

Select/Special Topics in Atomic Physics
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Lecture - 38
Stark - Zeeman Spectroscopy

Greetings, we will look at the spectrum of the hydrogen atom or any alkali atom anything in the first group of the periodic table, they all have similar spectra in some respect of course, they are different in the details. But there are several common features and when we examine in the spectrum of the hydrogen atom, it does set up the procedures which we most employ in interpreting the spectra of the bigger atoms.

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$\Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field}$ requires $\langle \alpha j m_j | S_z | \alpha j m_j \rangle$
 for $\vec{S} = \vec{V}$: $\hbar^2 j(j+1) \langle \alpha j m | \vec{V} | \alpha j m \rangle = \langle \alpha j m | (\vec{V} \cdot \vec{J}) \vec{J} | \alpha j m \rangle$
 $\hbar^2 j(j+1) \langle \alpha j m | \vec{S} | \alpha j m \rangle = \langle \alpha j m | (\vec{S} \cdot \vec{J}) \vec{J} | \alpha j m \rangle$
 $\hbar^2 j(j+1) \langle \alpha j m_j | S_z | \alpha j m_j \rangle = \langle \alpha j m_j | (\vec{S} \cdot \vec{J}) J_z | \alpha j m_j \rangle$
 $= m_j \hbar \langle \alpha j m_j | (\vec{S} \cdot \vec{J}) | \alpha j m_j \rangle = m_j \hbar \langle \alpha j m_j | \left(\frac{J^2 - L^2 + S^2}{2} \right) | \alpha j m_j \rangle$
 $= m_j \hbar \times \hbar^2 \frac{[j(j+1) - l(l+1) + s(s+1)]}{2}$
 $\langle \alpha j m_j | S_z | \alpha j m_j \rangle = m_j \hbar \times \frac{[j(j+1) - l(l+1) + s(s+1)]}{2j(j+1)}$
 $\Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = \mu_B B m_j + \frac{\mu_B}{\hbar} B \langle \ell s j m_j | S_z | \ell s j m_j \rangle$

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So, we consider the strong field effect in the p-orbitals should be back effect and then our active consideration now is on the study of the weak field Zeeman effect. And at these magnitudes of the applied magnetic field, the spin-orbit interaction is the dominant interaction, because the magnetic field the applied field is weak. So, the internal effects take over and j and m are the good quantum numbers and not m_l and m_s , like these states or not eigen states of L_z and S_z , but they are eigen states of J^2 and J_z . So, that is what let us to determine the perturbative correction to the original unperturbed energy, at this correction requires us to determine the matrix element of S_z .

Now, the difficulty here was that the quantum states that you are considering or eigen states

of j^2 and j_z and not of s_z , so that is the reason we had to find some mechanism to get this matrix element. And we found using two alternative procedures, one based on vector identities for vector operators, these are operators for which are irreducible tensor operators of rank 1. So, we use those identities and the other procedure which we followed was based on Wigner-Eckart theorem.

And using both the procedures, we are lead to relationship which gives us the matrix element of an arbitrary vector operator, no matter what it is, and you get it in term of $\mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{J}$ and J . And if this happens to be our S operator the spin operator, then we can use it and applied for this case, so we have S equal to \mathbf{V} in our case, so now we get $\hbar^2 j(j+1)$. And here this matrix element, is the matrix element of the spin angular momentum S , and this is equal to the matrix element of the operator at there is the scalar part which is the $S \cdot \mathbf{j}$, and there is the vector which is the angular momentum itself.

So, this is the $S \cdot \mathbf{J}$ operator, so now this part we can write this relation for each component, because this is vector relation and there are corresponding relations for all the three components S_x and y and S_z or of you can write it for the spherical components as well. And now the relationship for the z component, is that you take the z element of this operator on the right side $S \cdot \mathbf{J}$ is a scalar, so it remains as it is and you have the J_z operator, and what comes out of this part is the J_z operates on j_m and you will get m times \hbar .

So, that is a big advantage here, you get m times \hbar coming out of the operation by J_z and this $S \cdot \mathbf{J}$ can again be written in terms of operators, whose eigen states are already involved in the bases set. Because, the operator $S \cdot \mathbf{J}$ is nothing but J^2 minus L^2 plus S^2 , because $\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{S}$ is what gives you \mathbf{J} , so $S \cdot \mathbf{J}$ turns out to be J^2 minus L^2 plus S^2 , so all you do is to take the square of $\mathbf{S} + \mathbf{L}$ equal to \mathbf{J} .

So, dot out $\mathbf{S} + \mathbf{L}$ with $\mathbf{S} + \mathbf{L}$, and this is exactly what you will get, so you have the operator $S \cdot \mathbf{J}$ whose matrix element now you need, this is given by a some of three operators J^2 minus L^2 plus S^2 by 2. But, now this state is an eigen state of this operators, so what are the eigen values. So, you get $\hbar^2 j(j+1)$ minus $\hbar^2 l(l+1)$ plus $\hbar^2 s(s+1)$ coming from here, and s into $s+1$ coming from here, so you get numbers of the right side now, and you are able to solve this expression.

And this matrix element which is the matrix element for S_z is now obtained completely in

terms of these quantum numbers, and you can write it for this matrix element which is what you need. So, you take you cancel ((Refer Time: 05:55)) this \hbar cross square with this \hbar cross square, move this j into j plus 1 to the right it come in the denominator. And this is the result that we will looking for, this is preciously the term that you needed to get the correction for the weak field Zeeman manufacture, so this is the correction now, this comes along with the other term which was coming from the j term itself. And together with this gives us the correction, the perturbative correction when the magnetic field is weak and the spin orbit interaction and takes over. So, that is the dominating interaction and this is the energy correction that must be applied.

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The slide displays the following equations and definitions:

$$\langle \alpha j m_j | S_z | \alpha j m_j \rangle = m_j \hbar \times \frac{[j(j+1) - l(l+1) + s(s+1)]}{2j(j+1)}$$

$$\Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = \mu_B B m_j + \frac{\mu_B}{\hbar} B \langle \ell s j m_j | S_z | \ell s j m_j \rangle$$

$$\Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = \mu_B B m_j + \frac{\mu_B}{\hbar} B m_j \times \frac{[j(j+1) - l(l+1) + s(s+1)]}{2j(j+1)}$$

$$\Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = \mu_B B m_j \left[1 + \frac{j(j+1) - l(l+1) + s(s+1)}{2j(j+1)} \right]$$

