

Light and Atoms

In SI units, the microscopic Maxwell equations are

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad \nabla \times \vec{E} + \dot{\vec{B}} = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \quad \nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \frac{\dot{\vec{E}}}{c^2} \quad (2)$$

The scalar and vector potentials give \vec{E} & \vec{B} as

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla\phi - \dot{\vec{A}} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A} \quad (3)$$

which imply the homogeneous equations (1).

These potentials ϕ/c and \vec{A} form a 4-vector

$$A^m = \begin{pmatrix} \phi/c \\ \vec{A} \end{pmatrix} \quad (4)$$

Under the gauge transformation

$$A'^m(x) = A^m(x) + \partial^m \lambda(x) \quad (5)$$

the fields \vec{E} and \vec{B} do not change.

In the Coulomb gauge (also known as the radiation gauge)

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0. \tag{6}$$

To get there, we set $\Delta \lambda \equiv \nabla \cdot \nabla \lambda = -\nabla \cdot \vec{A}$ so that

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}' = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} + \nabla \cdot \nabla \lambda = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} - \nabla \cdot \vec{A} = 0. \tag{7}$$

Then Gauss's law gives

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = -\nabla \cdot \nabla \phi = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \tag{7}$$

whence

$$\phi(\vec{x}, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho(\vec{y}, t')}{|\vec{x} - \vec{y}|} d^3y \tag{8}$$

since

$$-\Delta_x \frac{1}{|\vec{x} - \vec{y}|} = 4\pi \delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{y}). \tag{9}$$

In Coulomb's gauge and where $\rho = \vec{J} = \phi = 0$, the identity $\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) = \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) - \Delta \vec{A} = -\Delta \vec{A}$ and Maxwell's equations (1-2) imply that $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = -\Delta \vec{A} = \dot{\vec{E}} = -\ddot{\vec{A}}$ or

$$\left(\Delta - \frac{1}{c^2} \partial_0^2\right) \vec{A}(\vec{x}, t) = 0. \tag{10}$$

The basic solutions of the wave equation (12) are

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}, t) = \vec{A}_0 e^{i(k \cdot x - \omega t)} \quad (13)$$

because then

$$\ddot{\vec{A}} = -\omega^2 \vec{A} \quad (14)$$

and

$$\Delta \vec{A} = -k^2 \vec{A} \quad (15)$$

and so (13) solves (10) if

$$-k^2 + \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} = 0. \quad (16)$$

$$\text{So } \omega = kc \text{ where } k = |\vec{k}|. \quad (17)$$

because of the Coulomb-gauge condition (7), we need

$$0 = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} = i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{A}_0 = 0. \quad (18)$$

So \vec{A}_0 must be a vector \perp to \vec{k} .

Box quantization: We imagine the radiation inside a large box of side L and volume

$$V = L^3 \quad (19)$$

We impose periodic boundary conditions

$$\vec{A}(\vec{0}, y, z, t) = \vec{A}(L, y, z, t). \quad 20$$

So we set

$$A(x, t) = \frac{\epsilon_r(\vec{k})}{\sqrt{V}} e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)} \quad 21$$

with $\omega = kc$, $\vec{k} \cdot \vec{\epsilon}_r(\vec{k}) = 0$, and $\quad 22$

$$\vec{k} = \frac{2\pi}{L} (m_1, m_2, m_3) \quad 23$$

where $m_1, m_2, m_3 = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ $\quad 24$

The two vectors $\vec{\epsilon}_r(\vec{k})$ are \perp to each other and to \vec{k}

$$\epsilon_r(\vec{k}) \cdot \epsilon_s(\vec{k}) = \delta_{rs} \quad 25$$

$$\vec{k} \cdot \vec{\epsilon}_r(\vec{k}) = 0. \quad 26$$

These are the polarization vectors.

