PC IV: MOLECULAR SPECTROSCOPY /

Molekülspektroskopie

Prof. Oleg Vasyutinskii and Prof. Karl-Heinz Gericke

Summer Semester: from April 2, 2009 till July 10, 2009

Lectures: Thursday 8:00 – 9:30 (PK11.2) Friday 11:30 – 12:15 (PK11.2) Exercises: Friday 12:15 – 13:00 (PK11.2)

What is Spectroscopy?

The study of molecular structure and dynamics through the absorption, emission, and scattering of light

URL Internet Skript

Vorlesung:	http://www.pci.tu-bs.de/aggericke/PC4
Englisch:	http://www.pci.tu-bs.de/aggericke/PC4e/
Download:	http://www.pci.tu-bs.de/aggericke/PC4e/download/
Exercises:	http://www.pci.tu-bs.de/aggericke/PC4e/exercises/

List of References

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•Haken / Wolf, "Molekülphysik und Quantenchemie", Springer, ISBN: 3-540-5

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•R. McWeeny, "Coulsons Chemische Bindung", S.Hirtzel-Verlag Stuttgart, ISBN: 3-7776-0383-x

•B. Webster, "Chemical Bonding Theory", Bleckwell Scientific Publications, ISBN: 0-632-01619-1 (-01621-3)

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Spectrum of Electromagnetic Waves



Electromagnetic Spectrum

Type of Radiation	Frequency Range (Hz)	Wavelength Range	Type of Transition
gamma-rays	10 ²⁰ -10 ²⁴	<1 pm	nuclear
X-rays	10 ¹⁷ -10 ²⁰	1 nm-1 pm	inner electron
ultraviolet	10 ¹⁵ -10 ¹⁷	400 nm-1 nm	outer electron
visible	4-7.5x10 ¹⁴	750 nm-400 nm	outer electron
near-infrared	1x10 ¹⁴ -4x10 ¹⁴	2.5 µm-750 nm	outer electron molecular vibrations
infrared	10 ¹³ -10 ¹⁴	25 µm-2.5 µm	molecular vibrations
microwaves	3x10 ¹¹ -10 ¹³	1 mm-25 µm	molecular rotations, electron spin flips, EPR
radio waves	<3x10 ¹¹	>1 mm	nuclear spin flips, NMR

Electromagnetic Radiation



Light Polarization



Unpolarized light



Linearly polarized light



Circularly polarized light

Linear Polarization

Circular Polarization



A plane electromagnetic wave is said to be linearly polarized. The transverse electric field wave is accompanied by a magnetic field wave as illustrated. Circularly polarized light consists of two perpendicular electromagnetic plane waves of equal amplitude and 90° difference in phase. The light illustrated is right- circularly polarized.

How to produce polarized light ?

1. Reflection from a surface, or refraction through a plate



$$\boldsymbol{q}_{B} = \arctan\left(\frac{n_{2}}{n_{1}}\right)$$

Brewster's angle:

where n_1 and n_2 are refraction indices

For the pair air $(n_1=1) - \text{glass} (n_2=1,5)$ for visible light $\theta_B \approx 56^{\circ}$. Stack of glass plates can be used as a polarizer for transmitted light.

2. Dichroic polaroids (thin films)

3. Crystal polarizers (Glan Prism)



Optical transitions occurring due to the radiation-matter interaction

The integration absorption coefficient

Transitions





Einstein Coefficients



Albert Einstein

* 14. März 1879 in Ulm, Württemberg + 18. April 1955 in Princeton, New Jersey, USA Nobel Prize 1921 für Photoeffekt





He developed the Theory of Photoeffect, the Theory of Light Absorption my Matter, the Special Relativistic Theory, and the General Ralativistic Theory.



Albert Einstein

Lambert-Beer Law

Transmittance of the sample::

$$T = I / I_0 \qquad T = e^{-sN/} = e^{-\alpha},$$

where s [cm²] is an absorption cross section, N[cm⁻³] is a concentration, and /[cm] is a sample length.

