

### Absorption & Stimulated Emission

**a** *absorption*

**b** *spontaneous emission*

**c** *stimulated emission*

$\frac{dN_1}{dt} = N_1 B_{12} \rho(\nu)$       *Absorption*

$\frac{dN_2}{dt} = N_2 B_{21} \rho(\nu)$       *Stimulated emission*

$\frac{dN_2}{dt} = N_2 A_{21}$       *Spontaneous emission*

### Einstein approach

**Recall;**

$$-\frac{dN_2}{dt} = W_{21}N_2 + A_{21}N_2 = B_{21}\rho(\nu)N_2 + A_{21}N_2$$

$$-\frac{dN_1}{dt} = W_{12}N_1 = B_{12}\rho(\nu)N_1$$

**At thermal equilibrium;  $dN_2/dt = dN_1/dt$**

$$\therefore [B_{21}\rho(\nu) + A_{21}]N_2^e = B_{12}\rho(\nu)N_1^e \quad ; \quad \frac{N_2^e}{N_1^e} = e^{-h\nu/KT}$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho(\nu) = \frac{N_2 A_{21}}{N_1 B_{12} - N_2 B_{21}} = \frac{A_{21}/B_{21}}{\left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right) \frac{B_{12}}{B_{21}} - 1}$$

$$\rho(\nu) = \frac{A_{21}/B_{21}}{\frac{B_{12}}{B_{21}} e^{h\nu/KT} - 1}$$

Compare this expression with the Planck blackbody radiation law;

$$\rho(\nu) = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}$$

We get ;

$$\begin{aligned} B_{12} &= B_{21} \\ \frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}} &= \frac{8\pi h n^3 \nu^3}{c^3} \end{aligned}$$

These results are due to Einstein (1917) so  $A$  and  $B$  are called the *Einstein coefficients*

Notes:

- $B_{21} = B_{12}$  so the stimulated absorption & emission rates per atom are equal – as expected from the form of the electric dipole transition matrix element. (This can be obtained by demanding  $\rho(\nu) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $T \rightarrow \infty$ )
- $A_{21}/B_{21} \propto \nu^3$ , so the spontaneous emission rate increases as the cube of the energy  $h\nu$ . (R-J law at high temp. limit)
- The ratio of probabilities of spontaneous to stimulated emission is  $\frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}\rho(\nu)} = \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}$
- so if  $h\nu \gg kT$  spontaneous emission is much more likely than stimulated emission. But if  $h\nu \ll kT$  then stimulated emission is much more likely – this is the secret of the maser, which is *microwave amplification by stimulated emission of radiation*.

*If we know B, we can get A and  $\tau_{sp} = 1/A$*

*How do we relate Einstein coefficients to atomic parameters?*

➤ *We need Q.M.*

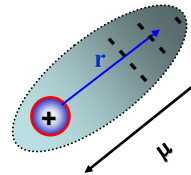
**ELECTRIC DIPOLE MOMENT**

In what way, light (quanta) and atoms interact?

Predominantly through electric dipole orientation in field

$$\begin{aligned} H'(r,t) &= e\vec{r} \cdot \vec{E}(\vec{r},t) \equiv -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{E}(r,t) \\ &= \vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{E}_o \sin \omega t \end{aligned}$$

$$H''_o = \vec{E}_o \cdot \vec{\mu}_{21} \quad , \quad \vec{\mu}_{21} = -e \int u_2^*(r) \vec{r} u_1(r) dV$$



The electric dipole matrix element  $\mu_{21}$  may be evaluated once the wave function of the atoms are known

## Parity Selection Rule

Atom has spherical symmetry;  $H_o(\vec{r}) = H_o(-\vec{r})$

The eigen-function (wave function) would be either symmetric or anti-symmetric, we say the eigen-function has a well-defined parity.

