

Introduction to Lasers II

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LA³NET School



- Introduction to atomic physics for laser spectroscopy,
- Natural linewidth and line broadening
- Isotope shifts and nuclear properties
- Hyperfine structures and nuclear moments
- Laser spectroscopy techniques for radioacitve atoms
- Laser frequency-doubling with non-linear crystals
- Magneto-optical atom traps

(Ionization schemes - will be covered by Bruce Marsh tomorrow)

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Energy scales and units used

Wavelength, λ : SI unit = m [or μ m, nm or Angström, 1 Å = 10⁻¹⁰ m]

 λ is dependent on the (refractive index of the) medium in which the wave travels

Frequency, v: SI unit = Hz (i.e., cycles s⁻¹) [or MHz = 10⁶ Hz, GHz = 10⁹ Hz] frequency is *independent* of the medium

Energy, E: SI unit = J,

BUT : It is hard to measure energy directly. Spectra are recorded as line intensities as a function of frequency or wavelength.

The conversion to energy *appears* simple: $\mathbf{E} = hv = hc/\lambda$

But h is only known to 8 significant figures. Hence, it is convenient to introduce

Wavenumber, a property defined as reciprocal of the vacuum wavelength: and whose units are universally quoted as cm⁻¹ (*n.b.* not m⁻¹)

 $\overline{\nu} = \frac{1}{\lambda_{vac}}$

Wavenumber is directly proportional to energy, $E = hc\overline{v}$ and thus we commonly quote "energies" in units of cm⁻¹.



Properties of Photons



Light is electromagnetic radiation. It is composed of individual "photons" which carry an energy proportional to their frequency

Properties of the photon:

Wavelength: λ Frequency: v

Speed of light: $c = 2.998 \times 10^8$ m/sec

Relation: $c = \lambda v$

Energy: E = hv (and alternatively $E = hc/\lambda$)

Momentum P = $\hbar k$ where k = $2\pi/\lambda$

Spin = +1 (σ +) or -1 (σ -) in direction of propagation





Absorption and emission spectra



Examples of emission and absorption spectra in the visible region for vapours of two different elements:







Emission spectra for light elements



Oxygen Sulfur

Resonant absorption, spontaneous emission



Natural linewidth

 $\Delta v = 1/2\pi\tau$ (Heisenberg uncert.)

~ 16 MHz

single–mode CW laser bandwidth < 1MHz

Natural linewidth has Lorentzian shape:



Line broadening

Power Broadening



The population of an excited state is determined by the *excitation rate* (proportional to laser intensity), the *spontaneous decay* rate (determined by the natural lifetime) and the *stimulated emission* rate.

Atoms in sample:

$$N_0 = N_1 + N_u$$

As laser intensity is increased, the fraction in the upper atomic state saturates to 50% - this limits the spontaneous decay rate



Power Broadening

The saturation intensity I_{sat} is that for which the stimulated emission rate is equal to the spontaneous emission rate



Laser detuning from resonance

Main problem in laser spectroscopy:





Pressure broadening (or density broadening)

Atomic collisions in vapours or buffer gases interrupt the phase of the wavefunction - this broadens the energy of the state according to the Heisenberg uncertainty principle:

> $\Delta v = 1 / (2\pi \cdot \text{collision time})$ ~ typically 10 MHz / Torr of gas

(In addition there is a pressure shift of the transition)

This is homogeneous broadening, giving a Lorentzian lineshape. The convolution with Doppler broadening results in a Voigt profile.



the atoms in the velocity distribution



Isotope shifts and nuclear properties



Laser-fluorescence of an atomic vapour (of ytterbium)



Isotope shift of an atomic transition



The Volume Shift is directly proportional to the change in nuclear mean square charge radius, $\delta < r^2 > .$ Analysis of the shift provides information on the nuclear size and shape – even for short-lived (radioactive nuclei):

$$\begin{split} \delta \langle r^2 \rangle &= \delta \langle r^2 \rangle_{\rm sph} + \langle r^2 \rangle_{\rm sph} \frac{5}{4\pi} \delta \langle \beta_2^2 \rangle \\ & \text{volume} \end{split}$$

deformation

But, first, this requires the mass shift to be evaluated...