The form which widely used in laboratory practice:

$$T = 10^{-ec/},$$

where $e [L \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}]$ is the extinction coefficient and $c [\text{mol} L^{-1}]$ is the molar concentration:

$$C = \frac{Number of molecules}{N_A V} = \frac{N}{N_A}$$

 N_A is Avogadro number, $N_A = 6.022 \ 10^{-23} \ mol^{-1}$

Low Optical Density Approximation

In case if the exponent factor a = s N / is small compared to unity, a<< 1, the exponential function can be expanded over a. Keeping in this expansion only first two terms one comes to the important for practice particular case called low optical density of the sample:

Integrating the cross section s = s(n) over the light frequency n within the absorption peak, one obtains the integrated cross section < s(n) >:

$$\langle \boldsymbol{s} \rangle = \int \boldsymbol{s}(\boldsymbol{n}) d\boldsymbol{n} = B_{12} \frac{h\boldsymbol{n}_0}{c}$$

where B_{12} is the Einstein absorption coefficient and n_0 is the center of the molecular absorption line. Thus, the Einstein coefficient B_{12} can be directly determined from experiment.

Spectral Line Shape

Uncertainty relation for energy:



Two main processes which are responsible to the finite lifetime of excited states:

1. Spontaneous decay which is proportional to the corresponding Einstein coefficient A_{nm} . The intensity of the spontaneous decay is proportional to the square of the matrix element of the interaction of the molecule with <u>electromagnetic modes of vacuum</u>.

2. Interaction between the molecular quantum states and other particles and fields. In the <u>gas phase</u>, this interaction is mostly <u>inelastic collisions with surrounding particles</u>. In the <u>condensed matter</u> there can be interaction <u>with phonons</u> (vibration of the surrounding lattice).

The corresponding line has the Lorentz shape:

$$I(n) = \frac{1}{p} \frac{\frac{g}{2}}{(v - v_0)^2 + (\frac{g}{2})^2}$$

where
$$\gamma = 1/_{2\pi\tau}$$
 is the decay rate

and
$$\Delta v_{L} = \gamma$$

Homogeneous (Lorentz) Broadening

	Condition	Δn_L (Hz)	$\Delta n_L^{} (\text{cm}^{-1})$
Natural lifetimes	Gas phase, electronic transitions	~ 10 ⁷	~ 10 ⁻⁴
Natural lifetimes	Gas phase, rotational transitions	~10 ⁻⁴	~ 10 ⁻¹⁵
Collisional lifetimes	Gas, atmospheric pressure	~ 10 ⁹	~ 10 ⁻²
Collisional lifetimes	Liquid, electronic transitions	~ 10 ¹²	~ 10 ¹

Inhomogeneous Broadening

The Doppler effect results in the shift of the light frequency when a light source is moving toward or away (+/-) from an observer. When the source emits radiation with a frequency n_0 and moves with a velocity v, the observer detects the light frequency:

$$\boldsymbol{n} = \boldsymbol{n}_0 \left(1 \pm \frac{\mathbf{v}_Z}{c} \right)$$

Molecules in a gas move chaotically in all directions. In case of thermal equilibrium, the distribution of the molecular velocities along the line of detection (z axis) is known as the (1-dimensional) Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution:

$$f(\mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{Z}}) = \sqrt{\frac{m}{2p\,kT}} \exp\left[-\frac{m\,\mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{Z}}^2}{2kT}\right]$$

The observer detects the corresponding Doppler-broadened spectral line profile:

$$I(n) = \sqrt{\frac{4\ln 2}{p}} \frac{1}{\Delta n_D} \exp\left[-4\ln 2\frac{(n-n_0)^2}{\Delta n_D^2}\right] \quad \text{where} \quad \Delta n_D = \frac{2n_0}{c} \sqrt{\frac{2\ln 2kT}{m}}$$

For transitions which belong to the visible or near-UV spectral range the Doppler width is typically within one GHz at temperature around 300 K. For this spectral range the Doppler line broadening is usually much larger than the lifetime (Lorentz-type) broadening.



Experiment with particles





de Broglie: a Particle is a Wave



Louis Victor Pierre Raymond duc de Broglie * 15. Aug. 1892 in Dieppe, France + 19. März 1987 in Paris, France

Nobelpreis 1929

De Broglie's Dissertation "Recherches sur la théorie des quanta" in 1924 at the firts time gave a relationship between a particle mass m, its velocity v, and the corresponding wavelength l :

Wavelength: $l = h/_{mv}$





$$\phi = A e^{-i\omega t + ikx}$$

w=
$$2\pi E/h$$
: Frequency
 $\mathbf{k} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{p}{h}$: Wavevector

Probability to detect the particle
$$\begin{split} \mathbf{I} &= |\phi|^2 \\ \mathbf{f} &= \mathbf{f_1} + \mathbf{f_2} \\ \mathbf{I} &= |\mathbf{f_1} + \mathbf{f_2}|^2 \end{split}$$