$$\Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = g \mu_B B m_j$$

with $g = \left[1 + \frac{j(j+1) - l(l+1) + s(s+1)}{2j(j+1)} \right]$

Lande's g factor

$$\vec{\mu} = -\mu_B \frac{\vec{L} + 2\vec{S}}{\hbar}$$

$$= -\mu_B g \frac{\vec{J}}{\hbar}$$

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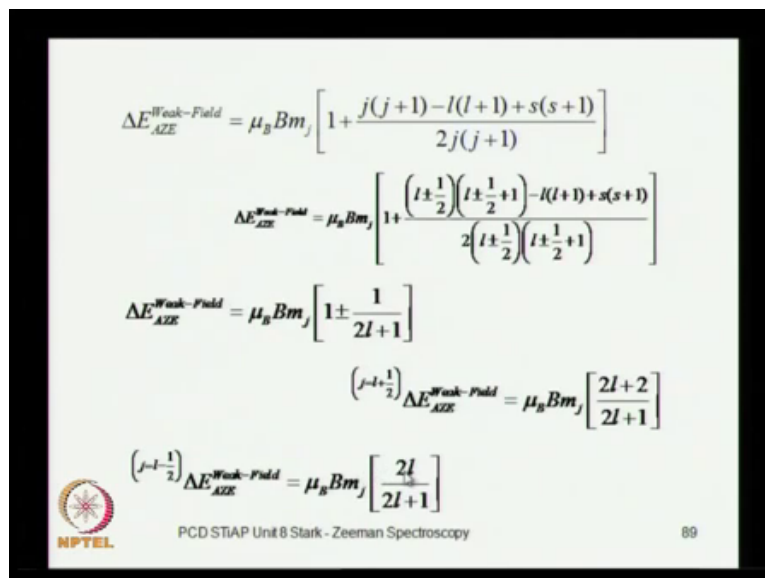
So, this is the expression that we were looking far and we have now been able to resolve it, so this is the energy correction the \hbar cross cancels, and if you combine these two term there is the more magnet on times of magnetic field in both the terms. And m_j in both the terms, so you extract this is the common factor and you have 1 plus j j plus 1 minus l into l plus 1 plus s into s plus 1 divided by 2 j to j plus 1, so there is this is the land is fact exactly. So, this is like g , this take exactly the same place as g did for the case of the orbital angle of momentum and also further spin angular momentum.

Because, there is the corresponding magnetic moment associate with the spin angular momentum, and with the orbital angel of momentum, and this is the effective g coming from the combination. And this is neither equal to 2 nor equal to 1, but it depends on the values of j

and l is always half of course, s for electron is half, so it is half into half plus 1. And this factor is what is called is a Lande's g factor and this is what governs the energy splitting between the perturb levels as the result of the magnetic field, which is applied and treated perturbatively, when it is relatively weak and you can use the j, m_j quantum numbers.

So, which quantum numbers are the appropriate quantum numbers to be use is the dominant consideration here, and once you take the write bases you get the right results, but choose the choices of the bases is the critical factor here. So, this is a very similar expression for just the way we had the magnetic moment, which is proportional to the angle of momentum you got a same kind of consideration, but with the different value of g which is given by the Lande's g factor.

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$$\Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = \mu_B B m_j \left[1 + \frac{j(j+1) - l(l+1) + s(s+1)}{2j(j+1)} \right]$$

$$\Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = \mu_B B m_j \left[1 + \frac{\left(l \pm \frac{1}{2}\right)\left(l \pm \frac{1}{2} + 1\right) - l(l+1) + s(s+1)}{2\left(l \pm \frac{1}{2}\right)\left(l \pm \frac{1}{2} + 1\right)} \right]$$

$$\Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = \mu_B B m_j \left[1 \pm \frac{1}{2l+1} \right]$$

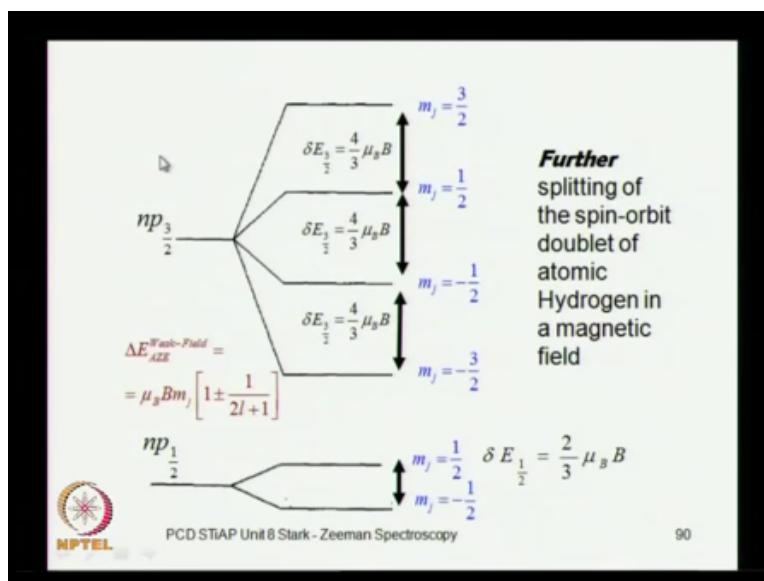
$$\left(j - l - \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = \mu_B B m_j \left[\frac{2l+2}{2l+1} \right]$$

$$\left(j - l - \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta E_{AZE}^{Weak-Field} = \mu_B B m_j \left[\frac{2l}{2l+1} \right]$$

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So, now the spin orbit interaction is s plus 1, so s plus 1 gives you the total angle of momentum j which can be either l plus half or l minus half, so you can put in the values of j the possible values of j which is either l plus half or l minus half, so there are two possibilities here. And for every j you put these two alternative values and you find that the energy correction depends on whether j is l plus half or l minus half, and accordingly the correction is either 1 plus 1 over $2l$ plus 1 or 1 minus $2l$ plus 1 , I have certainly used s equal to one half in the getting this expression. So, when j is l plus half, the correction goes as $2l$ plus 2 over $2l$ plus 1 , when j is l minus half the correction goes as $2l$ over $2l$ plus 1 .

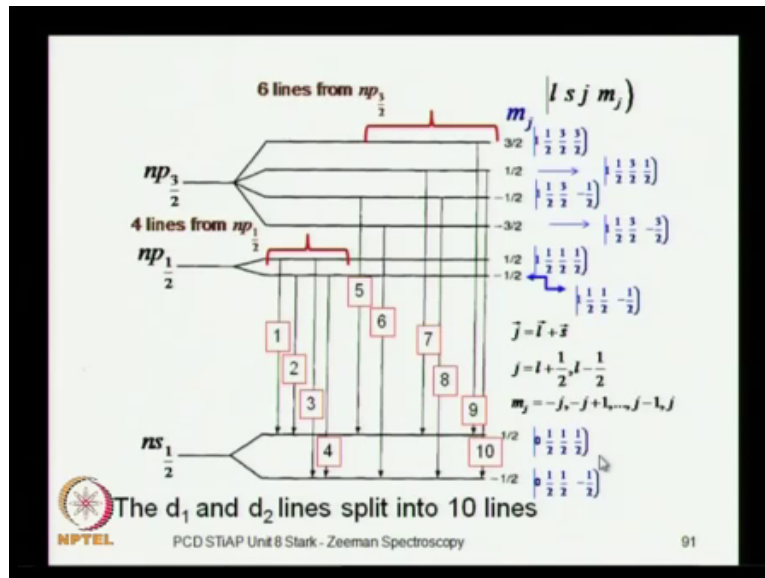
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So, this is the resolution of the energy levels and the application of the magnetic field, if you look at the $n p$ state, this is like the $2 p$ state in the hydrogen atom if you like, or the $3 p$ state in the sodium atom. Or if you take any of the group one elements, the outer electron is the $n s$ 1 and when it gets excited to the $n p$ level. So, these are the levels which are involved in the sodium atom spectrum, the famous $d 1$ to $d 2$ lines of sodium, they come from the transition to from $3 p 3/2$ and $3 p 1/2$ to the $3 s$ level.