We now expand $\vec{A}(\vec{x}, t)$ as a Fourier series

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}, t) = \sum_{\vec{k}} \sum_{r=1}^2 \left(\frac{\hbar}{2 \epsilon_0 V \omega_{\vec{k}}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\vec{E}_r(\vec{k}) a_r(\vec{k}, t) e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} + \vec{E}_r^*(\vec{k}) a_r^\dagger(\vec{k}, t) e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \right]. \quad (27)$$

Often we use real polarization vectors \vec{E}_r to represent linearly polarized fields.

For $\vec{A}(\vec{x}, t)$ to satisfy the wave equation (10)

$$0 = \square \vec{A} = \Delta \vec{A} - \frac{\ddot{\vec{A}}}{c^2} \quad (28)$$

we need

$$-\hbar^2 a_r(\vec{k}, t) - \frac{\ddot{a}_r(\vec{k}, t)}{c^2} = 0 \quad (29)$$

or

$$\ddot{a}_r(\vec{k}, t) = -(kc)^2 a_r(\vec{k}, t). \quad (30)$$

Thus

$$a_r(\vec{k}, t) = a_r(\vec{k}) e^{-i\omega_{\vec{k}} t} \quad (31)$$

with

$$\omega_{\vec{k}} = kc, \quad k = |\vec{k}|, \quad (32)$$

The hamiltonian for \vec{E} and \vec{B} is

$$H_{\text{OF}} = \int d^3x \left(\frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \vec{E}(\vec{x}, t)^2 + \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \vec{B}(\vec{x}, t)^2 \right). \quad (33)$$

If we substitute (27) for $\vec{A}(\vec{x}, t)$ into (33) and use

$$\vec{E} = -\dot{\vec{A}} \quad \& \quad \vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A} \quad (34)$$

then after some churning we find

$$H_{\text{OF}} = \sum_{\vec{k}} \sum_{r=1}^2 \hbar \omega_k \left[a_r^\dagger(\vec{k}) a_r(\vec{k}) + \frac{1}{2} \right] \quad (36)$$

by using the commutation relations

$$[a_n(\vec{k}), a_{n'}(\vec{k}')] = \delta_{\vec{k}, \vec{k}'} \delta_{n, n'} \quad (37)$$

and

$$[a_n(\vec{k}), a_{n'}(\vec{k}')] = 0, \quad (39)$$

which implies that

$$[a_r^\dagger(\vec{k}), a_{n'}(\vec{k}')] = 0, \quad (40)$$

The hamiltonian for a particle of charge q and mass m in a field $(\phi/c, \vec{A})$ is

$$H_M = \frac{1}{2m} [\vec{p} - q\vec{A}(\vec{x}, 0)]^2 + q\phi(\vec{x}, 0) \quad (40)$$

If the particle has spin $\frac{1}{2}$, then we add to H the term $-g/m \vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}(\vec{x}, 0)$ with $\vec{S} = \hbar \vec{\sigma}/2$.

The scalar potential $\phi(\vec{x}, 0)$ is fixed by (8), and so for an electron about a proton

$$H_M = H_{0M} + V$$

where

$$H_{0M} = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{q^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\vec{x}|} = \frac{p^2}{2m} - \frac{\alpha \hbar c}{|\vec{x}|} \quad (41)$$

in which $\alpha = e^2/\hbar c \approx 1/137$ is the fine-structure constant and V is

$$V = -\frac{q}{m} \vec{A}(\vec{x}, 0) \cdot \vec{p} + \frac{q^2}{2m} \vec{A}(\vec{x}, 0)^2 \quad (43)$$

Note that in the Coulomb gauge $\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = 0$ and so

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{p} = \vec{p} \cdot \vec{A} \quad (44)$$

