

Simplifying the transition rate Γ 's.

QF26

17) We can write the transition rate Γ 's of Eqs. (74) & (75) in a more appealing form. Plug in the operator J_{σ} of Eq. (59), remembering that the $\sum_{\mathbf{k}}$ has been done [as an integral over \mathbf{k} , per Eq. (70)]. Put $\rho(\mathbf{k}) = V k^2 / (2\pi)^3$ for the photon density of states [Eq. (69)], and drop clumsy subscripts on \mathbf{k} . Then...

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(A)} = \frac{\left(\frac{q}{mc}\right)^2 k}{2\pi\hbar} \sum_{\sigma, 4\pi} [N_{\sigma}(\mathbf{k})] |\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{\sigma} \cdot \langle f | \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{k}) | i \rangle|^2, \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{in } \boxed{\hbar\omega} \\ E_i \end{array} \right\} \quad (76)$$

$\hbar\omega = E_f - E_i$, for ABSORPTION;

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(E)} = \frac{\left(\frac{q}{mc}\right)^2 k}{2\pi\hbar} \sum_{\sigma, 4\pi} [N_{\sigma}(\mathbf{k}) + 1] |\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{\sigma} \cdot \langle f | \mathbf{M}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{k}) | i \rangle|^2 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} E_i \\ \boxed{\hbar\omega} \text{ out} \\ E_f \end{array} \right\} \quad (77)$$

$\hbar\omega = E_i - E_f$, for EMISSION;

→ Where: $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{k}) = e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}} (\mathbf{p} + i\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{k})$. (78)

Notice that the volume V [introduced in Eq. (19) as the radiation field container, and used in Eq. (42) for counting photon modes] has cancelled out ($\frac{1}{V}$ in $\langle J_{\sigma} \rangle^2$ against V in $\rho(\mathbf{k})$). This makes our calculation independent of V , as it should be. Still left in the above Γ 's is the sum $\sum_{\sigma, 4\pi}$, which is a sum over the photon polarization states $\sigma = 1, 2$, and the 4π solid \angle for \mathbf{k} [Eqs. (69)-(70)].

For a free radiation field, the photon # $N_{\sigma}(\mathbf{k}) = N(\mathbf{k})$ is independent of polarization, in which case we can take it outside the sum $\sum_{\sigma, 4\pi}$, and write...

$$\left[\Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(A)} = [N(\mathbf{k})] \left(\frac{q}{mc}\right)^2 \frac{k}{2\pi\hbar} \sum_{\sigma, 4\pi} |\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{\sigma} \cdot \langle f | \mathbf{M} | i \rangle|^2, \right. \quad (79a)$$

$$\left. \Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(E)} = [N(\mathbf{k}) + 1] \left(\frac{q}{mc}\right)^2 \frac{k}{2\pi\hbar} \sum_{\sigma, 4\pi} |\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{\sigma} \cdot \langle f | \mathbf{M}^{\dagger} | i \rangle|^2. \right. \quad (79b)$$

Clearly $\Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(A)}$ is a wholly induced process, in that there is no absorption possible when there is no external field present (i.e. $N(\mathbf{k}) = 0$). By contrast, $\Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(E)}$ has an induced part plus a spontaneous part which is nonzero even w/o a field.

Relations between the rates Γ . Detailed Balancing.

QF27

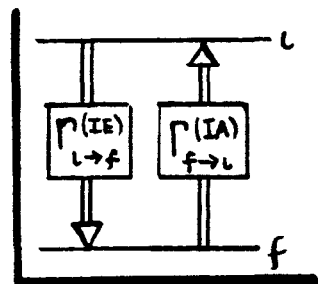
18) Split the emission Γ of Eq. (79b) into two parts...

$$\rightarrow \underline{\Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(E)}} = \Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(SE)} + \Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(IE)} \quad \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(SE)} = \left(\frac{q}{mc}\right)^2 \frac{k}{2\pi\hbar} \sum_{\sigma} |\hat{\epsilon}_\sigma \cdot \langle f | \mathbf{M}^\dagger | i \rangle|^2, \text{ Spontaneous emission rate;}$$

and: $\Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(IE)} = N(k) \Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(SE)}$, induced emission rate. (80)

We now have the spontaneous (no radiation field present) and induced (field present: $N(k) > 0$) emission rates separated. Next, we note that since...

$$\rightarrow |\langle f | \mathbf{M}^\dagger | i \rangle|^2 = |\langle i | \mathbf{M} | f \rangle|^2 \Rightarrow \underline{\Gamma_{i \rightarrow f}^{(IE)} = \Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(IA)}}. \quad (81)$$



... then, in the presence of a radiation field [$N(k) > 0$ at the appropriate $k = (E_i - E_f)/\hbar c$], the induced emission rate for $i \rightarrow f$ is exactly matched by the induced absorption rate for $f \rightarrow i$, as indicated by the sketch. The radiation field, when present, acts impartially -- it drives just as many emissions $i \rightarrow f$ as absorptions $f \rightarrow i$. This is called "detailed balancing", a necessary thermodynamic feature of our theory.