But, now the $3 p 3/2$ level will get split into these four levels and the $3 p 1/2$ level get split into these two levels, so you will have the $d 1$, $d 2$ lines split to very many lines, and the same thing will happen to all the alkaline atoms spectrum. So, the rebellion spectrum or transoms or anything in the first group they will have, they will show this features.

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So, this is the resolution of this spectra, so $np_{3/2}$ splits into these four levels, j is equal to $3/2$, so m_j can go from minus $3/2$ to plus $3/2$ in steps of 1 , so minus $3/2$, minus $1/2$, $1/2$ and $3/2$, so these are the four levels into which the $np_{3/2}$ state splits. And the $np_{1/2}$ state splits into these two which correspond to m_j equal to minus $1/2$ and plus $1/2$ and likewise, the $ns_{1/2}$ levels split into these two corresponding to m_j equal to plus $1/2$ and m_j equal to minus $1/2$.

And the d_1 and d_2 lines split into 10 lines, so what were originally only 2 lines, now we will show of 10 lines, so there are 4 lines coming in from $np_{1/2}$ and we are sketching those lines which correspond to the dipole selection rules. So, the lines which are possible under the dipole selection rules, there are 4 lines which come from the $np_{1/2}$ level, but $np_{1/2}$ is no longer a single level they are two of these. So, two come from the upper level corresponding to m_j equal to $1/2$ and two come from the lower level, which corresponds to m_j equal to minus $1/2$.

And likewise the transitions from $np_{3/2}$ split into these 6 lines, and these are the 6 lines which come from the $np_{3/2}$ levels, so these are all the transitions which take place corresponding to the dipole selection rules. Now, the question is, first of all we have to write these quantum states for j, m_j quantum states, in terms of the l, m_l, m_s bases, so these are the j, m_j quantum numbers. So, l is equal to 1 for np , for all the p orbitals l is equal to 1 , s is always $1/2$, j for this state is $3/2$ and m_j for this state is $3/2$, so these are the l, s, j, m_j quantum

numbers for this upper most level.

For the next level the $l s j m j$ quantum numbers are $1 \frac{1}{2} 3 \frac{1}{2}$ and $1 \frac{1}{2}$, the last quantum number is the $m j$ quantum number. And this way you can write the $j m j$ quantum numbers for all of these $4 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 8$ there are 8 levels for which you must identify the quantum numbers. And these are the $l s j m j$ quantum numbers for the p states and then for the s states, l is equal to 0 for the s orbital, so l is 0, s is always half and j is always half, because l is 0. So, j can take only one value which is half and $m j$ can take two values, which is either plus half for the upper one and minus half for the lower one, so these are the $l s j m j$ quantum numbers for these eight states.

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$$\begin{aligned} |(l, s) j, m_j\rangle &= \\ &= \sum_{m_l=-l}^l \sum_{m_s=-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} |(l, s) m_l m_s\rangle \langle (l, s) m_l m_s | (l, s) j, m_j \rangle \end{aligned}$$

CGC

TABLE 1³. $(j_1 \frac{1}{2} m_1 m_2 | j_1 \frac{1}{2} j m)$

$j =$	$m_2 = \frac{1}{2}$	$m_2 = -\frac{1}{2}$
$j_1 + \frac{1}{2}$	$\sqrt{\frac{j_1 + m + \frac{1}{2}}{2j_1 + 1}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{j_1 - m + \frac{1}{2}}{2j_1 + 1}}$
$j_1 - \frac{1}{2}$	$-\sqrt{\frac{j_1 - m + \frac{1}{2}}{2j_1 + 1}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{j_1 + m + \frac{1}{2}}{2j_1 + 1}}$

$j_2 = \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow$ Refer CGC Table 1³, page 76, Condon & Shortley, TAS

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And you can write these coupled vectors $j m j$, in terms of the $m l m s$ bases by looking at the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients, so here you are coupling l with s , and s we know is half. So, the appropriate table to be used is the table number 1 from corner is shortly which we have with us, it is also uploaded on the course webpage, so this is the table of correspond of the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient that we can use. And using these tables we can write the $j m j$ quantum numbers, in terms of the uncoupled direct product of uncoupled vectors.

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$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left(l=1, s=\frac{1}{2} \right) j=\frac{3}{2}, m_j=\frac{1}{2} = ? \\
 & \left(l, s \right) j, m_j = \sum_{m_l=-l}^l \sum_{m_s=-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(l, s \right) m_l m_s \underbrace{\left(\left(l, s \right) m_l m_s \left(l, s \right) j, m_j \right)}_{\text{CGC}} \\
 & \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} = \sum_{m_l=-1}^1 \sum_{m_s=-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) m_l m_s \underbrace{\left(\left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) m_l m_s \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right)}_{\text{CGC}} \\
 & m_l = -1, 0, 1 ; m_s = -\frac{1}{2}, +\frac{1}{2} \\
 & 3 \times 2 = 6 \text{ terms} \quad 2 \text{ of the 6 terms have } m_l + m_s = \frac{1}{2} = m_j \\
 & \quad m_l = 0 ; m_s = +\frac{1}{2} \text{ gives } m_l + m_s = +\frac{1}{2} \\
 & \quad m_l = 1 ; m_s = -\frac{1}{2} \text{ gives } m_l + m_s = +\frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

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So, let us take let us illustrate this for one of these, so let us take the case when j is 3 half and m_j is 1 half just to illustrate one of these, and what will these be, so your expand it the uncoupled bases along with the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients. And here is the sum over m_l going from minus 1 to plus 1, and m_s going from minus half to plus half, so how many terms will we have on the right hand side, 3 into 2 we will have 6 terms.

But, the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient will vanish and less m_j is equal to m_l plus m_s , so out of the six terms you really do not have to find the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient for all the six terms. You can find the coefficient only on those cases for which m_l plus m_s will give you m_j and that means, that there are only two terms which you need to consider and these terms are those corresponding to m_l equal to 0 and m_s equal to half or m_l equal to 1 and m_s equal to minus half. So, these are the only two terms that you need to consider, because both of them give you m_l plus m_s which is equal to half which is the value of m_j here. So, now, you need to find the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients for these two terms only.

