# s03E05 Time-dependent perturbation theory

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## 1 The interaction picture

Suppose that the Hamiltonian is a sum of two parts

$$H = H_0 + H_1$$

with the first part  $H_0$  having eigenstates  $\psi_i$ , namely  $H_0\psi_i = E_i\psi_i$ . If the initial state is  $\psi_i$ , the transition probability to  $\psi_i$  after a time evolution of length t is equal to

$$p_{i\to j} = |\langle \psi_j | e^{-iHt} | \psi_i \rangle|^2$$

and we have  $\sum_j p_{i \to j} = 1$  due to the completeness of the eigenstates  $\psi_j$ . Notice that the symbol  $\exp -iHt$  should really mean the time-ordered version of it. What we are going to derive in the following will be true in the general case.

We would like to know the effect of  $H_1$  on the transition probability, since if  $H_1$  vanishes then we simply have  $p_{i \to j} = \delta_{ij}$ . A method called the interaction picture simplifies the calculation somewhat, and at the same time provides us with some new insights. In effect, it does the following:

$$p_{i \to j} = |\langle \psi_j | e^{-iHt} | \psi_i \rangle|^2$$
$$= |\langle \psi_i | e^{iH_0 t} e^{-iHt} | \psi_i \rangle|^2$$

where the operator  $\exp(iH_0t)\exp(-iHt)$  satisfies the following differential equation

$$\begin{split} d_{t}e^{iH_{0}t}e^{-iHt} &= -ie^{iH_{0}t}H_{1}e^{-iHt} \\ &= -ie^{iH_{0}t}H_{1}e^{-iH_{0}t}e^{iH_{0}t}e^{-iHt} \\ &\equiv -iH_{11}e^{iH_{0}t}e^{-iHt} \end{split}$$

The solution is given by the Dyson series

$$e^{iH_0t}e^{-iHt} = 1 - i\int_0^t dt' H_{1I} - \int_0^t dt' \int_0^{t'} dt'' H_{1I}H_{1I} + \cdots$$

Therefore, to first order in  $H_1$ , the transition amplitude is equal to

$$\begin{split} \langle \psi_j | e^{iH_0t} e^{-iHt} | \psi_i \rangle &= \delta_{ij} - i \int_0^t dt' \langle \psi_j | H_{1I} | \psi_i \rangle \\ &= \delta_{ij} - i \int_0^t dt' \langle \psi_j | H_1 | \psi_i \rangle \, e^{-i\omega_{ij}t'} \end{split}$$

#### 2 A diagrammatic representation

The operator  $\exp(iH_0t)\exp(-iHt)$  can also be written as

$$e^{iH_0t}e^{-iHt} = \Im\exp\left(-i\int_0^t dt' H_{1I}\right)$$

which may be generalized to

$$U_{21} \equiv U_2 U_{1\dagger} = e^{iH_0 t_2} e^{-iHt_{21}} e^{-iH_0 t_1} = \Im \exp \left(-i \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt' H_{1I}\right)$$

with the following diagrammatic representation

$$1 \rightsquigarrow 2 \rightsquigarrow 1$$

$$1 \rightsquigarrow 2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightsquigarrow 1$$

$$0 \rightarrow 1 \rightsquigarrow 2 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 2 \rightsquigarrow 1 \rightarrow 0$$

#### 3 Case I: Constant perturbation

Suppose that  $H_1 = V$  is a constant operator, then the transition amplitude above evaluates to

$$\langle \psi_j | e^{iH_0t} e^{-iHt} | \psi_i \rangle = V_{ji} \frac{e^{-i\omega_{ij}t} - 1}{\omega_{ij}}$$

assuming  $j \neq i$ . The transition probability is

$$p_{i \to j} = |V_{ji}|^2 \left(\frac{\sin \omega_{ij} t / 2}{\omega_{ij} / 2}\right)^2$$

which takes the form of the familiar "sinc" function. Interestingly, when t is very large, the transition probability  $p_{i \to j}$  has the limiting behavior

$$p_{i\to j}\to |V_{ji}|^2\,2\pi\,t\,\delta^1(\omega_{ij})$$

This is a first sign of Fermi's golden rule.