 $I = I_1 + I_2 + 2(I_1 I_2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cos D\phi$

where $\Delta \phi$ is the phase difference

The Schrödinger Equation

Time-independent Schrödinger Equation:

 $\left[-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2m}d^{2}/dx^{2} + V(x)\right] y(x) = E y(x)$ (1 dimension)

 $\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta + V(x,y,z)\right] y(x,y,z) = E y(x,y,z)$ (3 dimensions)

where D is the Laplace operator: D = $\frac{12}{3x^2} + \frac{12}{3y^2} + \frac{12}{3x^2}$

Time-dependent Schrödinger Equation:

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \int_{\mathbb{T}^2} |\mathbf{x}|^2 + \nabla \right] \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{t}) = i\hbar \int_{\mathbb{T}^2} |\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{t})|^2 \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{t})$$

Normalization of the wave function:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |y(x,y,z)|^2 \, dx \, dy \, dz = 1$$

Calculation of the Probability Amplitude (Wavefunction)

Matrix algebra
 Werner Heisenberg
 Nobelpreis 1932

* 5. Dez. 1901 + 1. Feb. 1976



2) Differential equation, DGL Erwin Schrödinger Nobelpreis 1933

- * 12. Aug. 1887 in Erdberg, Wien
- + 4. Jan. 1961 in Wien

3) Trajectory integrals
 Richard Feynman;
 Nobelpreis 1965

* 11. Mai 1918 in Far Rockaway, New York + 15. Feb. 1988 in Los Angeles

There are three mathematically equivalent ways for calculating the probability amplitude:







 R_{nl} are Associated Laguerre Polynomials and Y_{lm} are Spherical Harmonics

Hydrogen Atom Wavefunctions: Radial Part



Spherical Harmonics *I* **= 0**, **1**, **2**, **3**, **4**

$Y_{i,m}(\theta, \phi) = P_i^m(\cos \theta) \cdot f_m(\phi) \qquad f_m(j) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)} \frac{1}{2} e^{im\phi}$					
Electron	Ι	m	Υ _{<i>l</i>,m} (θ, φ)	Y _{<i>l</i>,m} ²	
S	0	0	$1/(4\pi)^{1/2}$	1/ _{4 π}	
р	1	±1 0	$\mp ({}^{3}\!/_{8\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \theta e^{\pm i\phi} \ ({}^{3}\!/_{4\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \cos \theta$	$3/8 \pi \sin^2 \theta$ $3/4 \pi \cos^2 \theta$	
d	2 2 2	±2 ±1 0	$ \begin{array}{c} ({}^{15}\!/_{32\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin^2 \theta \mathrm{e}^{\pm 2\mathrm{i}\phi} \\ \mp ({}^{15}\!/_{8\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \theta \cos \theta \mathrm{e}^{\pm \mathrm{i}\phi} \\ ({}^{5}\!/_{16\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} (3\cos^2 \theta \text{-1}) \end{array} $	$ \frac{{}^{15}\!/_{32\pi}}{{}^{5}\!/_{8\pi}} \sin^{2}\theta \cos^{2}\theta \\ \frac{{}^{15}\!/_{8\pi}}{{}^{5}\!/_{16\pi}}(3\cos^{2}\theta - 1)^{2} $	
f	3 3 3 3	±3 ±2 ±1 0	$ \begin{array}{c} \mp ({}^{35}\!/_{64\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin^3 \theta e^{\pm 3i} \phi \\ ({}^{105}\!/_{32\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin^2 \theta \cos \theta e^{\pm 2i\phi} \\ \mp ({}^{21}\!/_{64\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \theta (5 \cos^2 \theta - 1) e^{\pm i\phi} \\ ({}^{7}\!/_{16\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} (5 \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta) \end{array} $	$\frac{35}{_{64 \pi}} \sin^{6} \theta$ $\frac{105}{_{32 \pi}} \sin^{4} \theta \cos^{2} \theta$ $\frac{21}{_{64 \pi}} \sin^{2} \theta (5 \cos^{2} \theta - 1)^{2}$ $\frac{7}{_{16 \pi}} (5 \cos^{3} \theta - 3 \cos \theta)$	
g	4 4 4 4 4	+4 +3 +2 +1 0	$ \begin{array}{c} ({}^{315}\!/_{512\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin^4 \theta e^{\pm i4\phi} \\ \mp ({}^{315}\!/_{64\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin^3 \theta \cos \theta e^{\pm 3i\phi} \\ ({}^{225}\!/_{660\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin^2 \theta (7 \cos^2 \theta - 1) e^{\pm 2i\phi} \\ \mp ({}^{225}\!/_{320\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \theta (7 \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta) e^{\pm i\phi} \\ ({}^{9}\!/_{256\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} (35 \cos^4 \theta - 30 \cos^2 \theta + 3) \end{array} $	$\frac{315}{_{512 \pi}} \sin^{8} \theta}{\frac{315}{_{64 \pi}} \sin^{6} \theta \cos^{2} \theta}{\frac{225}{_{660 \pi}} \sin^{4} \theta (7 \cos^{3} \theta - 1)^{2}}{\frac{225}{_{320 \pi}} \sin^{2} \theta (7 \cos^{3} \theta - 3 \cos \theta)^{2}}{\frac{9}{_{256 \pi}} (35 \cos^{4} \theta - 30 \cos^{2} \theta + 3)^{2}}$	