One dimensional example;

$$\mu_{21} = -e \int u_2(x) x u_1(x) dx = 0 \quad \text{If } u_1 \text{ and } u_2 \text{ have the same parity}$$

either both ODD or both EVEN

$$u_n(\vec{r}) = u_n(-\vec{r}) \quad \Rightarrow \text{even parity}$$

$$u_n(\vec{r}) = -u_n(-\vec{r}) \quad \Rightarrow \text{odd parity}$$

$$\mu_{21} = -e \int u_2(x) x u_1(x) dx \neq 0 \quad \text{If } u_1 \text{ and } u_2 \text{ have different parity}$$

Thus , electric dipole transitions only occur between states of opposite parity, e.g. (1s)→(2p)

Lets calculate  $W_{12}$

$$W_{12} = \frac{\pi |H'_{21}|^2}{2\hbar^2} \delta(\Delta\omega)$$

$$|H'_{21}|^2 = |E_o \cdot \mu_{21}|^2 = E_o^2 |\mu_{21}|^2 \cos^2 \theta$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\vec{E}_o$  and  $\vec{\mu}$

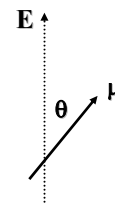
For randomly oriented atoms, the average  $|H'_{21}|^2$  is

$$\langle |H'_{21}|^2 \rangle = E_o^2 |\mu_{21}|^2 \langle \cos^2 \theta \rangle$$

We average  $\cos^2 \theta$  from  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$

$$\langle \cos^2 \theta \rangle = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int \cos^2 \theta d\Omega = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\langle |H'_{21}|^2 \rangle = E_o^2 |\mu_{21}|^2 \langle \cos^2 \theta \rangle = \frac{1}{3} E_o^2 |\mu_{21}|^2$$



## Induced transition rate

$$W_{12} = \frac{\pi E_0^2 |\mu_{21}|^2}{6 \hbar^2} \delta(\Delta\omega)$$

$$\therefore I = \frac{n \epsilon_0 c_0}{2} E_0^2$$

$$I = \frac{c}{n} \rho$$

$$\therefore W_{12} = \frac{\pi}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 c_0 \hbar^2} |\mu_{21}|^2 I \delta(\Delta\omega) = \frac{\pi}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 \hbar^2} |\mu_{21}|^2 \rho \delta(\Delta\omega) = W_{21}$$

Or;

$$\text{since } \mu_{12} = \mu_{21}^* \Rightarrow |\mu_{12}| = |\mu_{21}|$$

$$W_{12} = \frac{2\pi^2}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 \hbar^2} |\mu_{21}|^2 \rho \delta(\Delta\nu)$$

The presence of  $\delta(\nu - \nu_0)$  implies the atomic system would not respond to off resonance ( $\nu \neq \nu_0$ ) radiation, which is of course not realistic.

## Einstein coefficients

If the radiation is not monochromatic, but due to blackbody  
We can replace  $\rho$  by  $\rho_\omega d\omega$  and integrate over  $d\omega$ . We get;

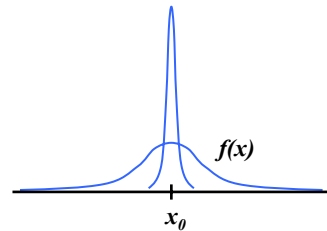
$$W = \frac{\pi}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 \hbar^2} |\mu|^2 \int_0^\infty \rho_\omega \delta(\omega - \omega_0) d\omega \quad \text{using } \int_0^\infty f(x) \delta(x - x_0) = f(x_0)$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 \hbar^2} |\mu|^2 \rho_{\omega_0} \equiv B \rho_{\omega_0}$$

$$\therefore B = \frac{2\pi^2}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 \hbar^2} |\mu|^2$$

$$\therefore \frac{A}{B} = \frac{8\pi h \nu_0^3 n^3}{c^3}$$

$$A = \frac{1}{\tau_{sp}} = \frac{16\pi^3 \nu_0^3 n |\mu|^2}{3h \epsilon_0 c^3}$$



## Numerical

$$A = \frac{16\pi^3 \nu_o^3 n |\mu|^2}{3h\epsilon_o c^3} \approx 2.83 \times 10^{46} \frac{|\mu|^2}{\lambda^3} = \frac{I}{\tau_{sp}}$$

We took  $n \approx 1$ , let  $\lambda = 500 \text{ nm}$  and  $\mu = e a = (1.6 \times 10^{-19}) (10^{-10}) = 1.6 \times 10^{-29} \text{ C.m}$   
Where  $a$  is the radius of atom.

$$A = 5.8 \times 10^7 \text{ sec}^{-1} \Rightarrow \tau_{sp} = 1.72 \times 10^{-8} \text{ sec}$$

## Transition rates; monochromatic radiation and atomic collision

If an atom is permitted to interact with sinusoidal wave for a long time ( $t \rightarrow \infty$ ),  $W \propto \delta(\Delta\nu)$ . In practice, an atom will change state by emission (spontaneous) or by collision with other atoms before  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . The sinusoidal wave would look quite different (which phase interrupted).

