

Time-Dependent Perturbation Theory

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- The problem + formal solution

1) System has Hamiltonian $H = H_0 + H_1(t)$, where H_0 is time-indep. as usual and we know stationary states. Simple setup:

1) For $t < 0$, $H_1(t) = 0$. 2) H_1 "turns on" at $t = 0$.

3) H_1 "turns off" at $t = T$ ($H_1(t > T) = 0$).

• If we start in some stationary state $|\psi_1^0\rangle$, of H_0 at $t = 0$; + what is the state at some later time (say $t = T$)?

+ Another way to phrase it: what is the probability that the system can be measured in a different stationary state $|\psi_2^0\rangle$ at $t = T$? (What is the probability of a transition?)

• You never get transitions between stationary states except with time-dependence in H . This is how excited states decay, etc.

• Eigenstates of H_0 form a basis, so the full state is

$$|\Phi(t)\rangle = \sum_j |c_j(t)\rangle e^{-iE_j^0 t/\hbar} |\psi_j^0\rangle \quad \text{time-dep from } H_0 \text{ only}$$

with + normalization $\sum_j |c_j(t)|^2 = 1$

and typical initial conditions $c_n(0) = 1, c_{j \neq n}(0) = 0$

ie. start in state $|\Phi(t=0)\rangle = |\psi_n^0\rangle$

• The Schrödinger eqn $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} |\Phi\rangle = H |\Phi\rangle$ becomes

$$\sum_j \left(i\hbar \dot{c}_j - c_j (H_{jj}) \right) |\psi_j^0\rangle e^{-iE_j^0 t/\hbar} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{c}_m = \frac{i}{\hbar} \sum_n \langle \psi_m^0 | H_1 | \psi_n^0 \rangle c_n e^{-i(E_m^0 - E_n^0)t/\hbar} \quad \text{after inner product.}$$

So far, this is exact.

• First-order Perturbation Theory

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+ $C_n(t) = 1 + \dot{C}_n(t)$, $C_{n \neq \bar{n}}(t) = \dot{C}_n(t) \leftarrow$ ie, 1st order.

+ Then (*) becomes (b/c H_1 is 1st order, plug in C_n^0 to RHS)

$$\dot{C}_n(t) = \frac{-i}{\hbar} \langle \psi_n^0 | H_1 | \psi_n^0 \rangle \cdot 1$$

$$\dot{C}_{n \neq \bar{n}}(t) = \frac{-i}{\hbar} \langle \psi_n^0 | H_1 | \psi_n^0 \rangle e^{-i(E_n^0 - E_n^0)t/\hbar}$$

+ The solution is

$$C_n(t) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \int_0^t dt \langle \psi_n^0 | H_1(t) | \psi_n^0 \rangle$$

(work out normalization)

$$C_{n \neq \bar{n}}(t) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_0^t dt' \langle \psi_n^0 | H_1(t') | \psi_n^0 \rangle e^{-i(E_n^0 - E_n^0)t'/\hbar}$$

for $t \in T$

- Periodic (aka Sinusoidal) Perturbations

• As a very important example, take $H_1(t) = V_1 e^{-i\omega t} + V_2 e^{+i\omega t}$, $V_i = \text{const. op.}$

This could take the form $H_1 \propto \sin \omega t$ or $\cos \omega t$ or \dots
 $H_1 = V \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e^{+i\omega t} \\ e^{-i\omega t} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, etc. However, at linear order, we can take only one complex exponential at a time in the amplitude.

• Also, consider only 2 states $n=1, 2$ with $\bar{n}=1$.

+ Assume $\langle 1 | V | 1 \rangle = \langle 2 | V | 2 \rangle = 0$, $\langle 2 | V | 1 \rangle = \langle 1 | V | 2 \rangle^* = V_{21}$

+ Define $\hbar \omega_0 = E_2^0 - E_1^0$. Defines a "natural" frequency

• Solution:

$$C_1(t) = 1, \quad C_2(t) = \frac{V_{21}}{\hbar} \frac{e^{i(\omega_0 - \omega)t} - 1}{\omega_0 - \omega}$$

+ Can become large when $\omega \approx \omega_0$. (when is this valid?)

+ The $e^{+i\omega t}$ term does the same with $\omega_0 - \omega \rightarrow \omega_0 + \omega$, $V_{21} \rightarrow V_{12}$

This is large when $\omega \approx -\omega_0$, so we ignore it near $\omega \approx \omega_0$

+ You also get a factor of $\frac{1}{2}$ if you use the sine or cosine form (or else redefine V_{12} as in the text)

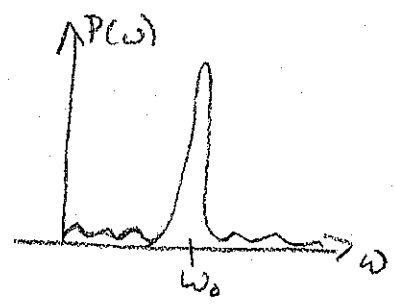
• What does this mean?

+ Transition Probability: the probability of measuring state 2

is $P = |\langle 2 | \Psi(t) \rangle|^2 = |c_2(t)|^2$ by our usual rules

+ For our sinusoidal perturbation,

$$P = \frac{4|V_{21}|^2}{\hbar^2} \frac{\sin^2[(\omega_0 - \omega)t/2]}{(\omega_0 - \omega)^2}$$



1) Oscillates in time.

2) Peaks at $\omega = \omega_0$, peak is higher at larger t

+ Key Point: At long times, transitions only happen for

$E_2^0 - E_1^0 = \pm \hbar \omega_0 = \pm \hbar \omega$ ← perturbation carries energy
Will return on HW. for transition

- Application to EM radiation. (Griffiths' discussion only heuristic)

• Recall that interaction with EM field is by Hamiltonian

$$H = \frac{(\vec{p} - q\vec{A})^2}{2m} + q\Phi$$

+ Imagine $H_0 = p^2/2m + q\Phi_0$, $\Phi_0 =$ electrostatic potential

+ Then $H_1 = \frac{q}{2m} (\vec{p} \cdot \vec{A} + \vec{A} \cdot \vec{p}) + \frac{q^2}{2m} \vec{A}^2 + q\Phi_1$, $A, \Phi_1 = 1^{st}$ order

• An EM wave can be described by

$$\Phi_1 = 0, \nabla \cdot \vec{A} = 0, (\Rightarrow \vec{p} \cdot \vec{A} = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{p} = 0), \vec{A} = \vec{A}_0 e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)} + c.c.$$

+ If $|q\vec{A}_0| \ll$ 0th order energies, $H_1 \approx \frac{q}{m} \vec{A}_0 \cdot \vec{p} e^{-i\omega t}$

we assume long wavelength so $\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} \approx 0$

• Now we can figure out transition probabilities using results from above.

• Many applications: photoelectric effect, lasers, etc

Also relates to full quantum theory of F + M, ...