Real wave functions (linear combinations)

1	m,	Wave Functions
0	0	$S = \frac{1}{(4p)}\frac{1}{2}$
	0	$p_z = Y_{10} = (3/_{4\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \cos\theta$
1	1	$p_{x} = -1/\sqrt{2} (Y_{11} - Y_{1-1}) = (3/4\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin\theta \cos f$
	1	$p_y = i/_{\sqrt{2}} (Y_{11} + Y_{1-1}) = (3/_{4\pi})^{1/2} \sin\theta \sin f$
2	0	$d_{3z^{2}-r^{2}} = Y_{20} = (5/_{16\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} (3 \cos^{2}\theta - 1)$
		$d_{xz} = -1/\sqrt{2} (Y_{21} - Y_{2-1}) = (15/4\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin\theta \cos\theta \cos f$
	1	$d_{yz} = i/_{\sqrt{2}} (Y_{21} + Y_{2-1}) = (15/_{4\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} sin\theta cos\theta sinf$
	2	$d_{x^{2}-y^{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (Y_{22} + Y_{2-2}) = (\frac{15}{16\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin^{2}\theta \cos^{2}f$
		$d_{xy} = -i/_{\sqrt{2}} (Y_{22} - Y_{2-2}) = (15/_{16\pi})^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin^2\theta \sin^2\theta$

Hydrogen Atom Wavefunctions: Angular Part



Niels Henrik David Bohr



* 7. Okt. 1885 in Kopenhagen,+ 18. Nov. 1962 in Kopenhagen



Nobelpreis 1965

Hydrogen Atom Energy Levels



$$E_{nl} = -\frac{1}{4pe_0} \frac{e^2}{2a_0 n^2} \qquad n = 1, 2, 3, \mathbf{K}$$

e₀ is the Vacuum permittivity; e₀ = 8.854·10⁻¹² J⁻¹ C² m⁻¹ *e* is the Elementary charge; $e = 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19}$ C \boldsymbol{a}_0 is the Bohr radius; $\boldsymbol{a}_0 = 4 \mathrm{pe}_0 \hbar^2 / \boldsymbol{m}_{\mathrm{e}} e^2 = 5.292 \cdot 10^{-11}$ m

Selection rules for radiative transitions: $l'' - l' = \pm 1$, $m_l'' - m_l' = 0$, ± 1 s'' - s' = 0, $m''_s - m_s' = 0$

Spin-orbital interaction in hydrogen atoms

Electron orbital magnetic moment: $\mu_I = - [I(I+1)]^{1/2} \mu_B$ z-projection: $\mu_{Iz} = - m_I \mu_B$

j = l + sElectron spin magnetic moment: $\mu_s = 2 [s(s+1)]^{1/2} \mu_B$ z-projection: $\mu_{sz} = 2 m_s \mu_B$ $j' = l + \frac{1}{2}$ $\mu_B \text{ is Bohr magneton:}$ $m_B = \frac{e\mathbf{h}}{2m_e} = 9,27 \cdot 10^{-24} A M^2$ $j'' = l - \frac{1}{2}$ $a^2 Z^4 = 1 me^4$

$$\Delta E_{j''j'} = \frac{a^2 Z^4}{n^3 l(l+1)} \frac{1}{2} \frac{me^4}{\mathbf{h}^2}$$

for $\mathbf{n} = 2, 3, 4$ $\Delta E_{j'j'} = 0,36, 0,12, 0,044$ cm⁻¹

 $\alpha \approx {}^{1}\!/{}_{137}$ - fine structure constant

Selection rules for radiative transitions: $j'' - j' = 0, \pm 1, \qquad m_j'' - m_j' = 0, \pm 1$