We will use

$$V = -\frac{q}{m} \vec{A}(\vec{x}, 0) \cdot \vec{p} \quad (45)$$

to approximate the transition

$$|i, n_r(k)\rangle \rightarrow |f, n_r(k)-1\rangle. \quad (46)$$

With H_{0f} given by (36) and H_{0m} by (41), the operator

$$V_I(t) = e^{i(H_{0m} + H_{0f})t/\hbar} V e^{-i(H_{0m} + H_{0f})t/\hbar} \quad (47)$$

is hard to compute, but we only need it between the states of the transition (46) which are eigenstates of $H_{0m} + H_{0f}$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle f, n_r(k)-1 | V_I(t) | i, n_r(k) \rangle \\ &= e^{i(E_f + \hbar\omega(n-1))t/\hbar} \langle f, n_r(k)-1 | V | i, n_r(k) \rangle e^{-i(E_i + \hbar\omega n)t/\hbar} \\ &= e^{i(E_f - E_i - \hbar\omega)t/\hbar} \langle f, n_r(k)-1 | V | i, n_r(k) \rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (48)$$

Now the field $\vec{A}(\vec{x}, 0)$ is linear in $a_n(k)$, and

$$\langle n_r(k)-1 | a_n(k) | n_r(k) \rangle = \sqrt{n_r(k)}. \quad (49)$$

So by using the Fourier series (27) for $\vec{A}(\vec{x}, 0)$, we get

$$\langle f, m_n(\hbar) | V | i, m_n(\hbar) \rangle = \left(\frac{\hbar}{2 \epsilon_0 V \omega_k} \right)^{1/2} \sqrt{m_n(\hbar)} \left(-\frac{q}{m} \right) \times \langle f | e^{i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \vec{\epsilon}_n(\hbar) \cdot \vec{p} | i \rangle. \quad (50)$$

The amplitude then is

$$\langle f, m-1 | S(t, 0) | i, m \rangle = -\frac{q}{m} \sqrt{m} \left(\frac{\hbar}{2 \epsilon_0 V \omega_k} \right)^{1/2} \int_0^t e^{i(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) t'/\hbar} dt' \times \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar} \right) \langle f | e^{i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \vec{\epsilon}_n(\hbar) \cdot \vec{p} | i \rangle. \quad (51)$$

$$= \frac{i}{\hbar} \frac{q}{m} \left(\frac{\hbar}{2 \epsilon_0 V \omega_k} \right)^{1/2} \sqrt{m} \langle f | e^{i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \vec{\epsilon}_n(\hbar) \cdot \vec{p} | i \rangle \times \frac{e^{i(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) t/\hbar} - 1}{i(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega)/\hbar}. \quad (52)$$

$$= \frac{q}{m} \left(\frac{\hbar m}{2 \epsilon_0 V \omega_k} \right)^{1/2} \langle f | e^{i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \vec{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{p} | i \rangle \frac{e^{i(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) t/\hbar} - 1}{E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega}. \quad 53$$

The probability then is

$$P(t) = \frac{q^2}{m^2} \frac{t m}{2 \epsilon_0 V \omega k} \left| \langle f | e^{i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \cdot \mathbf{p} | i \rangle \right|^2 \frac{4 \sin^2 \left[(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) t / 2 \hbar \right]}{(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega)^2} \quad (54)$$

Now since

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin^2 (E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) t / 2 \hbar}{(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega)^2} = \frac{\pi t}{2 \hbar} \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) \quad (55)$$

$P(t)$ is

$$P(t) = \pi t \frac{q^2}{m^2} \frac{m}{\epsilon_0 V \omega k} \left| \langle f | e^{i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \cdot \mathbf{p} | i \rangle \right|^2 \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) \quad (56)$$

and so the transition rate w is

$$\hat{w} = \frac{dP}{dt} = \pi \frac{q^2}{m^2} \frac{m}{\epsilon_0 V \omega k} \left| \langle f | e^{i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \cdot \mathbf{p} | i \rangle \right|^2 \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) \quad (57)$$

Now $q^2 = \alpha \hbar c 4 \pi \epsilon_0$, where $\alpha = e^2 / \hbar c$, so

$$\hat{w} = \frac{4 \pi^2 \alpha \hbar c m}{m^2 V \omega k} \left| \langle f | e^{i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \cdot \mathbf{p} | i \rangle \right|^2 \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) \quad (58)$$