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$$\left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = \sum_{m_1=-1}^1 \sum_{m_2=-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) m_1 m_2 \right\rangle \left\langle \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) m_1 m_2 \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \right.$$

CGC

$m_1=0 ; m_2=+\frac{1}{2}$ gives $m_1+m_2=+\frac{1}{2}$

$$\left\langle \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) m_1=0 \ m_2=\frac{1}{2} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = ?$$

$m_1=1 ; m_2=-\frac{1}{2}$ gives $m_1+m_2=+\frac{1}{2}$

$$\left\langle \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) m_1=1 \ m_2=-\frac{1}{2} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = ?$$


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And let us take one of those, so let us take the case when m_l is 0 and m_s is equal to half, so for this what is the value of the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient. And you have to find the corresponding Clebsch-Gordan coefficient also for the other case, in which m_l is equal to 1 and m_s is equal to minus half. So, these are the two coefficients that you want to determine from the table.


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$$\left\langle \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) m_1=0 \ m_2=\frac{1}{2} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = ? \quad m_s = \frac{1}{2}$$

$j_2 = \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \text{Table 1}^3 \text{ page 76, Condon \& Shortley}$ $j = j_1 + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$

TABLE 1³. $(j_1 \frac{1}{2} m_1 m_2 | j_1 \frac{1}{2} j m)$

$j =$	$m_2 = \frac{1}{2}$	$m_2 = -\frac{1}{2}$
$j_1 + \frac{1}{2}$	$\sqrt{\frac{j_1+m+\frac{1}{2}}{2j_1+1}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{j_1-m+\frac{1}{2}}{2j_1+1}}$
$j_1 - \frac{1}{2}$	$-\sqrt{\frac{j_1-m+\frac{1}{2}}{2j_1+1}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{j_1+m+\frac{1}{2}}{2j_1+1}}$

$$CGC = \sqrt{\frac{j_1+m+\frac{1}{2}}{2j_1+1}} = \sqrt{\frac{1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2}}{(2 \times 1)+1}} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}$$


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So, let us take one of these and notice that m_s is equal to half, so you can look at the first column here, this is the first column, since m_s is half. And then look at how j is related to j_1

and you find that you have j equal to $3/2$ this is the value of j , which is $3/2$ and it is coming from $j = 1 + 1/2$. So, when do you have j equal to $j + 1/2$ you have it in the first row, so first row and first column is what you must look at, so this is the matrix element that you must look at.

And all you now need to do is to plug in the quantum numbers in this formula, for the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients, you can always determine the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient from first principle using the recursion relations that you have learnt. But, these Clebsch-Gordan coefficient tables are available in all books and quantum mechanics, there are available in the internet, they are available as Clebsch-Gordan coefficients, or in n, j symbols and so on. So, you can take it from any source and then plug them in, so this after you plug in these quantum numbers, so $j = 1 + 1/2$, so you put $1 + 1/2$ and you find that this coefficient turns out to be $\sqrt{2/3}$.

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$\left(\left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) m_1 = 1 \quad m_2 = -\frac{1}{2} \right) \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} = ?$

$j_2 = \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \text{Table 1}^{\text{st}} \text{ page 76, Condon \& Shortley}$

TABLE 1st. $(j_1 \frac{1}{2} m_1 m_2 | j_1 \frac{1}{2} j m)$

$j =$	$m_2 = \frac{1}{2}$	$m_2 = -\frac{1}{2}$
$j_1 + \frac{1}{2}$	$\sqrt{\frac{j_1 + m + \frac{1}{2}}{2j_1 + 1}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{j_1 - m + \frac{1}{2}}{2j_1 + 1}}$
$j_1 - \frac{1}{2}$	$-\sqrt{\frac{j_1 - m + \frac{1}{2}}{2j_1 + 1}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{j_1 + m + \frac{1}{2}}{2j_1 + 1}}$

$CGC = \sqrt{\frac{j_1 - m + \frac{1}{2}}{2j_1 + 1}} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}}{(2 \times 1) + 1}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$

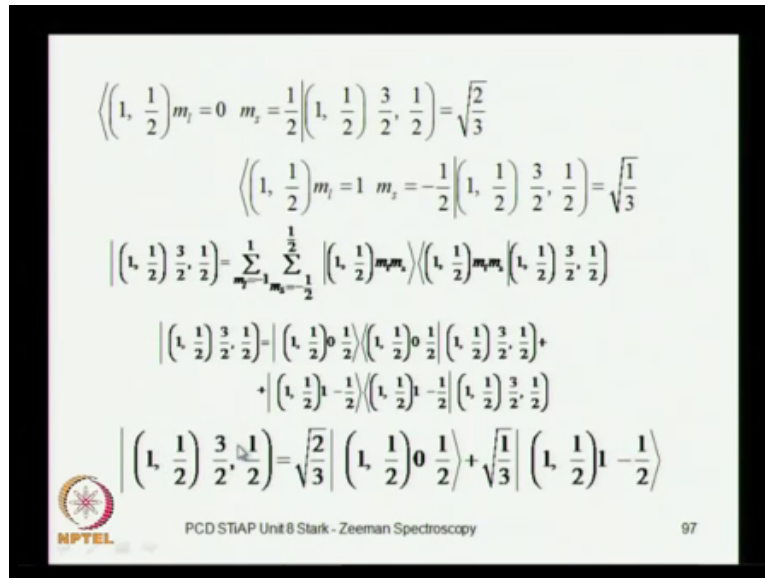

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Now, you need the other one and in this case m_s is minus half, so you must look at the second column instead of the first column, but then you continue to have j equal to $j + 1/2$. So, you look at the first row and this is the formula that you must use, so what you get from this, you get $\sqrt{1/3}$ and actually you could guess that, because the squares must be equal to 1. But, then you would not have got an necessarily the correct phase, so that is why you have to use this table, otherwise you would not get the right phase.

You would get the magnitude $\sqrt{1/3}$ from the normalization, but not the phase it

could be either plus root 1 over 3 a minus root 1 over 3. So, normalization cannot be used as the method of find the coefficient, it should always be used as a check, because if you get this wrong, the normalization would tell you that is wrong.

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$$\begin{aligned} \left\langle \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) m_l = 0 \quad m_s = \frac{1}{2} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \right. &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ \left\langle \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) m_l = 1 \quad m_s = -\frac{1}{2} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \right. &= \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \\ \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle &= \sum_{m_l = -1}^1 \sum_{m_s = -\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) m_l m_s \right\rangle \left\langle \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) m_l m_s \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \right. \\ &= \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) 0 \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \left\langle \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) 0 \frac{1}{2} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \right. \\ &\quad + \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) 1 -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \left\langle \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) 1 -\frac{1}{2} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \right. \\ \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) 0 \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) 1 -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \end{aligned}$$

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So, these are the two coefficient that we needed one is root 2 over 3 and other is root 1 over 3 and using this coefficients in this expansion, so out of these six terms only two terms will contribute, these are the two terms. And when you see, so many numbers sometimes you fill dizzy, and that is when it helps to look at these angle of brackets, because this side as got a rounded bracket this side has got an angle bracket.