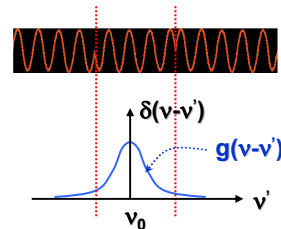
The monochromatic radiation becomes a narrow band radiation with a spectral distribution.

$$I_{\nu'} d\nu' = I g(\nu - \nu') d\nu'$$

Where  $g(\nu - \nu')$  is the normalized line shape function;

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\nu - \nu') d\nu' = 1$$

The detailed functional shape of  $g(\nu - \nu')$  depends on the nature of collision process.



For finite  $t$ , the system will respond to off resonance radiation.

Since any atomic system must decay one way or another (radiative, non-radiative, etc...) one must replace  $\delta$  by line-shape functions which provide for finite response for off-resonance radiation.

So,  $\delta(\nu - \nu_0) = g(\nu - \nu_0)$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore W_{12} &= \frac{2\pi^2}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 h^2} |\mu_{21}|^2 \int I g(\nu - \nu') \delta(\nu' - \nu_0) d\nu' \\ &= \frac{2\pi^2}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 c_0 h^2} |\mu_{21}|^2 I g(\Delta\nu) \quad ; \quad \Delta\nu = \nu - \nu_0 \\ &= \frac{2\pi^2}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 h^2} |\mu_{21}|^2 \rho g(\Delta\nu) \end{aligned}$$

since  $\mu_{12} = \mu_{21}^* \Rightarrow |\mu_{12}| = |\mu_{21}|$

$$\therefore W_{12} = \frac{2\pi^2}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 h^2} |\mu_{21}|^2 \rho g(\Delta\nu) = W_{21}$$

We can also write  $W$  in terms of spectral coefficient  $B$ , i.e.  $B_\nu$  (Einstein coefficient per unit freq).

$$W = \frac{2\pi^2}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 h^2} |\mu|^2 \rho g(\Delta\nu) \equiv B_\nu \rho$$

$$\therefore B_\nu = \frac{2\pi^2}{3n^2 \epsilon_0 h^2} |\mu|^2 g(\Delta\nu) = B g(\Delta\nu)$$

Consider thermal equilibrium in every spectral range, we have;

$$\frac{A_\nu}{B_\nu} = \frac{A}{B} = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3 n^3}{c_0^3}$$

$$\Rightarrow A_\nu = A g(\Delta\nu) \quad , \quad B_\nu = B g(\Delta\nu)$$

$$\int_0^\infty A_\nu d\nu = A \int_0^\infty g(\Delta\nu) d\nu = A$$

Therefore  $g(\Delta\nu)$  is the spectrum of (spontaneously) radiated wave, and of the absorption and stimulated emission as well (for simple two-level system).

$g(\Delta\nu)d\nu$  gives the probability that spontaneously emitted photons has a frequency lying between  $\nu$  and  $\nu+d\nu$

### **Cause of Spontaneous Emission**

Remember , Planck has to treat the normal modes of the cavity quantum mechanically, i.e. quantizing radiation as well. The allowed energy of a mode then behaves as a harmonic oscillator;

- The energy cannot change continuously, but rather change by jumps of  $h\nu$ .
- The lowest energy level is not 0 but  $(h\nu/2)$ . This energy  $(h\nu/2)$ , which is the energy possessed by the mode at  $T=0$  K, is called zero-point energy. Or , zero-point fluctuation energy.

**It is this zero-point energy that stimulates the spontaneous emission of atoms.**

The full quantum theory will show that the radiation life time of the upper state  $\tau_{sp}$  is same as the  $A$  derived by Einstein-Planck.

$$A = \frac{16\pi^3 \nu_o^3 n |\mu|^2}{3h\epsilon_o c^3} = \frac{1}{\tau_{sp}}$$