Now by (41) $[\hat{x}_j, H_{\text{em}}] = [\hat{x}_j, \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m}] = \sum_{ij} [x_i, p_j] \frac{p_j}{2m} + \frac{p_j}{2m} [x_i, p_j]$

$$= \frac{i \hbar}{m} p_i \quad (59)$$

So
$$[\vec{x}, H_{0m}] = \frac{i\hbar}{m} \vec{p}. \tag{60}$$

Using this commutator as a formula for \vec{p} in (58), we find

$$\hat{W} = \frac{4\pi^2 \alpha^2 \hbar^2 c n_r}{m^2 V \omega_{lc}} \langle f | e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} [\vec{E} \cdot \vec{x}, H_{0m}] \frac{m}{i\hbar} | i \rangle |^2 \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar\omega) \tag{61}$$

At optical frequencies $\lambda \approx 500 \text{ nm}$ whereas in atomic hydrogen

$$\langle n\ell m | r | n\ell m \rangle = \frac{a_0}{2} [3n^2 - \ell(\ell+1)]. \tag{62}$$

So
$$\langle (k \cdot x) \rangle \sim \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \frac{3a_0 n^2}{2} \tag{63}$$

$$\sim \frac{10900 n^2}{\lambda} \sim \frac{55 n^2}{500} \sim \frac{n^2}{1000}. \tag{64}$$

This estimate is the basis of the "dipole approximation" in which the exponential $\exp(i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x})$ is expanded in powers of $k \cdot x$

$$e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} = 1 + i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} + \frac{1}{2}(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x})^2 + \frac{(i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x})^3}{3!} + \dots \tag{65}$$

and only the term 1 is kept.

In this dipole approximation, Eq. (61) gives

$$\hat{W} = \frac{4\pi^2 \alpha c m_n}{\hbar V \omega_k} |\langle f | \vec{E} \cdot \vec{x} | Hom \rangle |^2 \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) \quad (66)$$

in which the matrix element is

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f | \vec{E} \cdot \vec{x} | Hom \rangle &= \langle f | Hom \vec{E} \cdot \vec{x} | i \rangle \\ &= (E_i - E_f) \langle f | \vec{x} | i \rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (67)$$

Thus apart from an integration over ω and a summation over final states

$$\hat{W} = \frac{4\pi^2 \alpha c m_n}{\hbar V \omega_k} (E_f - E_i)^2 |\langle f | \vec{x} | i \rangle|^2 \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) \quad (68)$$

which involves the dipole moment

$$\vec{D}_{fi} = q \langle f | \vec{x} | i \rangle \quad (69)$$

of the atom.

Because of the δ -function in (68) \hat{W} also is

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{W} &= \frac{4\pi^2 \alpha c m_n}{\hbar V \omega_k} (\hbar \omega_{fi})^2 |\langle f | \vec{x} | i \rangle|^2 \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega) \\ &= \frac{4\pi^2 \alpha \hbar c m_n \omega_{fi}}{V} |\langle f | \vec{x} | i \rangle|^2 \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega). \end{aligned} \quad (70)$$

If $\epsilon_n(u) = \hat{z}$, then since

$$\vec{\epsilon}_n(u) \cdot \vec{x} = z \quad (70a)$$

which commutes with L_z

$$[z, L_z] = 0 \quad (70b)$$

It follows that $m_f = m_i$. (71)

But if $\epsilon_n(u) = \hat{x}$ or \hat{y} , then since \hat{x} and \hat{y} are linear combinations of Y_1^1 and Y_1^{-1} (A.5.7), m must change by ± 1

$$m_f = m_i \pm 1. \quad (72)$$

Also, since under reflections $\vec{x} \rightarrow -\vec{x}$, the parity must also change; so if l_i is odd, then l_f is even, and vice versa.

