

nuclear properties

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Phenomenological description of a nucleus

2

2

Phenomenological description of a nucleus

spoiler prevention

3

3

Spread in nuclear properties

spoiler prevention

4

4

nuclear electric  
multipole moments

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electric nuclear multipole moments

A charge distribution of a general shape...

... can be written as a sum of multipole contributions :

Exercise: convince yourself that a dipole has no monopole moment, and that a quadrupole has no monopole and dipole moments.

Not necessarily uniform: for any  $\vec{r}_1$  and  $\vec{r}_2$ ,  $\rho(\vec{r}_1)$  and  $\rho(\vec{r}_2)$  need not to be identical.

2

2

electric nuclear multipole moments

Derivation in cartesian form : see pdf-pages

Derivation in spherical form :

- general formula:  $\frac{1}{|r_2 - r_1|} = 4\pi \sum_{n,q} \frac{r_1^n}{r_2^{n+1}} \frac{1}{2n+1} Y_q^n(\theta_1, \phi_1) Y_q^n(\theta_2, \phi_2)$
- far-field case: see pdf-pages

Interpretation of monopole and quadrupole moments.

Different ways of representing the 5 degrees of freedom of the quadrupole moment tensor:

- As traceless and symmetric 3x3 matrix
$$\begin{bmatrix} Q_{xx} & Q_{xy} & Q_{xz} \\ Q_{xy} & Q_{yy} & Q_{yz} \\ Q_{xz} & Q_{yz} & Q_{zz} \end{bmatrix} \quad Q_{xx} + Q_{yy} + Q_{zz} = 0$$
- As 5 components of a spherical tensor of rank 2
$$Q_m^\ell = eZ \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{2\ell+1}} \langle I | r^\ell Y_m^\ell | I \rangle \quad (\ell = 2)$$
- As a combination of both
$$Q_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} Q_2^2 - \frac{1}{3}Q_0^2 & Q_2^{-2} & Q_2^1 \\ Q_2^{-2} & -Q_2^2 - \frac{1}{3}Q_0^2 & Q_2^1 \\ Q_2^1 & Q_2^1 & \frac{2}{3}Q_0^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Recommended reading: appendix on tensors.

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3

electric nuclear multipole moments

Exercise :

Apply the general equations to calculate the monopole, dipole and quadrupole moments of this point charge configuration (2D) : and this one (3D) : and this one (3D) :

$$R(\theta) = a (1 + \beta_2 Y_2^0(\theta))$$

(e.g.  $\beta_2 = 0.2$ )

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approximate shape of a nucleus:  
average radius and quadrupole deformation

The nucleus spins fast about its l-axis → in axis system with z // l we have axial symmetry
$$\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{Q}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{Q}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & Q \end{bmatrix}$$

The spectroscopic quadrupole moment Q (a scalar) says it all.

$$R(\theta) = a (1 + \beta_2 Y_2^0(\theta) + \beta_4 Y_4^0(\theta) + \dots)$$

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Trends in the (spectroscopic) quadrupole moment

$$eQ \simeq 3\sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{5}} \frac{eZ}{2\pi} \beta a^2$$

Q is large if:

- $\beta$  is large (strongly deformed nuclei)
- $a$  is large (heavy nuclei)

- oscillating behaviour due to nuclear shell structure
- increasing trend due to a-dependence

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1

Trends in the mean square nuclear radius

Extensive experimental tabulation by I. Angeli (2004)

global summary of trend:  $\sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle} = 1.153 A^{0.294} \text{ fm}$

(just a snippet)

I. Angeli / Atomic Data and Nuclear Data Tables 87 (2004) 185–206

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Table 1 (continued)