Spin-orbital interaction in Hydrogen atom

Electron orbital magnetic moment:

$$m_l = -m_B l$$

 $\boldsymbol{j} = \boldsymbol{l} + \boldsymbol{s}$

Electron spin magnetic moment:

$$\boldsymbol{m}_{lZ} = -\boldsymbol{m}_{B}\boldsymbol{m}_{l}$$
$$\boldsymbol{r} \qquad \boldsymbol{r}$$
$$\boldsymbol{m}_{s} = -2\boldsymbol{m}_{B}\boldsymbol{s}$$

z-projection:

z-projection:

$$m_{sZ} = -2m_Bm_s$$

where
$$\mu_{\rm B}$$
 is the Bohr magneton:

$$m_{B} = \frac{e\mathbf{h}}{2m_{e}} = 9,27 \cdot 10^{-24} \frac{J}{T}$$

For $\mathbf{n} = 2, 3$ II 4 $\Delta E_{j'j'} = 0,36, 0,12, 0,044$ cm⁻¹

$$\Delta E_{j''j'} = \frac{a^2 Z^4}{n^3 l(l+1)} \frac{1}{2} \frac{me^4}{\mathbf{h}^2}$$

$$\alpha \approx \frac{1}{137} - \text{ fine structure constant}$$

Selection rules for radiative transitions:
$$j'' - j' = 0, \pm 1, \qquad m_j'' - m_j' = 0, \pm 1$$

Multi-electron atoms

1. Each electron moves in the field of **atomic nucleous** and all **other electrons**. This field is named the **Self-Consistent Field**. The Self-Consistent field is spherically symmetric, however it is not a **Coulomb field**. The corresponding Schrödinger equation cannot be solved analytically. Approximate wave functions and atomic energy levels for each electron can be obtained by computing the set of Hartree-Fock differential equations.

2. The obtained one-electron energy levels depend on the quantum numbers $n \parallel l$. These energy levels are filled by all electrons which form the electron configuration of an atom. The filling of the energy levels if performed following the **Pauli Principle**:

Two electrons cannot simultaneously occupy the state with the same quantum numbers

Therefore, each **s**-state (l = 0) can be populated with no more than **two** electrons, each *p*- state (l = 1) can be populated with no more than **six** electrons, each *d*- state (l = 2) can be populated with no more than **ten** electrons and so on.

3. The quantum numbers which describe a quantum state of the whole multielectron atom can be obtained by summation the moments of individual electrons using the quantum mechanical rules:

L – total orbital angular momentum of the atom, M_L – projection of L onto the direction ZS – total electron spin, M_S – projection of S onto the direction ZJ – total electron angular momentum, J = L + S. M_J – projection of J onto the direction Z. $P = (-1)^{\Sigma li} = \pm 1$ – atomic parity.

Wolfgang Ernst Pauli





* 25. April 1900 in Wien + 15. Dez. 1958 in Zürich

Nobelpreis 1945



The nomenclature of the energy levels (terms) in multielectron atoms in the LS approximation.

$2S+1 \tau o$		L = 0	S -state
$L^{s} \cap L^{s}_{J}$	- odd states	L = 1	P -state
		L = 2	D -state
2S+1I	avan statas	S = 0	Singlet state
L_J	- even states	S = 1	Triplet state

Selection rules for radiative transitions in multielectron atoms

L – L'	<i>M</i> _L – <i>M</i> _L ′	S – S'	<i>M</i> _S - <i>M</i> _S '	J – J'	<i>M</i> _J – <i>M</i> _J ′	Р
0, ± 1	0, ± 1	0	0	0, ± 1	0, ± 1	$+ \leftrightarrow -$

 $J+J' \geq 1!$

Physical meaning of the selection rules for the quantum number *M*



In the absence of external fields all *M-s*ublevels at fixed *J*-value are degenerated!

