

# Chap 1 Early Atomic Physics

This chapter we will go through some basic concepts and get rough sizes that are important for different atomic processes.

## Atomic Units Natural units for atoms

Charge  $e = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} C$

Mass  $M_e = 9.109 \times 10^{-31} kg$

Ang. mom.  $\hbar = 1.055 \times 10^{-34} kg m^2/s$

Length  $a_0 = \hbar^2 / [4\pi e_0 m_e] = 0.5292 \times 10^{-10} m$

Speed  $v_0 = \hbar / (m_e a_0) = 2.188 \times 10^6 m/s$

Time  $t_0 = a_0 / v_0 = 24.19 \times 10^{-18} s$

Energy  $E_0 = e^2 / 8\pi e_0 a_0 = 4.360 \times 10^{-18} J = 27.211 eV \quad (= \frac{\hbar^2}{m_e a_0^2})$

Elec. Dip. Mom  $\vec{p}_0 = e a_0 = 8.478 \times 10^{-30} Cm \quad (1 \text{ Debye} = 3.336 \times 10^{-30} Cm = 0.39 \vec{p}_0)$

Mag. Dip. Mom  $\mu_0 = \frac{e}{t_0} a_0^2 = 1.855 \times 10^{-23} J/T = 2 \mu_B$

Fine structure constant  $\alpha = \frac{v_0}{c} = \frac{1}{137.04}$

Bohr H atom - Electron moves in a circle around proton with  $m_e r = n \hbar$  Gives quantized energies, radii, speeds, ...

$$E_n = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{E_0}{n^2}$$

$$r_n = a_0 n^2$$

$$v_n = v_0/n$$

Note bunching of energy levels at high  $n$

Note the increasing size at high  $n$

Note the slower speed at high  $n$

Typical atoms have almost no interaction at distances larger than few nm. Highly excited atoms have noticeable interaction

Proposal to entangle atomic states using highly excited atoms through electric dipole-dipole interaction.



$$\text{In terms of frequency } E/h \sim \frac{P^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R^3} = \frac{E_0}{h} \left(\frac{a_0}{R}\right)^3 n^4 \approx 1 \text{ kHz} \frac{n^4}{(R/\mu\text{m})^3}$$

$$R = 3 \mu\text{m}, n = 50 \quad E/h \sim 200 \text{ MHz}$$

More complicated because not permanent dipole moment

You can manipulate highly excited states with microwaves

$$\Delta E/h = \frac{E_0}{h} \left( \frac{1}{50^2} - \frac{1}{51^2} \right) = 102 \text{ GHz}$$

The energies can be shifted with small E-fields

$$F \sim \frac{E_0}{a_0 e} \frac{1}{n^4} \sim 5.14 \times 10^{11} \text{ V/m} \frac{1}{n^4} = 5.14 \times 10^9 \text{ V/cm} / n^4$$

$$\text{At } n = 100 \quad F \sim 51 \text{ V/cm} \sim \text{destroys atom}$$

If there is a higher charge  $E_n \propto Z^2/n^2$ ,  $r_n \propto n^2/Z$ ,  $v_n \propto Z/n$   
X-Rays!

If the electron  $\rightarrow$  muon  $r \propto n^2 \frac{m_e}{m_\mu}$ ,  $v \propto \frac{1}{n}$ ,  $E_n \propto \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{m_e}{m_\mu}$   
muon catalyzed fusion, exotic atoms

For a charge interacting with electric and magnetic fields, the Hamiltonian is

$$H = \frac{(\vec{P} - g\vec{A})^2}{2m} + g\epsilon \quad \text{where } \vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}\epsilon - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} \quad \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

Show that Hamilton's equations give the correct equations of motion

$$\dot{x} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial P_x} = \frac{P_x - gA_x}{m} \Rightarrow P_x = m\dot{x} + gA_x = mu_x + gA_x(x, y, z, t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{P}_x &= -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = -g\frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial x} + \frac{g}{m} \left[ \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x} (P_x - gA_x) + \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} (P_y - gA_y) + \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} (P_z - gA_z) \right] \\ &= -g\frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial x} + g \left( \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x} u_x + \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} u_y + \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} u_z \right) \\ &= mu_x + g \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial t} + g u_x \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x} + g u_y \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} + g u_z \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} \end{aligned}$$

shuffle

$$\begin{aligned} mu_x &= -g \left( \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial t} \right) + g u_y \left( \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} \right) - g u_z \left( \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} \right) \\ &= g [E_x + u_y B_z - u_z B_y] \end{aligned}$$