Z	El	A	R (fm)	$\Delta_{\mu} R$ (fm)	$\Delta_{\mu} R$ (fm)
49	In	112	4.5930	.0020	
		113	4.6006	.0020	.00002
		114	4.6137	.0019	
		115	4.6170	.0054	.0049
		116	4.6284	.0021	.00002
		118	4.6316	.0037	.0024
		120	4.6379	.0059	.0045
		104	4.5168	.0119	.0016
		105	4.5298	.0105	.0015
		106	4.5364	.0096	.0013
		107	4.5487	.0082	.0011
		108	4.5566	.0071	.0005
		109	4.5684	.0061	.0008
		110	4.5742	.0056	.0009
		111	4.5859	.0043	.0005
		112	4.5911	.0039	.0007
		113	4.6018	.0025	.00003
		114	4.6066	.0027	.0002
		115	4.6109	.0024	

Table 1 (continued)

Z	El	A	R (fm)	$\Delta_{\mu} R$ (fm)	$\Delta_{\mu} R$ (fm)
55	Cs	126	4.7703	.0048	.0007
		128	4.7755	.0048	.0004
		129	4.7762	.0047	.0001
		130	4.7832	.0046	.0003
		131	4.7812	.0046	.0001
132	4.7866	.0047	.0002		
134	4.7921	.0047	.0001		
		136	4.7991	.0047	
		137	4.8143	.0048	.0003
		138	4.8359	.0054	.0003
		139	4.8511	.0060	.0006
		140	4.8694	.0067	.0002
		141	4.8845	.0075	.0004
		142	4.9016	.0086	.0009
		143	4.9137	.0092	.0004
		144	4.9300	.0102	.0005
		146	4.9575	.0119	.0005
		118	4.7834	.0092	.0002
		119	4.7898	.0090	.0006

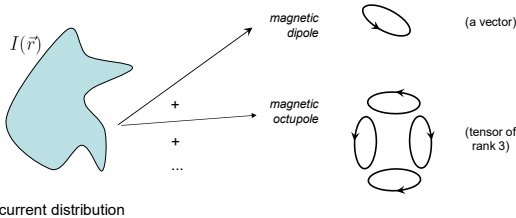
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magnetic nuclear multipole moments

- What we discussed so far is the scalar potential due to a static charge distribution, developed into multipole components.
- A similar story applies to the vector potential due to a static current distribution, which can be developed into multipole components as well (mathematically a bit more involved).
- The parity of these magnetic nuclear multipole moments is different: odd terms survive.
- The first non-zero term is the magnetic dipole moment (a vector).
- The second non-zero is the magnetic octupole moment (a tensor of rank 3).

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magnetic nuclear multipole moments



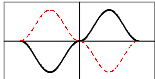
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# why are odd electric moments zero ?

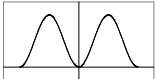
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## Why are odd electric nuclear multipole moments zero ?

- Definition of the parity operator in 3D :  
*change the sign of all three dimensions:  $x \rightarrow -x, y \rightarrow -y, z \rightarrow -z$ , hence  $\vec{r} \rightarrow -\vec{r}$*
- Real eigenvalues: +1 or -1
- Meaning of parity in one dimension ( $x \rightarrow -x$ ):



$P f(x) = f(-x) = -1 f(x)$  odd



$P f(x) = f(-x) = +1 f(x)$  even

- Integrals over all space for a function with odd parity are zero.
- Observational fact: nuclear states have a well-defined parity (i.e. +1 or even, or -1 or odd)

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## Why are odd electric nuclear multipole moments zero ?

classical dipole moment:  $Q_x = \int x \rho(\vec{r}) d\vec{r}$  (x-component of dipole moment vector only, as example)

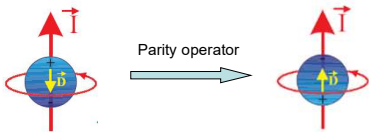
translate to quantum mechanics:  $Q_x = \int \Psi_I^*(\vec{r}) x \Psi_I d\vec{r}$   
 $= \langle I | \hat{x} | I \rangle$

Parity of  $\rho$  is always even (product of two states with the same parity).  
Parity of the  $x$ -operator is odd.  
The parity of the integrand is odd  $\rightarrow$  the dipole moment expectation value is zero.

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## Why are odd electric nuclear multipole moments zero ?