Mass Shift

Kinetic energy (nucleus + electrons)
$$T = \frac{P_n^2}{2M_n} + \sum_i \frac{p_i^2}{2m_e}$$

But in centre of mass frame

$$\mathbf{P_n} = -\sum_i \mathbf{p_i}$$

Thus nucleus kinetic energy is

$$T_{nuc} = \frac{1}{2M_n} \sum_i \mathbf{p_i^2} + \frac{1}{2M_n} \sum_{i \neq j} (\mathbf{p_i}.\mathbf{p_j})$$

Energy change between two isotopes A, A'

 $(m_u = \text{atomic mass unit})$

$$\delta\nu_{MS}^{A,A'} = \left(N+S\right)\left(\frac{A-A'}{AA'}\right). \qquad N = \frac{m_e}{m_u}\nu_0$$

S must be evaluated by experiment or calculation – often difficult to do well

The volume shift



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Isotope shifts in atomic transitions





Heavy elements: useful results can be obtained from Doppler-broadened spectra Light and medium mass elements: Doppler-free methods of laser spectroscopy



(B. Cheal & K.T. Flanagan J. Phys. G 37 (2010) 113101)



Factors controlling the nuclear mean square charge radius



Mean square charge radii



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Hyperfine structure and nuclear moments



Hyperfine structure of an atomic transition

The nuclear magnetic dipole and electric quadrupole moments cause small perturbations to the energy of an atomic level, producing a hyperfine structure.

The magnitude of this structure is comparable to the (ppm) size of the isotope shifts.



 μ = magnetic dipole moment

 Q_s = spectroscopic quadrupole moment (projection of intrinsic moment Q_0 on the quantization axis)

Hyperfine Interactions in free atoms

Hyperfine interaction = the interaction of nuclear magnetic and electric moments with electromagnetic fields.



The interaction energy depends on the angle ϑ thus for the same I andJ, the different F-states are at slightly different energies:Magnetic dipole interactionE = - μ B_e cos θ E = - μ B_e cos θ

Magnetic dipole interaction

$$\mathbf{E} = -\boldsymbol{\mu} \cdot \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{e}} = -\boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{e}} \cos \theta$$

Since
$$\mu = g \mathbf{I} \mu_N$$
 and $\mathbf{B}_e = -(\frac{B_e}{J}) \mathbf{J}$
then interaction Hamiltonian can be
expressed as $H_m = (\frac{g B_e \mu_N}{J}) \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{J} = A \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{J}$

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The different energy shifts of the different F-states are then $\Delta E = \langle IJF \mid H_m \mid IJF \rangle = A \langle I.J \rangle$

where
$$\langle \mathbf{I}.\mathbf{J} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \langle F^2 - I^2 - J^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} [F(F+1) - I(I+1) - J(J+1)]$$

 B_e , the magnetic field at the nucleus produced by the atomic electrons can be calibrated by measuring the energy shifts for a isotope of known magnetic moment.

Electric quadrupole interaction

$$E = \frac{1}{4} e Q_0 V_{JJ} P_2(\cos \theta) \quad [\text{compare } E = -\mu . B = -\mu B P_1(\cos \theta)]$$

Electric field gradient along J-direction due to atomic electrons.

-9 + 7



Energy shifts of the F-states are then

$$\Delta E_Q = \frac{B}{4} \frac{\frac{3}{2}C(C+1) - 2I(I+1)J(J+1)}{I(2I-1)J(2J-1)}$$

where
$$C = [F(F+1) - I(I+1) - J(J+1)]$$

$$B = eQ_s \langle \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial Z^2} \rangle = eQ_s V_{JJ}$$
 is the hyperfine factor measured by experiment.