To understand the implications, let's look at two examples

- 1) a hydrogen atom in a constant, uniform  $\vec{B}$ -field
- 2) a hydrogen atom in a plane light wave

Example 1)  $\epsilon(\vec{r}) = \frac{e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$ ,  $\vec{A} = \frac{B}{2}(-y, x, 0) \Rightarrow \vec{B} = (0, 0, B)$

$$\begin{aligned} H &= \frac{1}{2m_e} \left[ \left( P_x - \frac{eB}{2}y \right)^2 + \left( P_y + \frac{eB}{2}x \right)^2 + P_z^2 \right] - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{P^2}{2m_e} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}}_{H_{\text{hyd}}(B=0)} + \underbrace{\frac{eB}{2m_e} (xP_y - yP_x)}_{\text{paramagnetic}} + \underbrace{\frac{e^2 B^2}{8m_e} (x^2 + y^2)}_{\text{diamagnetic}} \end{aligned}$$

Figure out what each term is doing

$$\frac{eB}{2m_e} (xP_y - yP_x) = \frac{e\hbar}{2m_e} \frac{L_z}{\hbar} B = \mu_B \frac{M}{\text{azimuthal quant. #}} B \quad \text{Zeeman}$$

$$\text{Typical size } \frac{\mu_B}{\hbar} \simeq 2\pi 14 \text{ GHz/T} = 2\pi 14 \text{ MHz/(10 Gauss)}$$

$$\text{Typical size } \frac{e^2 B^2}{8m_e} (x^2 + y^2) \sim \frac{e^2}{8m_e} B^2 a_0^2 n^4 \sim 10^{-29} J \left( \frac{B}{1T} \right)^2 n^4$$

$$\text{Convert to frequency by } 1/n \sim 15 \text{ kHz} \left( \frac{B}{1T} \right)^2 n^4 \Rightarrow (\text{high } n \text{ are easily perturbed})$$

In more complicated atoms, the Zeeman splittings can have substantial contribution from nucleus giving smaller result.

Example 2)  $\Phi = \frac{e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \hat{A} = -\frac{E_m}{\omega} (0, 0, \cos(kx - \omega t))$

Propagation direction of plane wave? Polarization?

Find  $E + B$  plane wave

$$\vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} = E_m (0, 0, \sin(kx - \omega t)) \quad \vec{B} = -\frac{E_m k}{\omega} (0, \sin(kx - \omega t), 0)$$

$$\vec{E} \times \vec{B} = \frac{E_m^2}{c} (\sin^2(kx - \omega t), 0, 0)$$

If  $E_m \ll E$ -field in atom

$$H \approx \frac{P^2}{2m} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} - \frac{E_m e}{m\omega} P_z \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

Velocity gauge

In many situations, the wavelength of the light is much larger than the size of the atom

$$\cos(kx - \omega t) = \underbrace{\cos(\omega t)}_{\text{dipole}} - \underbrace{kx \sin(\omega t)}_{\text{quadrupole}} \dots$$

This is why dipole transition (example  $1s \rightarrow 3p$ ) is typically much stronger than quadrupole transition (example  $1s \rightarrow 3d$ ).

Gauge transformation can't change physics  $\vec{A} \rightarrow \vec{A} + \vec{\nabla} f$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{E} &\rightarrow \vec{E} - \frac{\partial \vec{f}}{\partial t} \\ \vec{B} &= \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{A} + \vec{\nabla} f) = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} \quad \checkmark \\ \vec{E} &= -\vec{\nabla} \Phi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} = -\vec{\nabla} \Phi + \vec{\nabla} \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \vec{\nabla} f = -\vec{\nabla} \Phi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Choose  $f = \frac{E_m z}{\omega} \cos(\omega t) \rightarrow \vec{A} = -\frac{E_m}{\omega} (0, 0, \cos(\omega t - kx) - \cos(\omega t))$   
 $\Phi = E_m z \sin(\omega t)$

For  $\lambda \gg$  size of atom  $\vec{A} \approx 0$

$$H = \frac{P^2}{2m} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} - e E_m z \sin(\omega t) \quad \text{Length gauge}$$

Remember the approximation that goes into it!

