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A hybrid gauge transformation of the Hamiltonian for a coupled hydrogen atom-field system

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Abstract. A gauge transformation of the minimal-coupling Hamiltonian for a non-relativistic hydrogen atom is induced by a generating function that rescales the charges and their positions. The result is consistent with Maxwell's equations and the Lorentz force formula, and contains the *Power-Zienau-Woolley* Hamiltonian as a special case. The dipole approximation simplifies the Hamiltonian, giving a mixing of $p \cdot A$ and $q \cdot E$ interactions.

The Hamiltonian of a bound system incorporating the charges as a source of the quantised electromagnetic field has been referred to as the *Power-Zienau-Woolley* (PZW) Hamiltonian (Power and Zienau 1959, Woolley 1971). Here, the sources are the electric and magnetic polarisation vectors, and the coupling occurs via the displacement \mathbf{D} and the magnetic flux density \mathbf{B} , rather than the potentials. The gauge can be arbitrary (Babiker and Loudon 1983), and this generalisation of the original dipole approximation theory to include all the higher-order multipoles, in closed form, is widely applied in quantum optics (Healy 1977a, b, Babiker *et al* 1973, 1974, Woolley 1975). The theory has been reviewed by Power and Thirunamachandran (1978).

The minimal-coupling Hamiltonian in arbitrary (a) gauge of a hydrogen atom interacting with an electromagnetic field is

$$H_{\min}^{(a)} = \frac{1}{2m} (\mathbf{p} + e\mathbf{A})^2 + \frac{1}{2} \int d^3r (\epsilon_0^{-1} \Pi^2 + \mu_0^{-1} \mathbf{B}^2). \quad (1)$$

The conjugate momenta are

$$\mathbf{p} = m\dot{\mathbf{q}} - e\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{q}) \quad (2)$$

$$\Pi(\mathbf{r}) = -\epsilon_0 \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}). \quad (3)$$

Here, \mathbf{q} is the position of $-e$ with respect to $+e$. The mass of the electron is m , while the proton is assumed to be *massive*. The charge and current densities are respectively

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) = -e\delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{q}) + e\delta(\mathbf{r}) \quad (4)$$

$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}) = -e\dot{\mathbf{q}}\delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{q}). \quad (5)$$

The dynamical variables are q -numbers at the Hamiltonian level, obeying equal time commutators

$$[q_i, p_j] = i\hbar\delta_{ij} \quad (6)$$

$$[A_i(\mathbf{r}), \Pi_j(\mathbf{r}')] = i\hbar\delta_{ij}\delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'). \quad (7)$$

A gauge transformation is equivalent to

$$\mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A} - \nabla\chi(\mathbf{r})$$

$$\varphi \rightarrow \varphi + \dot{\chi}(\mathbf{r}).$$

We introduce a gauge density $\tilde{\chi}$ (Babiker and Loudon 1983) that is itself a functional of the potential \mathbf{A} at some general position \mathbf{r}' :

$$\chi(\mathbf{r}) = \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \tilde{\chi}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \{\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}')\}). \quad (8)$$

The gauge density function is written in a shorthand form as $\tilde{\chi}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}')$. Note that $\tilde{\chi}$ depends on time only through \mathbf{A} . The momenta transform as

$$\mathbf{p} \rightarrow \mathbf{p} + e\nabla\chi(\mathbf{q}) \quad (9)$$

$$\mathbf{\Pi}(\mathbf{r}) \rightarrow \mathbf{\Pi}(\mathbf{r}) - \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}) \quad (10)$$

where the vector $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r})$ is defined as

$$\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}) = \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \left\{ \frac{\partial \tilde{\chi}(\mathbf{r}', \mathbf{r})}{\partial \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r})} \right\} \rho(\mathbf{r}'). \quad (11)$$

The χ -gauge-transformed Hamiltonian is

$$H_{\chi}^{(a)} = \frac{1}{2m} (\mathbf{p} + e\mathbf{A} - e\nabla\chi)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \int d^3\mathbf{r} [\epsilon_0^{-1}(\mathbf{\Pi} + \mathbf{G})^2 + \mu_0^{-1}\mathbf{B}^2]. \quad (12)$$

It must be remembered that apparently identical operators have different significance in $H_{\min}^{(a)}$ compared with $H_{\chi}^{(a)}$.

