{T}$ , or

$$|\Delta E \cdot T| \approx \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

"energy-time uncertainty principle" ?!



Final example, a sinusoidal perturbation:

$$f(t) = \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

Taking the Fourier transform:

$$S_{ki} = -\frac{W_{ki}}{2\hbar} \left[ \frac{e^{i(\omega_{ki}-\omega)t-i\phi} - e^{i(\omega_{ki}-\omega)t_0-i\phi}}{\omega_{ki}-\omega} + \frac{e^{i(\omega_{ki}+\omega)t+i\phi} - e^{i(\omega_{ki}+\omega)t_0+i\phi}}{\omega_{ki}+\omega} \right]$$

where  $\hbar\omega_{ki} = E_k - E_i$ .

This has two terms, with denom.  $\omega_{ki}-\omega$  and  $\omega_{ki}+\omega$ .  
Since  $\omega_{ki} \sim \omega$  (quasi-resonant condition), the second term is MUCH smaller (so let's ignore it!)  $\rightarrow$  QUASI-RESONANT APPROXIMATION

And:

$$P_{k \rightarrow i} = \frac{T |W_{ki}|^2}{4} \left( \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} \right) \delta_T(E_k - E_i - \hbar\omega)$$

$\delta_T$  is the same as before!

Comparing this to the pulsed excitation, we have two differences:

- 1) A factor of 4

- 2)  $E_k - E_i \rightarrow E_k - E_i - \hbar\omega$

The first term is because half the amplitude is lost in the off-resonant term (the one with  $\omega_{ki}+\omega$  in the denom).  
This is also called the "ROTATING WAVE APPROXIMATION"

We can construct a similar constraint on the efficiently populated states as before:

$$E_i + \hbar\omega - \frac{\pi\hbar}{T} < E_k < E_i + \hbar\omega + \frac{\pi\hbar}{T}$$

For long  $T$ , the only states efficiently populated are those with  $|E_k - E_i| = \hbar\omega$ . THE CHANGE IN THE ATOMIC ENERGY OCCURS BY THE ABSORPTION OR EMISSION OF A QUANTUM OF ENERGY  $\hbar\omega$ !

We could call this a photon, but this is not necessary.

### Exact Solution of the Problem

Now consider a much simpler case: a two-level atom.

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{W} \quad \text{as before}$$

$$|a\rangle \rightarrow H_0|a\rangle = E_a|a\rangle$$

$$|b\rangle \rightarrow H_0|b\rangle = E_b|b\rangle$$

and  $\hat{W}$  gives transitions between these levels:

$$W_{aa} = W_{bb} = 0, \quad W|a\rangle = |b\rangle, \quad W|b\rangle = |a\rangle$$

This system can be solved exactly!

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} E_a & W \\ W & E_b \end{pmatrix}$$

Diagonalize it!

You will find:

$$\begin{cases} |\phi_1\rangle = \cos\theta|a\rangle + \sin\theta|b\rangle \\ |\phi_2\rangle = -\sin\theta|a\rangle + \cos\theta|b\rangle \end{cases}$$

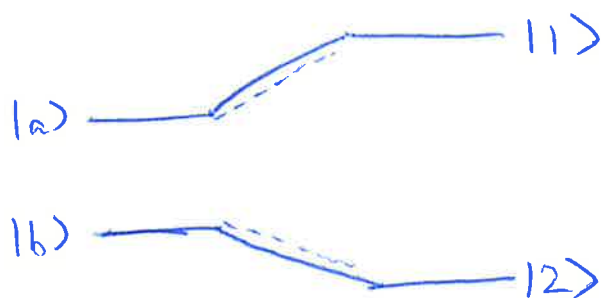
where

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2W}{(E_a - E_b)}$$



and 
$$E_{1,2} = \left( \frac{E_a + E_b}{2} \right) \pm \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(E_a - E_b)^2 + 4W^2}}_{\hbar \Omega}$$

Pictorially:



To get the dynamics, we decompose our state into  $|1\rangle + |2\rangle$ , time evolve @  $e^{-iE_{1,2}t/\hbar}$  and project onto desired final state.

If initial state is  $|a\rangle$ , then probability of transition to  $|b\rangle$  at time  $T$  is given by:

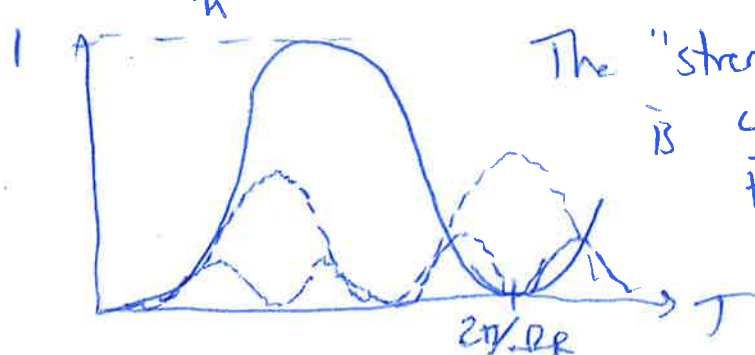
$$P_{a \rightarrow b}(T) = \frac{4W^2}{(E_a - E_b)^2 + 4W^2} \sin^2\left(\frac{\Omega T}{2}\right)$$

$$P_{a \rightarrow b}(T) = \frac{4W^2}{\hbar^2 \Omega^2} \sin^2\left(\frac{\Omega T}{2}\right)$$

1) These are called "Rabi Oscillations"

2)  $\Omega_R = \frac{2W}{\hbar}$  is the "Rabi frequency" by convention and does not depend on anything but the transition ~~matrix~~ matrix element.

3)  $\Omega = \frac{\sqrt{(E_a - E_b)^2 + 4W^2}}{\hbar}$  is the "generalized Rabi frequency"



The "strength" of the oscillation is  $\frac{4W^2}{\hbar^2 \Omega^2} = \frac{\Omega_R^2}{\Omega^2}$

ie) if  $E_a = E_b$

$$P = \sin^2\left(\frac{WT}{\hbar}\right)$$

So  $P=1$  when  $\frac{WT}{\hbar} = \pi/2$  or  $2\pi T = \pi$

However, when  $E_a \neq E_b$ , you never get 100% population transfer.