So, you keep the track which was uncouple part and which is the couple part, because that is part of the reason, when I introduce the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient are the very beginning are used this notation, not that it is the mandatory most books do not use it, but it is very useful when you look at expression of this kind. Because, there are, so many number and you really feel busiest to what is what and which side is what. So, it helps to keep track of which is the this is the angle of bracket here, now this is the circular bracket and this is the angular bracket here. So, this is the uncoupled part, so this is the $m_l m_s$ and that this is j and m_j , so when you are dealing with practical application the notation of this kinds sometimes useful, which is why I introduce written unit 2.

(Refer Slide Time: 21:08)

$$\left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) 0 \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) 1 -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle$$

$$\left| l \ s \ m_l \ m_s \right\rangle \quad \left| l \ s \ m_l \ m_s \right\rangle$$

$$\left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \alpha Y_1^0 + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \beta Y_1^1$$


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So, these are the two terms and this is your expression for this state, but then there are you can write it in not just the Dirac notation, you can also write it as the Schrodinger notation is well. Because, what you have for l equal to 1 and m_l equal to 0 is the spherical harmonic y_{10} , which is the spherical harmonic for l equal to 1 and m_l equal to 0. So, likewise this is also spherical harmonic for l equal to 1 and m_l equal to 1 and this is 1 minus of, so this is really the spin down state and this is s equal to half and m_s equal to plus half, so this is the spin up state.

So, the first term is a product of the spin up state of which I have written as alpha, the second term involves the spin downstate which is beta. And then you have got the spherical harmonics y_{10} , coming from this 1 and 0 and y_{11} , this is l equal to 1 and m_l equal to 1. So, you can write this is a linear super position, this of course the coordinate representation of this vector. But, you can go from the Dirac notation to the de Broglie Schrodinger notation back and force, just by taking the coordinate presentation of the vector, so this is the linear super position of the $j \ m \ j$ states.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:25)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left| (l, s) j, m_j \right\rangle &= \sum_{m_l, m_s} \sum_{m_l, m_s} \frac{1}{2} \left| (l, s) m_l m_s \right\rangle \left\langle (l, s) m_l m_s \right| (l, s) j, m_j \rangle \\
 l=1, s=\frac{1}{2}; \quad 2p_{\frac{3}{2}} \quad j=\frac{3}{2}, \quad m_j &= -\frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2} \\
 j=\frac{3}{2}, m_j=\frac{3}{2} \quad \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2} \right\rangle &= \alpha Y_1^1 \\
 j=\frac{3}{2}, m_j=\frac{1}{2} \quad \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \alpha Y_1^0 + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \beta Y_1^1 \\
 j=\frac{3}{2}, m_j=-\frac{1}{2} \quad \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \beta Y_1^0 + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \alpha Y_1^{-1} \\
 j=\frac{3}{2}, m_j=-\frac{3}{2} \quad \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{3}{2} \right\rangle &= \beta Y_1^{-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

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So, let us write this for all the eight states that we are concerned, we found that the 2 p 3 half split into 4 straights, 2 p 1 half into 2 and 2 s one half also into 2, so there are total of eight states for we should write this expression. Four of these come from our 2 p 3 half and by getting the coefficients you can write this directly, there is only one term over her, there is only one term which can contribute to m j equal to 3 half there is none other, so this is unique this is, therefore this is got a coefficient of 1.

And then you have m j equal to 3 half, 1 half minus, half and minus 3 half, so m j equal to half will give you this, m j equal to minus half will you give you a similar linear combination. But, notice that this is the superposition of alpha y 1 and this is beta y 1 plus alpha y 1 minus once, so this is the different super position. And how to get it, illustrate for it one of these and you can use the same procedure use the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient and get all the states written explicitly. So, m j equal to minus 3 of again is a unique contributor to this which is got a coefficient of unity which is beta y 1 minus 1.

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$$\begin{aligned} |(l, s) j, m_j\rangle &= \sum_{m_l=-l}^l \sum_{m_s=-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} |(l, s) m_l m_s\rangle \langle(l, s) m_l m_s|(l, s) j, m_j\rangle \\ l=1, s=\frac{1}{2}; \quad 2p_{\frac{1}{2}} \quad j=\frac{1}{2}, m_j=-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \\ j=\frac{1}{2}, m_j=\frac{1}{2} \quad \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} &= -\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}\alpha Y_1^0 + \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\beta Y_1^1 \\ j=\frac{1}{2}, m_j=-\frac{1}{2} \quad \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} &= \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}\beta Y_1^0 - \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\alpha Y_1^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

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What about the 2 p 1 half states, this is got two states, one with m j equal to minus half and the other with m j equal to plus half, so this is what you get for m j equal to plus half and then you get another term for m j equal to minus half, which is the different combination. Mind you have got a minus sign here and minus sign here, so the phase of the coefficients is of important, and this is the phase that you would miss out, if you did not use the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient tables correctly. So, these are two states for 2 p 1 half.

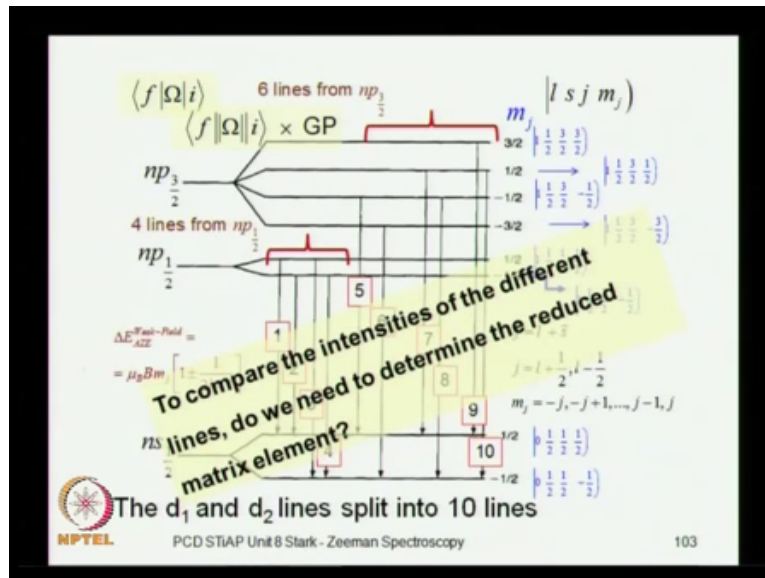
(Refer Slide Time: 24:36)

$$\begin{aligned} |(l, s) j, m_j\rangle &= \sum_{m_l=-l}^l \sum_{m_s=-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} |(l, s) m_l m_s\rangle \langle(l, s) m_l m_s|(l, s) j, m_j\rangle \\ l=0, s=\frac{1}{2}; \quad 2s_{\frac{1}{2}} \quad j=\frac{1}{2}, m_j=-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \\ j=\frac{1}{2}, m_j=\frac{1}{2} \quad \left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} &= \alpha Y_0^0 \\ j=\frac{3}{2}, m_j=-\frac{1}{2} \quad \left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} &= \beta Y_0^0 \end{aligned}$$

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And likewise, there are two states for the 2 s 1 half, so that gives us all the eight states.