The fine structure of spectral lines

The fine structure is a result of the spin-orbit interaction



 $E_{\rm J} = \frac{1}{2} A \left[J \left(J+1 \right) - S(S+1) - L(L+1) \right] \rightarrow \Delta E_{\rm J, J-1} = A J$

This is the Lande interval rule

The hyperfine structure of spectral lines

The hyperfine structure of spectral lines is a results of interaction between the dipole and quadrupole moments of nuclei with electrons



Lande interval rule

A little-bit of quantum mechanics: Perturbation theory for nondegenerate quantum states

The full Hamiltonian: $H = H_0 + V$, where $H_0 > V$

The exact solution for the non-perturbed quantum problem is known:

 $H_n \psi_n^{(0)} = E^{(0)} \psi_n^{(0)}$ where $\Psi_n^{(0)}$ is the non-perturbed wave function

- The perturbed wave function is presented as an 1. expansion over the unperturbed wave functions
- This expansion is substituted into the Schrödinger 2. equation for the full Hamiltonian
- The obtained expression is multiplied from the left by 3. $Y_{k}^{(0)}(q)$ and integrated over all coordinates q.
- Using the orthogonality of the wave function, we obtain the 4. first approximation correction for the *k* – level energy:

$$E_{k}^{(1)} = \int \mathbf{y}_{k}^{(0)^{*}}(q) V \mathbf{y}_{k}^{(0)}(q) dq = \left\langle \mathbf{y}_{k}^{(0)} \middle| V \middle| \mathbf{y}_{k}^{(0)} \right\rangle$$

We seek for an approximate solution for the full Hamiltonian H:

$$(H_0 + V) \psi = E \psi$$

$$y(q) = \sum_{n} c_{n} Y_{n}^{(0)}(q)$$

The perturbation theory for non-degenerate quantum states: Second-order approximation

5. Substituting the obtained first-order solution again the Schrödinger equation we can get the expression for the second-approximation correction to the k – th level energy:

$$E_{k}^{(2)} = \sum_{m} \frac{\langle k | V | m \rangle \langle m | V | k \rangle}{E_{k} - E_{m}}, \quad m \neq k$$

In general, $E_k = E_k^{(0)} + E_k^{(1)} + E_k^{(2)} + \cdots$

The perturbation theory for degenerate quantum states

The Hamiltonian: $H = H_0 + V$

The exact solution for the non-perturbed wave function is:

 $H_0 \psi_n^{(0)} = E^{(0)} \psi_n^{(0)}$

where $E^{(0)}_{n} = E^{(0)}_{n'}$

We seek for an approximate solution for the full Hamiltonian H:

$$(H_0 + V) \psi = E \psi$$

- 1. The wave function in the zero approximation $\Psi^{(0)}(q)$ is sought as an expansion over the wave functions $\Psi_n^{(0)}(q)$
- 2. This expansion is substituted to the Schrödinger equation $\Psi^{(0)}(q) = \sum_{n} c_n^{(0)} \Psi_n^{(0)}(q)$ for the full Hamiltonian
- 3. The obtained expression is multiplies from the right on $\Psi_{n,0}(q)$ and integrated over all coordinates *q*.
- 4. The solution of the obtained set of algebraic equations gives the energy corrections of the 1st approximation E_n and the expansion coefficients $c^{(0)}_n$.

The perturbation theory for degenerate quantum states

The set of *N* linear equations for determination of the expansion coefficients $c^{(0)}_n$ and the energy corrections E_n

$$\sum_{n'} \left(\left\langle n \left| V \right| n' \right\rangle - \boldsymbol{d}_{n,n'} \boldsymbol{E}_n \right) \boldsymbol{c}_{n'}^{(0)} = \boldsymbol{0}$$

This determinant must be equal to zero which allows for determination of the 1^{st} approximation energy corrections E_n .

The determinant is equivalent to the N^{th} –order algebraic equation on the variable E, which is called Secular Equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} V_{11} - E & V_{12} & \mathbf{L} & V_{1N} \\ V_{21} & V_{22} - E & \mathbf{L} & V_{2N} \\ \mathbf{L} & \mathbf{L} & \mathbf{L} & \mathbf{L} \\ V_{N1} & V_{N2} & \mathbf{L} & V_{NN} - E \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