The spontaneous emission rate $\Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(SE)}$ is a different (and new) breed. It says that whenever an initial state $|i\rangle$ is connected to a lower-lying final state $\langle f|$ via the matrix element $\langle f | \mathbf{M}^\dagger | i \rangle$, \mathbf{M} in Eq. (78), then $|i\rangle$ will spontaneously decay to $\langle f|$, w/o any external field present. So it says that any excited state of an "atom" (more generally any QM system with bound states) will normally decay to the ground state -- if it is capable of emitting a photon to carry off the energy $(E_i - E_f) = \hbar c k$. *

$\langle f | \mathbf{M}^\dagger | i \rangle$, which is a first order approx for the $i \rightarrow f$ emission, may vanish. However, in higher orders of perturbⁿ theory, it is ~ always possible to find a coupling (which may involve intermediate states) $\langle f | (\text{something}) | i \rangle$ which provides $\Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(SE)} > 0$.

The nature of the spontaneous decay rate $\Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(SE)}$.

(QF28)

Where did the spontaneous decay rate $\Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(SE)}$ come from? Precisely from the quantization of the radiation field via the SHO notion, and specifically from the fact that the photon creation operator a^\dagger obeys: $a^\dagger |N\rangle = \sqrt{N+1} |N+1\rangle$ [see Eq. (29), and the emission process in Eq. (62b)]. The "1" in the $\sqrt{N+1}$ here is what ultimately gives $\Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(SE)}$, so it's a peculiarly QM effect, and we would have missed it % quantizing the field. Fermi might have missed it.

What triggers $\Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(SE)}$, i.e. what "tickle" the atom into a spontaneous emission $i \rightarrow f$ with no external field present? (Equivalently -- why doesn't the atom remain indefinitely in a metastable state @ $i > f$?). The answer is connected with the nature of the vacuum state $|0\rangle$ of the quantized field. The matrix element $\langle 1 | a^\dagger | 0 \rangle$ is nonzero during a spontaneous emission [cf. Eqs. (60) & (62b)], i.e. the initial state of the atom + field is: atom in excited state i and field in vacuum $|0\rangle$. But the $|0\rangle$ state of the field is filled with large fluctuating E-fields [Eq. (56)], and a uniform distribution of zero-point "half" photons $\frac{1}{2}$ tick [p. QF8]. In the former case, the E-field fluctuations can "tickle" the atom state i into giving up its metastability, and doing the emission $i \rightarrow f$. In the latter case, two "half" photons (at k -values close together) can combine to form a virtual photon @ tick $\approx (E_i - E_f)$ which will induce the emission $i \rightarrow f$; this process is permissible when the "virtual" photon exists for a time which is "inside" the uncertainty principle, i.e. $\Delta t < \hbar / (E_i - E_f)$ *; since such a photon "violates" the energy-time inequality, it will never be seen -- that's why it's called a "virtual" photon. Anyway, the vacuum field $|0\rangle$ provides ample opportunity to "induce" the spontaneous decay $i \rightarrow f$

The discovery of $\Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(SE)}$ is another major success of the theory [see p. QF25].

* Notice: this Δt lies inside the times ignored in Eq. (73). Very interesting...

Spontaneous decay rate Γ in dipole approximation.

(QF29)

19) It is clear from Eqs. (80) & (81) that the key transition rate to calculate is $\Gamma_{i \rightarrow f}^{(SE)}$, since the induced rates are: $\Gamma_{i \rightarrow f}^{(IE)} = \Gamma_{f \rightarrow i}^{(IA)} = N(k) \Gamma_{i \rightarrow f}^{(SE)}$. We drop the sub- and superscripts and thus look at...

$$\rightarrow \Gamma_{f \leftarrow i}^{(SE)} = \Gamma = (q/mc)^2 \frac{k}{2\pi\hbar} \sum_{\sigma, 4\pi} |\hat{\epsilon}_{\sigma} \cdot \langle f | \mathbf{M}^\dagger | i \rangle|^2. \quad (82)$$

The atom operator \mathbf{M} is defined in Eq. (78), viz.