Further, since \vec{x} is a linear combination of Y_1^m 's, it behaves as an $l=1$ object. So since parity rules out $l_f = l_i$, we have the rule

$$l_f = l_i \pm 1. \quad (73)$$

These selection rules apply to atomic hydrogen treated non-relativistically, but similar

selection rules apply more generally.

Let us consider

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \langle i | [E, x, [E, x, H_0]] | i \rangle \\
 &= \langle i | E \cdot x (E \cdot x H_0 - H_0 E \cdot x) - (E \cdot x H_0 - H_0 E \cdot x) E \cdot x | i \rangle \\
 &= 2E_i \langle i | (E \cdot x)^2 | i \rangle - 2 \langle i | E \cdot x H_0 E \cdot x | i \rangle \\
 &= \sum_n \left[2E_i \langle i | E \cdot x | n \rangle \langle n | E \cdot x | i \rangle - 2E_n \langle i | E \cdot x | n \rangle \langle n | E \cdot x | i \rangle \right] \\
 &= 2 \sum_n (E_i - E_n) |\langle i | E \cdot x | n \rangle|^2. \tag{74}
 \end{aligned}$$

So if $|i\rangle = |0\rangle$ is the ground state — $|1,0,0\rangle$ for the hydrogen atom — then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \omega d\omega &= \int \hat{\omega} \rho(E_f) dE_f d\omega_k \\
 &= \int_f \sum_n 4\pi^2 \alpha \hbar c n_n \omega_f \frac{1}{V} |\langle f | E_r(\omega) \cdot x | i \rangle|^2 \\
 &\quad \delta(E_f - E_i - \hbar \omega_k) d\hbar \omega_k \frac{1}{\hbar} \tag{75}
 \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\int w dw = \sum_f 4\pi^2 \alpha c m_r (\hbar)^2 W_f i \frac{1}{V} |\langle f | \mathbf{E}_r(\mathbf{h}\nu) \cdot \mathbf{x} | i \rangle|^2 \quad 76$$

But

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \sum_f (E_i - E_f) |\langle f | \mathbf{E}_r(\mathbf{h}\nu) \cdot \mathbf{x} | i \rangle|^2 \\ = \langle i | [\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{x}, [\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{x}, H_0]] | i \rangle \end{aligned} \quad 77$$

and

$$[\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{x}, H_0] = \frac{i\hbar}{m} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{p} \quad 78$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{x}, [\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{x}, H_0]] &= \frac{i\hbar}{m} [\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{p}] \\ &= \frac{i\hbar}{m} \epsilon_i \epsilon_j [\mathbf{x}_i, p_j] = \frac{i\hbar}{m} \epsilon_i \epsilon_j i\hbar \delta_{ij} \\ &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{m} \epsilon_i^2 = -\frac{\hbar^2}{m} \end{aligned} \quad 79$$

So

$$2 \sum_f (E_f - E_i) |\langle f | \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{x} | i \rangle|^2 = \frac{\hbar^2}{m} \quad 80$$

or

$$\sum_f \frac{2m W_f i}{\hbar} |\langle f | \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{x} | i \rangle|^2 = 1 \quad 81$$

This is the Thomas-Reiche-Kuhn sum rule.

So the rate w integrated over ω is

$$\int w d\omega = \frac{2\pi^2 \alpha^2 \hbar^2 c^3 m^3}{m V}$$

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Physicists usually divide rates by the incident flux F which is the density of incoming particles times their speed. Here

$$F = \frac{nc}{V}$$

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So

$$\int \sigma(\omega) d\omega = \frac{2\pi^2 \alpha^2 \hbar^2 c^3 m^3}{m V} \frac{1}{\frac{nc}{V}}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi^2 \alpha^2 \hbar}{mc}$$

$$= 2\pi^2 \left(\frac{\hbar}{mc} \right)^2$$

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is the absorption x-section $\sigma(\omega)$ integrated over $d\omega$.