However, the result above should only hold for sufficiently small t, since the expression of the transition probability does not always satisfy  $p_{i \to j} \le 1$ . This is also called the **unitarity bound**. For example,

$$\omega_{ij} = 0 \Rightarrow p_{i \to j} = |V_{ji}|^2 t^2$$

and thus we require that  $t \ll |V_{ii}|^{-1}$ .

## 4 Case II: Monochromatic perturbation

Suppose that  $H_1 = V \exp{-i\omega t} + V^{\dagger} \exp{i\omega t}$ , where V is a constant operator. This form will come out more naturally later when we discuss Dirac's derivation of the Einstein's coefficients. The transition amplitude is equal to

$$\langle \psi_j | e^{iH_0t} e^{-iHt} | \psi_i \rangle = V_{ji} \frac{e^{-i\omega_{ij}t} e^{-i\omega t} - 1}{\omega_{ij} + \omega} + V_{ij*} \frac{e^{-i\omega_{ij}t} e^{i\omega t} - 1}{\omega_{ij} - \omega}$$

which, assuming  $j \neq i$ , contains two terms. Thus  $p_{i \rightarrow j}$  will contain four terms.

To make some simplifications, we may focus on the case when  $\omega$  is close to  $\pm \omega_{ij}$ . If for example  $\omega$  is close to  $+\omega_{ij}$ , then the second term dominates, and the transition probability  $p_{i\to j}$  is approximately equal to

$$p_{i \to j} \approx |V_{ij}|^2 \left( \frac{\sin \omega_{ij-} t / 2}{\omega_{ij-} / 2} \right)^2$$

where  $\omega_{ij-} \equiv \omega_{ij} - \omega$ .

Although we may not take  $t \to \infty$ , when the final state lies in a spectrum continuum, it can be justified (see Tong Chen's notes) that we may take t large, such that

$$\langle \psi_j | e^{iH_0t} e^{-iHt} | \psi_i \rangle \approx -iV_{ji} 2\pi \delta^1(\omega_{ij} + \omega) - iV_{ij*} 2\pi \delta^1(\omega_{ij} - \omega)$$

which means that

$$p_{i \to j} \approx |V_{ii}|^2 2\pi t \delta^1(\omega_{ij} + \omega) + |V_{ij}|^2 2\pi t \delta^1(\omega_{ij} - \omega)$$

where the cross terms vanish since  $\omega \neq 0$ . Here we have used one of the delta functions to evaluate the other delta function integral, and obtained t.

#### 5 Einstein's coefficients

The Einstein's coefficients are defined by

$$d_t n_1 = A_{12} n_2 + B_{12} \rho_{\omega} n_2 - B_{21} \rho_{\omega} n_1$$
  
$$d_t n_2 = -d_t n_1$$

and Einstein: when  $d_t n_1 = d_t n_2 = 0$ ,

$$\frac{n_2}{n_1} = \frac{B_{21}\rho_{\omega}}{A_{12} + B_{12}\rho_{\omega}} = e^{-\beta\omega}$$

## 6 The electromagnetic field is quantized

Consider the following interaction between the atoms and the photons

$$H_1 = Va + V^{\dagger}a^{\dagger}$$

which gives us the transition probability

$$p_{1,n\to2,n-1} = n_{\omega} |V_{21}|^2 2\pi t \delta^1(\omega_{21} - \omega)$$
  
$$p_{2,n\to1,n+1} = (n_{\omega} + 1) |V_{21*}|^2 2\pi t \delta^1(\omega_{21} - \omega)$$

and thus the Einstein's coefficients are

$$d_t n_1 \propto -n_{\omega} |V_{21}|^2 n_1 + (n_{\omega} + 1) |V_{21}|^2 n_2$$

For phonons, the energy per unit volume is

$$\mathcal{E} = 2 \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\omega}{e^{\beta\omega} - 1} = \int d\omega \frac{\omega^2}{\pi^2} \frac{\omega}{e^{\beta\omega} - 1} = \int d\omega \, n_\omega \frac{\omega^3}{\pi^2}$$

which gives us the spectral energy density

$$\rho_{\omega} = n_{\omega} \frac{\omega^3}{\pi^2}$$

and thus we read

$$B_{21} = B_{12}$$

$$A_{12} = B_{12} \frac{\omega^3}{\pi^2}$$