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{M} = e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}} (\mathbf{p} + i\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{k}), \quad (83)$$

and we shall do a "dipole approximation" on the matrix element in (82).

This mainly amounts to claiming the phase $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} \ll 1$ for a typical "atom", so that $e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}} \rightarrow 1$ in (83). Generically, this is the claim that $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} \sim 2\pi(d/\lambda) \ll 1$, the size d of the radiating system is small compared to the radiated wavelength λ (and $d \ll \lambda$ is called the dipole approxn in classical EM). For an actual (hydrogenlike) atom...

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} \sim \left(\frac{E_i - E_f}{\hbar c} \right) a_0 \sim \left(\frac{\frac{1}{2}(Z\alpha)^2 mc^2}{\hbar c} \right) \frac{\hbar^2}{Zme^2} = \frac{1}{2}(Z\alpha) \ll 1, \quad (84)$$

... so $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} \ll 1$ is explicitly a good approxn. For the same atom, the of the $\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{k}$ and \mathbf{p} terms in (83) goes as...

$$\rightarrow |\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{k}|/|\mathbf{p}| \sim \frac{1}{2}\hbar k/mc Z\alpha \sim \frac{1}{4}(Z\alpha) \ll 1, \quad (85)$$

... and we shall also drop the term in \mathbf{S} . This leaves $\mathbf{M} \approx \mathbf{p}$, and so the spontaneous emission rate in (82) is -- to leading order

$$\left[\Gamma = (q/mc)^2 \frac{k}{2\pi\hbar} \sum_{\sigma, 4\pi} |\hat{\epsilon}_{\sigma} \cdot \langle f | \mathbf{p} | i \rangle|^2 \right]. \quad (86)$$

This version of Γ gives the electric dipole radiation from the atom. The term in \mathbf{S} just dropped would give the magnetic dipole radiation, and the higher order terms in $e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}} = 1 + i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}) + \dots$ would give quadrupole, etc. radiation.

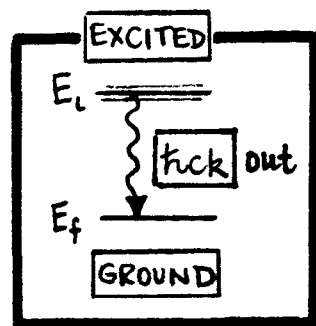
20) By the atom's QM eqn-of-motion [Sakurai Eq. (2.2.19)]

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{p} = m \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} \rightarrow \frac{im}{\hbar} [\mathcal{H}_s, \mathbf{r}], \quad \mathcal{H}_s = \text{Schrodinger Ham}^n [\text{Eq. (6)}],$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{say } \langle f | \mathbf{p} | i \rangle &= \frac{im}{\hbar} (\langle f | \overleftrightarrow{\mathcal{H}_s} \mathbf{r} | i \rangle - \langle f | \mathbf{r} \overleftrightarrow{\mathcal{H}_s} | i \rangle) \\ &= \frac{im}{\hbar} \underbrace{(E_f - E_i)}_{= (-)\hbar\omega, \text{ for emitted photon.}} \langle f | \mathbf{r} | i \rangle = -im\omega \langle f | \mathbf{r} | i \rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (87)$$

Then, in Eq (86)...

$$\left[\begin{aligned} \Gamma &= (k^3/2\pi\hbar) \sum_{\sigma, \hat{\mathbf{k}}} |\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{D}_{fi}|^2 \\ \text{say } \hbar\omega [\text{photon}] &= (E_i - E_f) [\text{atom}], \\ \text{say } \mathbf{D}_{fi} &= \langle f | q\mathbf{r} | i \rangle \quad \int \text{electric dipole moment for (transition) } i \rightarrow f. \end{aligned} \right. \quad (88)$$



The remaining sum, $\sum_{\sigma, \hat{\mathbf{k}}}$, over polarizations σ and directions $\int_{4\pi} d\Omega_{\mathbf{k}}$ for \mathbf{k} [see Eq. (70)] is straight forward (details in footnote 1 below). The result is...