An atom in an external electric field: Stark effect

$$\mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{E}} = - \mathbf{E} \mathbf{D} = \mathbf{e} \mathbf{E} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{i}} \mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{i}}$$

$$\Delta E_{gJM} = -\mathbf{E} \langle gJM | D_{Z} | gJM \rangle + \mathbf{E}^{2} \sum_{g'J'} \frac{\langle gJM | D_{Z} | g'J'M \rangle \langle g'J'M | D_{Z} | gJM \rangle}{E_{gJ} - E_{g'J'}}$$

$$\mathbf{0} \qquad \Delta E_{\gamma \mathbf{J}\mathbf{M}} = \mathbf{E}^{2} [\mathbf{A}_{\gamma \mathbf{J}} + \mathbf{B}_{\gamma \mathbf{J}} \mathbf{M}^{2}]$$

After applying a homogeneous external electric field, the energy level $| \gamma JM >$ is splitted into the components which refer to the quantum numbers:

$$|\mathbf{M}| = \mathbf{J}, \mathbf{J} - \mathbf{1}, \dots,$$

In case of strong electric field when the Stark shifts are comparable with the initial splitting between the energy levels $|\gamma J >$, $|\gamma' J' >$, the expression for the total energy splitting is written as:

$$\Delta E_{1,2} = \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta}{2}\right)^2 + \mathsf{E}^2 \left| \left\langle g J M \left| D_Z \right| g' J' M \right\rangle \right|^2}$$

Thus, for large fields the initially quadratic Stark effect becomes linear.



Fluorescence polarization due to the Zeeman effect



Observation the fluorescence from the excited state J'=1 to the ground state J''=0 along the magnetic field shows a spectral line consisting of two components (σ^+ and σ^-), Observation along the direction perpendicular to the magnetic field shows a spectral line consisting of three components (σ^+ , σ^- and π).

An atom in an external magnetic field: Zeeman effect

$$\mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{B}} = - \ \mu \ \boldsymbol{B}$$

 $\mu = -\mu_0 g J$, where $m_0 = \frac{e \mathbf{h}}{2 m_e c}$ is the Born magneton, $\mu_0 \approx 9,2732 \times 10^{-24}$ Joule/Tesla $\mu_0 \approx 1,4$ MHz/Gauss,

and \boldsymbol{g} is the gyromagnetic ratio

$$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{B}} = \langle \mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{B}} \rangle = \boldsymbol{g} \,\mu_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \,\boldsymbol{B} \,\boldsymbol{M}$$

Therefore, after applying of an external magnetic field the energy level $|\gamma JM\rangle$ splits into 2J+1 components which refer to the quantum numbers:

 $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{J}, \, \mathbf{J}\text{-}\mathbf{1}, \, \dots, \, \mathbf{-J}$

In case of the LS-coupling
$$g = 1 + \frac{J(J+1) - L(L+1) + S(S+1)}{2J(J+1)}$$

In case of a pure orbital angular momentum (J=L, S=0), g = 1

In case of a pure spin angular momentum (J=S, L=0), g = 2

An atom in an external magnetic field: Zeeman effect

$$\mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{B}} = - \ \mu \ \boldsymbol{B}$$

 $\mu = -\mu_B g J$, where $m_B = \frac{e \mathbf{h}}{2 m_e}$ is the Bohr magneton, $\mu_B \approx 9,2732 \times 10^{-24}$ Joule/Tesla and g is the gyromagnetic ratio

$$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{B}} = \langle \mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{B}} \rangle = \boldsymbol{g} \, \mu_{\boldsymbol{B}} \, \boldsymbol{B} \, \boldsymbol{M}$$

Therefore, after applying of an external magnetic field the energy level $|\gamma JM\rangle$ splits into 2J+1 components which refer to the quantum numbers:

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Fluorescence polarization due to the Zeeman effect



Observation the fluorescence from the excited state J'=1 to the ground state J''=0 along the magnetic field shows a spectral line consisting of two components (σ^+ and σ^-), Observation along the direction perpendicular to the magnetic field shows a spectral line consisting of three components (σ^+ , σ^- and π).

Radiation transitions

Quantization of the electromagnetic field

$$\mathbf{W}_{field} = \mathbf{h} w \left(\mathbf{n}_{kr} + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

According to the Quantum Electrodynamics, the probability of radiation transition can be presented in the form:

$$dW_{em} = \frac{e^2 W}{2p \mathbf{h} c^3 m^2} \left| \left\langle gJM \left| \mathbf{e}_{kr} \mathbf{p} e^{i\mathbf{kr}} \right| g'J'M' \right\rangle \right|^2 (\overline{n}_{kr} + 1) dO$$
$$dW_{ab} = \frac{e^2 W}{2p \mathbf{h} c^3 m^2} \left| \left\langle gJM \left| \mathbf{e}_{kr} \mathbf{p} e^{-i\mathbf{kr}} \right| g'J'M' \right\rangle \right|^2 \overline{n}_{kr} dO$$

Expanding the exponent over the powers of kr, one can obtain particular expressions for multipole radiation. The first term of the expansion (it's 1), $e^{ikr} = 1 + ikr + \cdots$, describes the electric dipole emission and absorption.