The electric field gradient V_{JJ} may be calibrated with an isotope with know Q_s

Electric quadrupole interaction

In a uniform electric field the energy of an electric quadrupole moment is independent of angle and therefore there is no quadrupole interaction



There is an angle-dependence in an electric field gradient and thus different Fstate have different energies



Summary of atomic structure (example uses J=1 and I = 3/2)









Laser spectroscopy of radioactive atoms

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Laser spectroscopy of optical transitions in radioactive atoms can:

- Confirm existence of an exotic nuclide or isomer
- Determine the valence proton and neutron orbitals and configurations (via the nuclear spin and magnetic moment)
- Determine the size and shape (static and dynamic) of the nucleus
- Provide pure nuclide sample for low-background nuclear spectroscopy (to measure half-lives, decay modes, etc)





THE CERN Site



Large Hadron Collider

Super proton synchrotron

Proton synchrotron

Geneva Airport



Standard method: Collinear-beams laser spectroscopy



Signal (laser on resonance) = 1 photon detected per 1,000 ions in beam

Background (laser light scatter) = 200 photons / second

Low-flux beams (10,000 ions / sec): background must be suppressed to see signal.

Helium-filled radio-frequency trap

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Frequency Doubling

A technique to produce narrow-bandwidth, tuneable light in the UV region (200 nm – 400 nm)

Also called Second Harmonic Generation (SHG)



Some crystals have a non-linear response (polarisability) to an applied electric field (in this case, the electric field of a laser beam)

$$\frac{P}{\epsilon_o} = \chi^{(1)}\xi + \chi^{(2)}\xi^2 + \chi^{(3)}\xi^3 + \cdots,$$

P is the electric dipole moment per unit volume. χ is the polarizability or the electric susceptibility. ξ is the electric field.

The laser electric field has a cos (ωt) time dependence.

Since $2\cos^2(\omega t) = 1 + \cos(2\omega t)$

then a component of the re-radiated light is at exactly twice the fundamental frequency.

This light can sum coherently through the crystal if the frequency-doubled light has the same phase velocity as the fundamental beam.

Birefringence

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The refractive index of the material depends on the light polarization and the direction of propagation in the crystal.

Ordinary ray has its electric vector perpendicular to the optic axis and its refractive index is the same for all directions of propagation.

Extraordinary ray has a component of its electric vector along the optic axis and its refractive index varies with direction of propagation.



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Phase velocity of light in a negative uniaxial crystal





 $\lambda(\mu m)$

Property	α -Lithium Iodate	β -Barium Borate
Transmissivity $>90\%$	500 - 5000 nm	190 - 3500 nm
Nonlinear Coefficients	$d_{31} = 11.9$	$d_{11} = 5.8$
relative to KDP	$d_{33} = 12.4$	$d_{31}, d_{22} < 0.05 \times d_{11}$
d_{eff} at 600nm	~ 11	~ 3
Optical homogeneity Δn	$10^{-5} - 10^{-6} cm^{-1}$	$10^{-6} cm^{-1}$
Damage threshold	$60 MW. cm^{-2}$	$1 GW.cm^{-2}$

Intra-cavity frequency doubling



(Spectra Physics 380 single-mode ring laser cavity)

External cavity doubling



External temperature controlled etalon for short term drifts
 Wavelength was monitored with wavemeter (acc ~ 3MHz)



Four-mirror external cavity



Coherent's Monolithic Block Doubler

Cd isotopes – Deyan Yordanov

430 nm

35 mW output maintained over 5 hours

860 nm



215 nm







The magneto-optical trap (MOT or Zeeman trap)

An atom trap needs:

- A velocity-dependent force to provide damping of the atoms' motions
- A position-dependent force to confine atoms

Laser can provide both







If atom velocity = 0 it (weakly) absorbs photons from both beams (no net force)

If atom velocity = + 30 m/s it absorbs photons from laser B (Doppler shift: $(1 + v/c) v_{laser} = v_0$)

Atom repeatedly absorbs (and emits in all directions) photons which slows it down until it is back to zero velocity







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- Trapping works in 3-dimensions
- Laser spectroscopy possible with single atom sensitivity
- But it needs a cycling transition that does not pump out

Laser polarization in collinear beams geometry

CRIS method: synchronize ion bunch with laser pulse

- Measure ion rate as function of laser frequency to find resonance
- Works well with even low repetition rate lasers 10 Hz.

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Collinear Resonance Ionisation Spectroscopy CRIS@ISOLDE

If the wrong value of I is used to fit the hyperfine structure then:

- May be impossible to fit structure (position or number of peaks)
- Deduced ratio A_{upper} /A_{lower} is wrong

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Deduced relative peak intensities are wrong (Racah coefficients)