Consider a gauge transformation induced by

$$\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{q}) = -e\alpha \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda \mathbf{q} \delta(\mathbf{r} - \lambda \mathbf{q}) \quad (13)$$

where α , β_1 and β_2 are arbitrary, dimensionless scalars. If $\alpha = \beta_2 = 1$ and $\beta_1 = 0$ then \mathbf{G} reduces to the multipolar polarisation \mathbf{P}_M , and $H_{\chi}^{(a)}$ becomes the pzw Hamiltonian (Babiker and Loudon 1983). From (11) the gauge generated by (13) is

$$\chi(\mathbf{r}) = \alpha \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda A_j(\mathbf{r}') r_j \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \lambda \mathbf{r}). \quad (14)$$

The i th component of $\nabla\chi$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{i\chi} &= \alpha\beta_2 A_i(\beta_2 \mathbf{r}) - \alpha\beta_1 A_i(\beta_1 \mathbf{r}) \\ &+ \alpha \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \left\{ A_i(\mathbf{r}') \lambda \mathbf{r} \cdot \nabla' \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \lambda \mathbf{r}) + \sum_j A_j(\mathbf{r}') r_j \nabla_i \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \lambda \mathbf{r}) \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

where use has been made of the identity

$$\alpha \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda \{1 - \lambda \mathbf{r} \cdot \nabla'\} \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \lambda \mathbf{r}) = \alpha\beta_2 \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \beta_2 \mathbf{r}) - \alpha\beta_1 \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \beta_1 \mathbf{r}). \quad (16)$$

Since, by definition,

$$\delta(\mathbf{r}' - \lambda \mathbf{r}) = \delta(r'_1 - \lambda r_1) \delta(r'_2 - \lambda r_2) \delta(r'_3 - \lambda r_3)$$

where r_1, r_2 and r_3 are the Cartesian components of \mathbf{r} , we can write

$$\int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda \lambda r_j \nabla'_i \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \lambda \mathbf{r}) = - \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda r_j \nabla'_i \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \lambda \mathbf{r}). \quad (17)$$

Substituting (17) into (16) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{i\chi} &= \alpha\beta_2 A_i(\beta_2 \mathbf{r}) - \alpha\beta_1 A_i(\beta_1 \mathbf{r}) \\ &+ \alpha \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' \lambda \left\{ A_i(\mathbf{r}') \mathbf{r} \cdot \nabla' - \sum_j A_j(\mathbf{r}') r_j \nabla'_i \right\} \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \lambda \mathbf{r}). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\nabla \chi = \alpha\beta_2 \mathbf{A}(\beta_2 \mathbf{r}) - \alpha\beta_1 \mathbf{A}(\beta_1 \mathbf{r}) - \frac{1}{e} \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' \Theta(\mathbf{r}', \mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}') \quad (18)$$

where the vector Θ is defined by the equation

$$\Theta(\mathbf{r}', \mathbf{r}) = -\alpha e \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda \lambda \mathbf{r} \delta(\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}). \quad (19)$$

Finally, a substitution of (18) and (13) into (12) gives the transformed Hamiltonian

$$\begin{aligned} H_X^{(a)} &= \frac{1}{2m} \left(\mathbf{p} + e\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}) - \alpha e\beta_2 \mathbf{A}(\beta_2 \mathbf{r}) + \alpha e\beta_1 \mathbf{A}(\beta_1 \mathbf{r}) + \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' \Theta(\mathbf{r}', \mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}') \right)^2 \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \int d^3 \mathbf{r} [\varepsilon_0^{-1} (\mathbf{\Pi} + \mathbf{G})^2 + \mu_0^{-1} \mathbf{B}^2] \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

with conjugate momenta

$$\mathbf{p} = m\dot{\mathbf{q}} - e\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{q}) + e\alpha\beta_2 \mathbf{A}(\beta_2 \mathbf{q}) - e\alpha\beta_1 \mathbf{A}(\beta_1 \mathbf{q}) - \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' \Theta(\mathbf{r}', \mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}') \quad (21)$$

$$\mathbf{\Pi}(\mathbf{r}) = -\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) - e\alpha \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda \mathbf{q} \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{q}). \quad (22)$$

If the transformation is canonical then the gauge and transformed momenta obey the relationship (Babiker and Loudon 1983)

$$[\Pi_i(\mathbf{r}), \nabla_j \chi(\mathbf{q})] = - \left[\left\{ \frac{\partial \tilde{\chi}(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{r})}{\partial A_i(\mathbf{r})} \right\}, p_j \right]. \quad (23)$$

It is not difficult to verify (23) for a gauge generated by (13).