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And now you can look at the transitions between various states, these are the tent transitions which take place between these eight states as we have seen, according to the dipole selection rule. And as a spectroscopist as an experimentalist, when you carry out your observations, you would be interested in looking at the intensity of the lines. If there is a transition first of all there will be a certain intensity that you will measure, if there is no transition the corresponding intensity would vanish.

And you will need to calibrate your spectra meters, you will be measuring intensities on a certain relative scale when you do the calibration and so on. And you will be interested in comparing the intensities of transitions from one initial state to a final state, and that is effected by the transition matrix operator, the transition operator here is ω . So, this is just the general expression for an interaction ω which is responsible for transition from i to f , and what this matrix element gives you is the probability amplitude, that this transition will take place. It is the modulus squared will give you the probability and when you multiplied by appropriate contents and so on, you will get the line intensities.

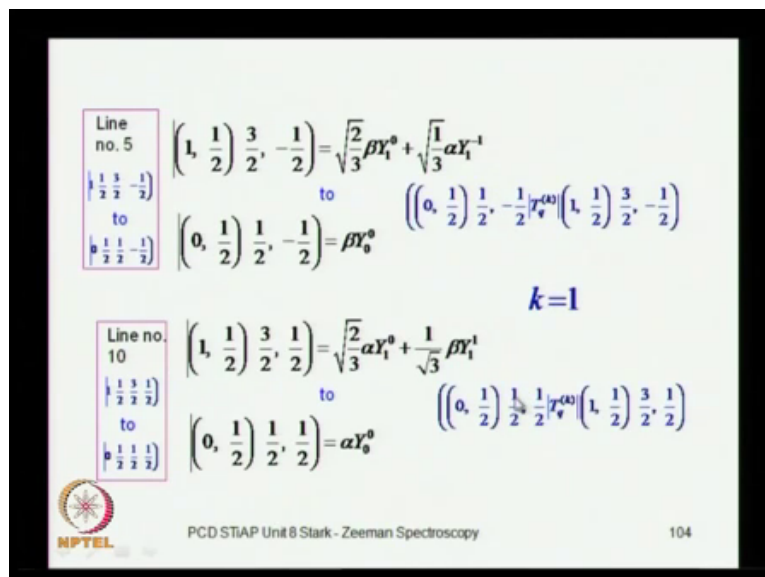
So, the information about the intensity of the spectrum is contained in this matrix element, and we know that this matrix element by the Wigner-Eckart theorem can be factor into a physical part, which is the reduced matrix element and the geometric part, which includes the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients. So, to get the transition intensities, if you just look at the Wigner-Eckart theorem, it would seem that you will need not only the Clebsch-Gordan

coefficient, but also the reduce matrix elements.

Because, this matrix element has got these two factors and on the phase of it would appears, as if you will need both the reduce part as well, as the geometrical part. Now, this as a turns out is not necessary, if you are interested in comparing the line intensities which is what the common of interest of it. Because, anyway there is a certain calibration which is a involved, there is the certain normalization of the intensities, these intensities are normalize with respect to one of them and then you really measure the ratios of intensities.

So, we will now studies this question that do we really need the reduce matrix elements, and in some cases in spectroscopy in a good number of cases you really do not. Because, when you take the ratios they get canceled out, and that is what we are going to the discuss now.

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The slide displays two examples of calculating matrix elements for transitions in the Zeeman effect, using the Wigner-Eckart theorem. Each example shows a transition from an initial state to a final state, with the matrix element expressed in terms of reduced matrix elements and Clebsch-Gordan coefficients.

Line no. 5:

$$\left(1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \beta Y_1^0 + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \alpha Y_1^{-1}$$

to

$$\left(0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\right) = \beta Y_0^0$$

The transition is labeled with $k=1$.

Line no. 10:

$$\left(1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \alpha Y_1^0 + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \beta Y_1^1$$

to

$$\left(0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) = \alpha Y_0^0$$

The slide also includes the NPTEL logo and the text "PCD STIAP Unit 8 Stark - Zeeman Spectroscopy" and "104".

Now, so let us take two of these spectrum lines, so will take just to illustrate this argument will take line number 5, which is from this level to this level. And take line number 10 which is from this level, which is $1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \frac{1}{2} \ 3 \ \frac{1}{2} \ 3 \ \frac{1}{2}$ to where is it go, it goes all the way here which is the lowest level which is $0 \ \frac{1}{2} \ 1 \ \frac{1}{2} \ \text{minus half}$. So, let us take these two cases, the first one is line number 5 which is the transition from $1 \ \frac{1}{2} \ 3 \ \frac{1}{2} \ \text{minus half}$ to $0 \ \frac{1}{2} \ \frac{1}{2} \ \text{minus half}$ state.

So, these are these are the expression in terms of the uncoupled bases, this is the matrix element that you want to study, this is the transition operator whatever it is, we know that

these transition in the dipole approximation are induced by an operator of rank 1, that is all you really need here. You do not even need its explicit form at all, you need is that it is the dipole it is the vector operator of rank 1, it does not matter if you looking at the length form of the matrix element or the momentum form the matrix elements it does not matter.

Because, that only thing that is the importance is the rank of the operator, so this rank of the operator is 1, so you are going to put a equal to 1 in your Clebsch-Gordan coefficient. And this is one of the transitions that we will study, and we will compare its intensity with the intensity of line number 10, which is the transition from 3 half 1 half state to 1 half 1 half, so let us see how this works out. So, this transition matrix element is represented by this operator, which typically is the dipole operator, operator of rank 1 and this is the operator which is sandwich between the initial state and the final state, and you got a similar expression for line number 10.

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Line no. 5 $\left| \frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle$ to $\left| \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle$ $k=1$

$$\left(\left(0, \frac{1}{2} \right), \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right| T_q^{(k)} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right), \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = \left(j' = \frac{1}{2}, m' = -\frac{1}{2} \right| T_q^{(k=1)} \left| j = \frac{3}{2}, m = -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle$$

$$= \frac{\langle \alpha, j' = \frac{1}{2} | T_q^{(k)} | \alpha, j = \frac{3}{2} \rangle}{\sqrt{\left(2 \times \frac{3}{2} \right) + 1}} \times$$

$$\times \left(j_1 = \frac{3}{2}, j_2 = k = 1 \right) m_1 = -\frac{1}{2}, m_2 = q \left(j_1 = \frac{3}{2}, j_2 = k = 1 \right) j = \frac{1}{2}, m = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$m_1 + m_2 = m$$

$$m_1 = -\frac{1}{2}, m = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\therefore q = m_2 = 0$$

$j_2 = 1 \rightarrow$ Table 2¹ page 76, Condon & Shortley

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So, let us first take the line number 5 and this is the matrix element that you want to study, now this is the matrix element of an irreducible tensor or operator of rank 1. You can resolve it using the Wigner-Eckart theorem as the product of the physical part, which is the reduced matrix element and we have defined it with the root 2j plus 1 in the denominator, that you can define it differently also it does not matter. So, this is the reduced matrix elements part and geometrical part, which is the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient.