Symmetry explanation:

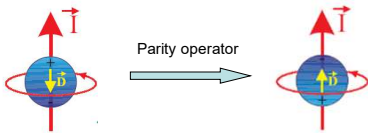


Imagine nuclei would have an electric dipole moment.  
The parity operator leaves the spin unaffected.  
The parity operator flips the dipole moment.  
The orientation of the dipole moment w.r.t. the spin is changed.  
 $\rightarrow$  this does not agree with parity being a good quantum number for nuclei  
 $\rightarrow$  the electric dipole moment must be zero.

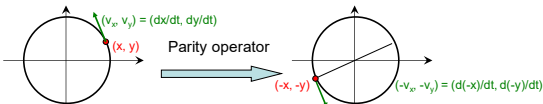
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## Why are odd electric nuclear multipole moments zero ?

Symmetry explanation:



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multipole radiation

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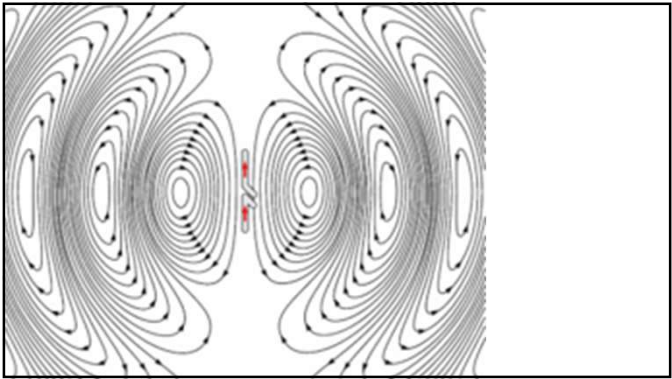
multipole radiation

for **CLASSICAL** systems

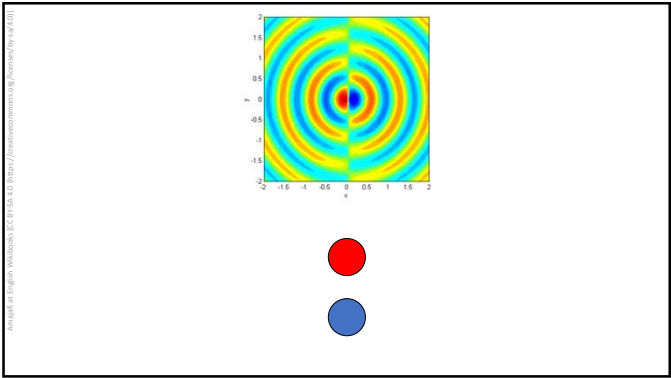
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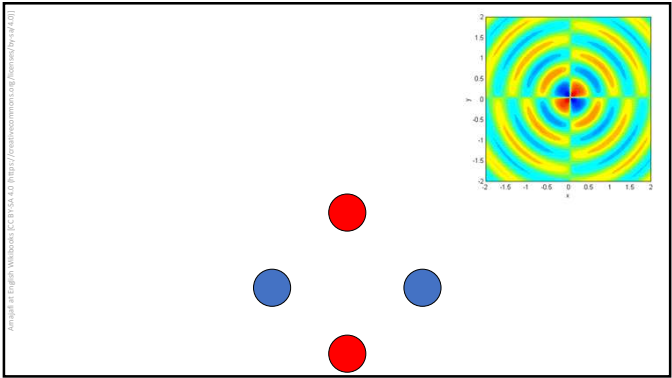
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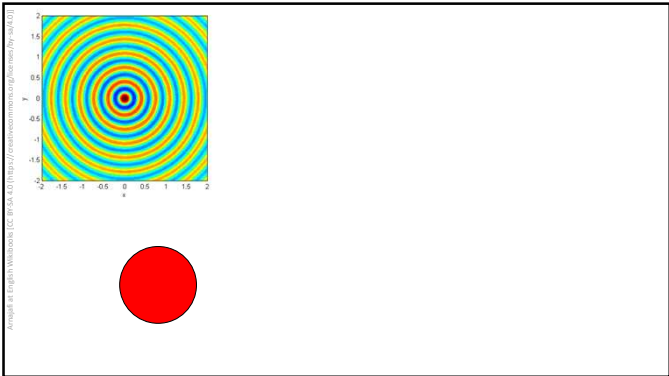
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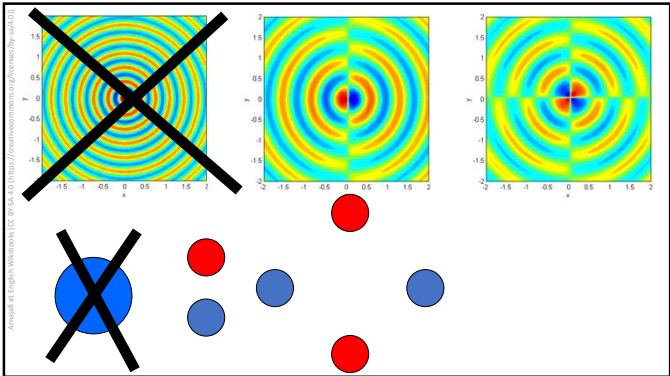
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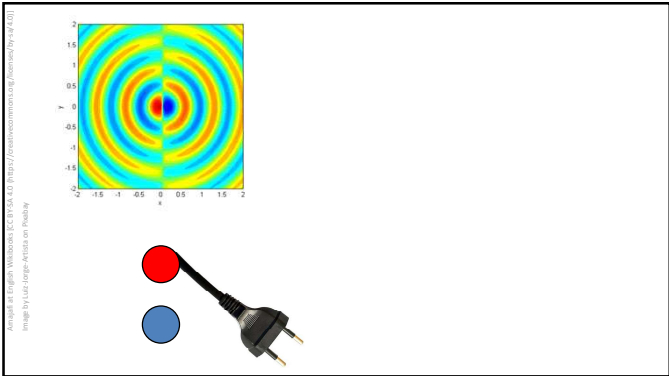
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multipole radiation  
for **QUANTUM** systems