We will now look at the nature of $\mathbf{\Pi}$. From standard vector analysis

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}) = -e\alpha \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda \mathbf{q} \cdot \nabla \delta(\mathbf{r} - \lambda \mathbf{q}).$$

Using the representation of the δ function

$$\delta(\mathbf{r} - \lambda \mathbf{q}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d^3 \mathbf{k} \exp\{i\mathbf{k} \cdot (\mathbf{r} - \lambda \mathbf{q})\}$$

we find that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{e\alpha}{(2\pi)^3} \int_{\beta_1}^{\beta_2} d\lambda \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d^3 \mathbf{k} i\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{k} \exp\{i\mathbf{k} \cdot (\mathbf{r} - \lambda \mathbf{q})\}.$$

Integrating with respect to λ and reverting back to δ notation gives

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}) = \alpha e \delta(\mathbf{r} - \beta_2 \mathbf{q}) - \alpha e \delta(\mathbf{r} - \beta_1 \mathbf{q}). \quad (24)$$

The vector \mathbf{G} can be thought of as an 'effective polarisation', leading to a transformed charge density

$$\rho'(\mathbf{r}) = -e \delta(\mathbf{r} - \beta_2 \mathbf{q}) + e \delta(\mathbf{r} - \beta_1 \mathbf{q}). \quad (25)$$

Thus, the gauge transformation has the effect of rescaling the charges to $-\alpha e$ and $+\alpha e$, and moving them to the positions $\beta_2 \mathbf{q}$ and $\beta_1 \mathbf{q}$ respectively. We can also define two charge systems

$$\rho_1(\mathbf{r}) = -e \delta(\mathbf{r} - \beta_1 \mathbf{q}) + e \delta(\mathbf{r}) \quad (26)$$

$$\rho_2(\mathbf{r}) = -e \delta(\mathbf{r} - \beta_2 \mathbf{q}) + e \delta(\mathbf{r}) \quad (27)$$

with the result

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}) = \alpha(\rho_1 - \rho_2). \quad (28)$$

By Maxwell's equation

$$\epsilon_0 \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho \quad (29)$$

we obtain the interesting equation

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{\Pi} = -\rho \left\{ 1 - \frac{\alpha(\rho_2 - \rho_1)}{\rho} \right\} \quad (30)$$

where ρ is the actual charge density, defined in (4). In particular, in the pzw Hamiltonian $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{\Pi} = 0$ and $\mathbf{\Pi}$ is identified as the displacement \mathbf{D} . On the other hand, if $\alpha = 0$ then $\mathbf{\Pi}$ reverts back to the field \mathbf{E} , indicating a return to the minimal-coupling regime.

The transformed Hamiltonian exhibits a particularly interesting form when the dipole approximation is made. Here $\beta_1 = 0$, $\beta_2 = 1$ and

$$\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{q}) = -\alpha e \mathbf{q} \delta(\mathbf{r}) = \alpha \mathbf{P}_D(\mathbf{r}) \quad (31)$$

where $\mathbf{P}_D(\mathbf{r})$ is the dipole approximation polarisation. The transformed Hamiltonian is

$$H_x^{(a)} = \frac{1}{2m} \{ \mathbf{p} + (1 - \alpha) e \mathbf{A} \}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \int d^3 r \{ \epsilon_0 (\mathbf{\Pi} + \alpha \mathbf{P}_D)^2 + \mu_0 \mathbf{B}^2 \} \quad (32)$$

with conjugate momenta

$$\mathbf{p} = m \dot{\mathbf{q}} - (1 - \alpha) e \mathbf{A} \quad (33)$$

$$\mathbf{\Pi} = -\epsilon_0 \mathbf{E} - \alpha \mathbf{P}_D. \quad (34)$$

The dipole approximation dictates that \mathbf{A} and $\mathbf{\Pi}$ in equations (32)-(34) are measured at the coordinate origin, that is at the position of $+e$. In a Coulomb gauge, (32) gives an interaction Hamiltonian in terms of transverse vectors

$$H_1^{(c)} = \frac{e}{m} (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{A}_\perp + \frac{e^2}{2m} (1 - \alpha)^2 \mathbf{A}_\perp^2 + \alpha e \mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{E}_\perp + \frac{\alpha^2}{2\epsilon_0} \int d^3 r \mathbf{P}_{D\perp}^2 \quad (35)$$

indicating a mix of $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{A}_\perp$ and $\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{E}_\perp$ interactions. The interaction Hamiltonian of (35) leads to gauge-invariant photon transition processes; however, the multiplier α can be so chosen to eliminate the counter-rotating terms of a harmonic oscillator, or

two-state atom, coupled to a field (Baxter *et al* 1989). The oscillator case has also been considered in a somewhat similar fashion by Drummond (1987), who diagonalised the minimal-coupling Hamiltonian by means of a double transformation of the annihilation and creation operators.

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