And this Clebsch-Gordan coefficient, what we know about the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient,

So, this condition however, must be satisfied that $m - n + m + 2$ must be equal to $2 - m$, so this tells us that q must be equal to $m + 2$, because both of these are minus half, so $m + 2$ will have to be 0. So, q must be 0 and you can plug in q equal to 0 over here, so this comes from the selection rule which makes a Clebsch-Gordan coefficient non zero, so you use everything that you have learned and put it all together.

$\left(j_1 = \frac{3}{2}, j_2 = k = 1 \right) m_l = -\frac{1}{2} \quad m_s = q = 0 \quad \left(j_1 = \frac{3}{2}, j_2 = k = 1 \right) j = \frac{1}{2}, m = -\frac{1}{2} ?$

$j_1 = 1 \rightarrow \text{Table } 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ page 76, Condon \& Shortley}$

$j = j_1 - 1$
 $\therefore \text{use } 3^{\text{rd}} \text{ row}$

$j =$	$m_j = 1$	$m_j = 0$	$m_j = -1$
$j_1 + 1$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1+m)(j_1+m+1)}{(2j_1+1)(2j_1+2)}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1-m+1)(j_1+m+1)}{(2j_1+1)(2j_1+1)}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1-m)(j_1-m+1)}{(2j_1+1)(2j_1+2)}}$
j_1	$-\sqrt{\frac{(j_1+m)(j_1-m+1)}{2j_1(j_1+1)}}$	$\frac{m}{\sqrt{j_1(j_1+1)}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1-m)(j_1+m+1)}{2j_1(j_1+1)}}$
$j_1 - 1$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1-m)(j_1-m+1)}{2j_1(2j_1+1)}}$	$-\sqrt{\frac{(j_1-m)(j_1+m)}{j_1(2j_1+1)}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1+m+1)(j_1+m)}{2j_1(2j_1+1)}}$

$$= \left[\frac{3}{2} - \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right] \left[\frac{3}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right] = \left[\frac{3}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] \left[\frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} \left(2 \times \frac{3}{2} + 1 \right) = \frac{3}{2} \left(2 \times \frac{3}{2} + 1 \right)$$

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So, you have this table, table two for j_2 equal to 1 and we have got all the necessary quantum numbers, we have m_2 equal to 0, so m_2 equal to 0 means that you should use this middle column here. And what else do we have, now we need the relation between j and j_1 and what is that this is the third row that you must use, because j is equal to $j_1 - 1$, j_1 is 3 by 2 and j is 1 half. So, 3 half minus 1 is equal to half, so this j this half is equal to 3 half minus 1, so you must use a third row and this is the coefficient that you need. So, now, plug in the quantum numbers j_1 m and so on, that will give you value of the Clebsch-Gordan


coefficient, it comes with an appropriate sign And if you just plug in the numbers in turns out to be minus root 1 over 3.

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Line no. 5 $\left| \begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{smallmatrix} \right\rangle$ to $\left| \begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & -2 \end{smallmatrix} \right\rangle$ $k=1$

$$\left(\left(0, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right| T_q^{(k)} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = \frac{\left\langle \alpha, j' = \frac{1}{2} \right| T_q^{(k)} \left| \alpha, j = \frac{3}{2} \right\rangle}{\sqrt{\left(2 \times \frac{3}{2} \right) + 1}} \times \left(-\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \right)$$

To compare the intensities of the line number 5 with that of line number 10, do we need to determine the reduced matrix element?



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So, this is the coefficient you needed to write the geometrical part of line number 5, this is the physical part, this is the reduce matrix elements. Times the geometrical part which is root of 1 over 3 with the minus sign, and we will now ask what is the corresponding expression for line number 10.

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Line no. 10 $\left| \begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{smallmatrix} \right\rangle$ to $\left| \begin{smallmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{smallmatrix} \right\rangle$ $k=1$

$$\left(\left(0, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right| T_q^{(k)} \left| \left(1, \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = \left\langle j' = \frac{1}{2}, m' = \frac{1}{2} \right| T_q^{(k=1)} \left| j = \frac{3}{2}, m = \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle$$

$$= \frac{\left\langle \alpha, j' = \frac{1}{2} \right| T_q^{(k)} \left| \alpha, j = \frac{3}{2} \right\rangle}{\sqrt{\left(2 \times \frac{3}{2} \right) + 1}} \times$$


$$\times \left(\left(j_1 = \frac{3}{2}, j_2 = k - 1 \right) m_1 = \frac{1}{2}, m_2 = q \left| \left(j_1 = \frac{3}{2}, j_2 = k - 1 \right) j = \frac{1}{2}, m = \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle \right)$$

$$m_1 + m_2 = m$$

$$m_1 = \frac{1}{2}, m = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\therefore q = m_2 = 0$$

$j_2 = 1 \rightarrow$ Table 2³ page 76, Condon & Shortley



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And for line number 10, this is the transition for line number 10, from 1 half 3 half of to 0

half half and half, again we know that k is equal to 1, so you break it into the physical part and the geometrical part put in the quantum numbers, put k equal to 1 over here for find that, in this case also the m 2 quantum number must be 0. For the same reason that in the previous case you had both m 1 and m equal to minus half, in this case both m 1 and m are equal to plus half. So, there is the similar, but it different reason, which is responsible for the fact that m must be 0 and using the table for j 2 equal to 1.

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$$\left(j_1 = \frac{3}{2}, j_2 = k = 1 \right) m_1 = \frac{1}{2}, m_2 = q = 0 \left(j_1 = \frac{3}{2}, j_2 = k = 1 \right) j = \frac{1}{2}, m = \frac{1}{2} = ?$$


$j_2 = 1 \rightarrow \text{Table 2}^{\text{nd}}$ page 76, Condon & Shortley

TABLE 2^a. $(j_1 \ 1 \ m_1 \ m_2 | j_1 \ 1 \ j \ m)^*$

$j =$	$m_1 = 1$	$m_1 = 0$	$m_1 = -1$
$j_1 + 1$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1 + m)(j_1 + m + 1)}{(2j_1 + 1)(2j_1 + 2)}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1 - m + 1)(j_1 + m + 1)}{(2j_1 + 1)(j_1 + 1)}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1 - m)(j_1 - m + 1)}{(2j_1 + 1)(2j_1 + 2)}}$
j_1	$-\sqrt{\frac{(j_1 + m)(j_1 - m + 1)}{2j_1(j_1 + 1)}}$	$\frac{m}{\sqrt{j_1(j_1 + 1)}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1 - m)(j_1 + m + 1)}{2j_1(j_1 + 1)}}$
$j_1 - 1$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1 - m)(j_1 - m + 1)}{2j_1(2j_1 + 1)}}$	$-\sqrt{\frac{(j_1 - m)(j_1 + m)}{j_1(2j_1 + 1)}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{(j_1 + m + 1)(j_1 + m)}{2j_1(2j_1 + 1)}}$

$j = j_1 - 1$
 \therefore use 3rd row

$$-\sqrt{\frac{\left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + 1\right)}{\frac{3}{2}\left(\frac{3}{2} + 1\right)}} = -\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$$

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Since, m 2 is equal to 0 you use the middle column, which is the column for m 2 equal to 0 and then you will see this difference this is j equal to half, this is j 1 equal to 3 half the difference is 1, so it is j 1 minus 1, which will you give you the value of j. So, again you must look at the third row and you look at this expression and plug in the quantum numbers, again it turns out to be root 1 over 3 with a minus sign, but for a different reason. In the previous case you have two factors in the numerator and the under root, and the first factor was 3 half plus half and the second factor was the 3 half minus half; in this case these two position are swapped, but the numerical value turns out to be the same.