$$\boxed{\Gamma = (4k^3/3\hbar) |\langle f | q\mathbf{r} | i \rangle|^2}, \quad \text{say } \hbar\omega [\text{photon}] = (E_i - E_f) [\text{atomic transition}]. \quad (89)$$

This is a Basic Result for the theory: it is the (leading order) dipole approxn for an atom's spontaneous emission rate in a decay from initial excited state $|i\rangle$ to a lower-lying state $\langle f|$. It is summed over photon polarizations, and averaged over photon directions.

$$\text{1} \quad \sum_{\sigma} |\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{D}|^2 = \sum_{i,j} D_i D_j^{\dagger} (\sum_{\sigma} \epsilon_{\sigma i} \epsilon_{\sigma j}) = |\mathbf{D}|^2 - \frac{1}{k^2} \sum_{i,j} D_i D_j^{\dagger} k_i k_j, \text{ by Eq. (45b).}$$

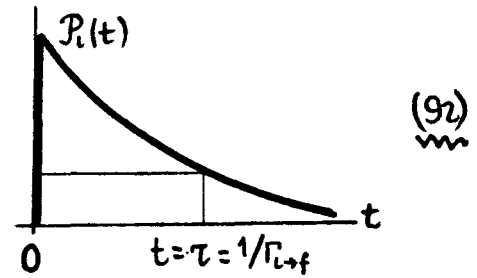
$$\text{say } \sum_{\sigma, \hat{\mathbf{k}}} |\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{D}|^2 = 4\pi \left\{ |\mathbf{D}|^2 - \sum_{i,j} D_i D_j^{\dagger} \left[\frac{1}{4\pi k^2} \int_{4\pi} d\Omega_{\mathbf{k}} k_i k_j \right] \right\} = 4\pi |\mathbf{D}|^2 \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{3} \right\}.$$

$$\text{i.e., } \boxed{\sum_{\sigma, \hat{\mathbf{k}}} |\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{D}|^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3} |\mathbf{D}|^2}, \text{ for any vector } \mathbf{D} \text{ independent of } \hat{\mathbf{k}}.$$

REMARKS on Γ (cont'd)

4. The decay rate Γ of Eq. (89) is independent of time -- at least for times $t \gg 1/\omega_{if}$, per approximation in Eq. (73). Then, since Γ is the depletion rate for the probability of finding state i [when transitions $i \rightarrow f$ are possible; see Eq. (75)], we get an exponential decay law for the population $P_i(t)$ of state i ... viz

$$\left[\begin{aligned} \Gamma_{i \rightarrow f} dt &= - \frac{dP_i}{P_i} \Rightarrow P_i(t) = P_i(0) e^{-\Gamma_{i \rightarrow f} t}, \\ \Gamma_{i \rightarrow f} &= \frac{4k^3}{3\hbar} |\langle f | \mathbf{q} | i \rangle|^2, \text{ per Eq. (89).} \end{aligned} \right.$$



If i is prepared at $t=0$, it rapidly decays in a characteristic time $\tau = \frac{1}{\Gamma_{i \rightarrow f}}$. This is "unfortunate" for two reasons...

- (A) The initial state i is depleted quickly and completely... this is not consistent with the first order time-dependent perturbation analysis we have done [beginning with Eq. (63)]. The initial state amplitude should remain ≈ 1 , per remarks in class notes, p. tD7, on time-dependent perturbation theory.
- (B) The active decay over $0 \leq t \sim 1/\Gamma$ may begin to conflict with the approximation $t \gg 1/\omega_{if}$ made in Eq. (73). We must certainly satisfy $1/\Gamma \gg 1/\omega_{if}$, i.e. $\omega_{if} \gg \Gamma$... in the language of Eq. (90), this requires

$$\omega_{if} \gg \Gamma \Rightarrow \frac{1}{3} \eta^2 \mu^2 (Z\alpha)^2 \alpha \ll 1, \quad (93)$$

which is ~solidly true (for actual atoms). But at times $t \ll 1/\Gamma$ into the decay (particularly @ $t=0+$, when decay is "tickled" into being -- see remarks on p. QF 28), we can get a conflict with $t \gg 1/\omega_{if}$.

The effort to remove the potential conflict (i.e. remove the $t \gg 1/\omega_{if}$ restriction and make the theory good @ $t=0+$ into the decay) is quite interesting. Among other things, Γ becomes complex: $\Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma - iS$, with S interpreted as a radiative shift in the atom's energy levels. This is a subject for ^{Weisskopf}Wigner theory.