How to know when the laser is strong? The intensity of light (units  $\text{W/m}^2$ ) and frequency play role

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E_m^2 c \quad E_m = \sqrt{\frac{2I}{\epsilon_0 c}}$$

S Ghimire et al Nat Phys 7 138 (2011) had  $E_m = 0.6 \text{ V/\AA}$   
 $I = \frac{1}{2} 8.85 \times 10^{-12} (0.6 \times 10^{10})^2 3 \times 10^8 \text{ W/m}^2 = 4.8 \times 10^{16} \text{ W/m}^2 = 4.8 \times 10^{12} \text{ W/cm}^2$   
 (nowhere near best I)  
 $\lambda = 3.25 \text{ nm} \Rightarrow f = \frac{c}{\lambda} = 9.2 \times 10^{13} \text{ Hz} \Rightarrow \omega = 2\pi f = 5.8 \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1}$

Important concept is quiver energy and excursion amplitude

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{e E_m}{m_e} \cos(\omega t) \Rightarrow \dot{x} = \frac{e E_m}{\omega m_e} \sin(\omega t) \Rightarrow x = -\frac{e E_m}{m_e \omega^2} \cos(\omega t)$$

$$\text{Excursion amplitude} = \frac{e E_m}{m_e \omega^2} = 3.1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m} = 3.1 \text{ nm}$$

$$\text{Quiver energy} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{e E_m}{\omega m_e} \right)^2 \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sin^2(\omega t) dt = \frac{1}{m_e} \left( \frac{e E_m}{2\omega} \right)^2 = 7.5 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} = 4.7 \text{ eV}$$

Ponderomotive energy, Ponderomotive potential

The energy of 1 photon  $E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = 6.12 \times 10^{-20} \text{ J} = 0.38 \text{ eV}$   
 At this photon energy, 10+ photons are needed to ionize depending on the atom type.

Example 1: Laser wakefield acceleration

Short, high intensity laser pulse pushes electrons out of region moving at  $v_{\text{rel}}$ . Electrons pulled into wake can accelerate to GeV+ energies. Why electrons pushed out?

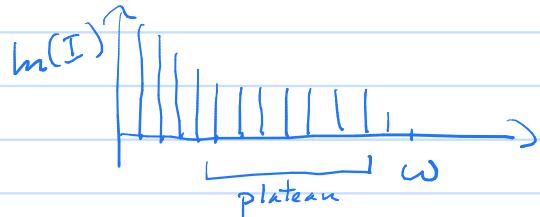
## Example 2: High harmonic generation

At high intensities, the material will emit photons at frequencies  $\omega, 3\omega, 5\omega, \dots$  (for symmetric potentials)

Why only odd for symmetric potentials?

$$\ddot{x} = -\omega^2 x - C x^3 + \alpha \sin(\omega t)$$

$$x = x_1 \sin(\omega t) + x_3 \sin(3\omega t) + x_5 \sin(5\omega t) \dots$$



$$\text{cutoff} \sim I_p + 3.17 U_p$$

↳ ponderomotive energy

3 step model: 1) Tunnel out, 2) Free motion, 3) return to nucleus & emit photon.

$$\text{After tunnel } \psi(t) = \psi_0 \sin(\omega t) + U_0 = U_0 \left[ \sin(\omega t) + \frac{\psi_0}{U_0} \right]$$

$$x(t) = -\frac{\psi_0}{\omega} \cos(\omega t) + \frac{\psi_0}{\omega} + U_0 t = \frac{\psi_0}{\omega} \left[ 1 - \cos(\omega t) + \frac{U_0}{\psi_0} \omega t \right]$$

Find  $\psi(t)$  when  $x(t) = 0$ . Maximum is when  $\frac{\psi_0}{U_0} \approx -0.28$

$$\psi(t) \approx 1.265 U_0 \Rightarrow KE \approx 3.2 U_p \text{ Why add } I_p \text{ to this?}$$

## Example 3: Above threshold ionization (ATI)

When laser intensity is high, atoms/molecules/solids can absorb many more photons than needed to ionize the atom.

Hydrogen atom + 1eV photons  $\Rightarrow$  ionization with 14, 15, 16... photons

$$\text{Electron energy} = n hf - I_p > 0 \quad n > \frac{I_p}{hf}$$