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Line no. 10

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ to } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} T_q^{(0)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \frac{\langle \alpha, j' = \frac{1}{2} \| T_q^{(0)} \| \alpha, j = \frac{3}{2} \rangle}{\sqrt{\left(2 \times \frac{3}{2}\right) + 1}} \times \left(-\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \right)$$

Line no. 5

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ to } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} T_q^{(0)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{\langle \alpha, j' = \frac{1}{2} \| T_q^{(0)} \| \alpha, j = \frac{3}{2} \rangle}{\sqrt{\left(2 \times \frac{3}{2}\right) + 1}} \times \left(-\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \right)$$

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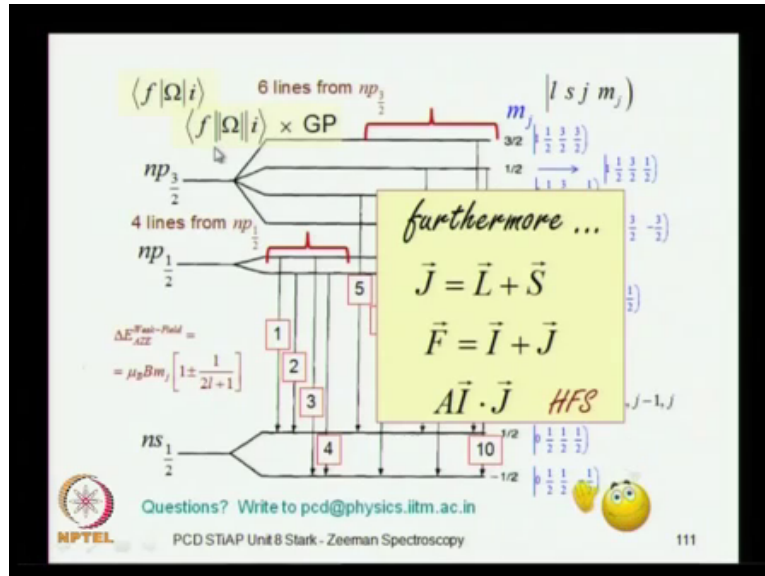
So, this is the matrix elements, which you have factored into the reduce made part and the geometrical part, which is minus of 1 over root 3, for line number 5 we had already found out what the factorization was. And here also you had minus of root 1 over 3, so what is our conclusion, when we take the modulus square and take the ratios the root 2 j plus 1 would cancel that does not surprise us. Because, they could have been observed in the definition of the reduce matrix element any way, but then the reduce matrix elements themselves cancel, is the same reduce matrix element which appears in more.

So, the ratio is then given only by the ratio of the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient, so without looking at the explicit form of the reduce matrix elements, that we have discussed the explicit form of the reduce matrix elements in some cases. For example, when we study photoionization, we actually determine those in integrals, we plugged in the dipole operator, found what is the transitions probability from the initial state to the final state. We put in the radial functions for the hydrogen atom, so all of that had to be explicitly done, in this case we have not have to do it.

So, without even looking at the reduce matrix elements by taking advantage of the Wigner-Eckart theorem, we find that those terms which contribute to the reduce matrix elements, they cancel each other. And then all you need to consider at the ratios of the Clebsch-Gordan coefficient this particular case, they happen to be equal, so we can conclude easily that the spectroscopists going to sign, see these lines to be equaling tense. So, without actually

calculating the reduce matrix element which otherwise, is certainly required, when you look at this matrix element.

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Because, this matrix element is given by a term like this, there is the transition with this operator is responsible for which effects the transition from an initial state to final state. And if you were to determine this explicitly, you will certainly have to evaluate all the space integrals, but by exploiting the Wigner-Eckart theorem, we could factorize this matrix element into two part. The first part is the reduce matrix element, second is the geometrical part and then we find that when you are looking at comparison between the intensities of various lines, which is the most common situation that experimental concern with, the spectroscopes are concern with.

Because, anyway they are going to do some standardization with respect to some normalization, so this normalization can also be observed in the normalization, when you do the calibration of the intensities. So, this is the power of Wigner-Eckart theorem which is an extremely powerful theorem in all branches are spectroscopy, whether it is atomic spectroscopy, molecular spectroscopy, nuclear spectroscopy, no matter what when you look at transitions of condense matter form one state to any other.

The Wigner-Eckart theorem is an extremely powerful one, and it gives you a excellent very powerful of handle on estimating the intensities of the transitions. But, then of course, there is more to follow that weak, started out with this non realities Schrodinger equation we had the 1

and m quantum numbers, then we learnt that the speed of light is not infinite it is constant. And we must accommodate all consequences of that, and what comes out of that is the Dirac equation, what comes out of the Dirac equation is the electron spin.

So, the angular momentum is then no longer just the orbital angular momentum, but l plus s , which gives the total quantum number total angular momentum which is j , but even that is not the ultimate angular momentum of atomic system. Because, a nucleus is got a spin, the nucleus contains elements of particles the protons, neutrons, and they have their own internal spin properties they are fermions, protons and neutrons. And depending on the number of neutrons, on the number of protons the atom may have a net angular momentum, which is either integral or half integral and then you have either boson atoms or fermion atoms.

So, when you consider the nuclear spin, then the nuclear spin I will couple to the net angular momentum J and you will get another angular momentum, which is the total angular momentum inclusive of I and J . And this is a relatively weak interaction as one would expect, because the nucleus spin will involve not the Bohr magneton, but the nuclear magneton. You will remember, that the Bohr magneton had the mass and the denominator, now you will have the mass of the nucleus in the denominator, and the mass of the nucleus is much larger than the mass of the electron.

So, that makes the nuclear magneton much smaller and as a result of that, this is a relatively weak interaction nevertheless it is an important one. And this is what gives rise to the hyperfine structure coming from this interaction $I \cdot J$ do just like to hand, the $L \cdot S$ interaction, you now have the $I \cdot J$ interaction which gives you the hyperfine structure. And then this hyperfine structure, which lead to further spreading of this Zeeman levels, and that splitting will be very small very tiny, but that is very nice.

Because, you can have very nice control when you look at those transitions, and some of those transition in the hyperfine spectra of alkaline atoms are very common transitions. That you can control in laser cooling and other experiments and atomic physics like Bose-Einstein condensation and so on, so today's class we conclude over here.