Multipole emission and absorption

Electric dipole emission and absorption

$$dW_{DE}^{sp} = \frac{W^{3}}{2p \mathbf{h}c^{3}} |\langle gJM | \mathbf{e}_{kr} \cdot \mathbf{D} | g'J'M' \rangle|^{2} dO$$
$$dW_{DE}^{ind} = \frac{4p^{2}}{\mathbf{h}^{2}c} |\langle gJM | \mathbf{e}_{kr} \cdot \mathbf{D} | g'J'M' \rangle|^{2} I_{w} dO$$
$$\mathbf{D} = e \sum_{i} \mathbf{r}_{i}$$

Selection rules:

$$\Delta J = 0, \pm 1$$

$$\Delta M_J = 0, \pm 1$$

$$\Delta P \neq 0 \quad (+ \leftrightarrow -)$$

Magnetic dipole emission and absorption

$$dW_{DM}^{sp} = \frac{W^{3}}{2p \mathbf{h}c^{3}} |\langle gJM | \mathbf{m}_{kr} \cdot \mathbf{M} | g'J'M' \rangle|^{2} dO$$
$$dW_{DM}^{ind} = \frac{4p^{2}}{\mathbf{h}^{2}c} |\langle gJM | \mathbf{m}_{kr} \cdot \mathbf{M} | g'J'M' \rangle|^{2} I_{w} dO$$
$$\mathbf{M} = -\frac{e\mathbf{h}}{2mc} \sum_{i} (\mathbf{l}_{i} + 2\mathbf{s}_{i})$$

Selection rules:

$$\Delta J = 0, \pm 1$$

$$\Delta M_J = 0, \pm 1$$

$$\Delta P = 0 \ (+ \leftrightarrow + \text{ or } - \leftrightarrow -)$$

A link between theoretical and experimental quantities

Provided only emission, but no other processes like collisions with other particles or internal conversions occur, a measurement of the fluorescence lifetime t directly yields the transition probability A_{mn} which gives you also B_{mn} : $A_{mn} = \frac{8\pi hv^3}{8\pi hv^3}$

$$A_{mn} = \frac{1}{t} \frac{B_{mn}}{c^3}$$

From theory the quantity $R_{mn} R_{mn} = \int \phi_m^* \vec{r} \phi_n dV$ is calculated, which is linked to A_{mn} :

$$A_{mn} = \frac{8\pi^2 e^2}{3\hbar\epsilon_0 c^3} v_{mn}^3 \left| R_{mn} \right|^2$$

Here follows the relation ships between the integrated absorption cross section s_o , the Einstein coefficient B_{mn} , the quantity R_{mn} , and the oscillator strength f:

$$\sigma_{o} = B_{mn} \cdot \frac{h\nu}{c} = \frac{\pi e^{2}\nu}{3\epsilon_{0}hc} \cdot |R_{mn}|^{2} = \frac{e^{2}}{4\epsilon_{0}cm_{e}} \cdot f_{mn}$$

$$B_{mn} = \frac{c}{h\nu} \cdot \sigma_{o} = \frac{e^{2}}{6\epsilon_{0}h^{2}} \cdot |R_{mn}|^{2} = \frac{e^{2}}{4\epsilon_{0}h\nu m_{e}} \cdot f_{mn}$$

$$|R_{mn}|^{2} = \frac{3\epsilon_{0}hc}{\pi e^{2}\nu} \cdot \sigma_{o} = \frac{6\epsilon_{0}h^{2}}{e^{2}} \cdot B_{mn} = \frac{3h}{4\pi\nu m_{e}} \cdot f_{mn}$$

$$f_{mn} = \frac{4\epsilon_{0}cm_{e}}{e^{2}} \cdot \sigma_{o} = \frac{4\epsilon_{0}h\nu m_{e}}{e^{2}} \cdot B_{mn} = \frac{4\pi\nu m_{e}}{3h} \cdot |R_{mn}|^{2}$$