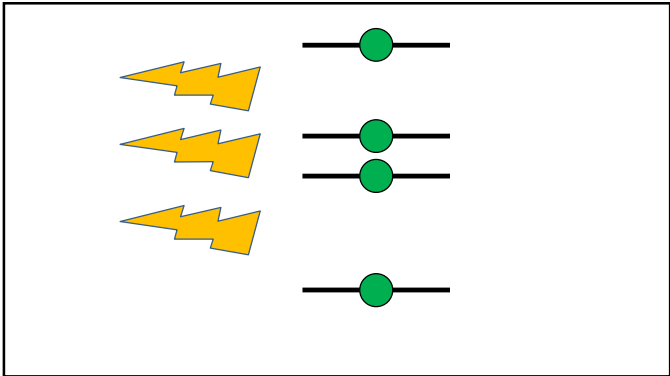
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Why is an oscillating multipole  
not a good model  
for a decaying nucleus  
emitting radiation?

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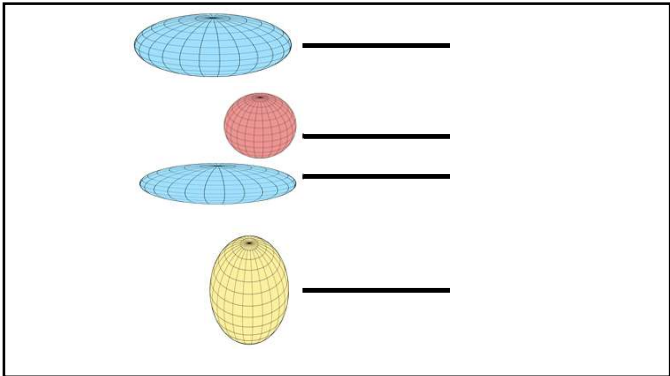


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Why is an oscillating multipole not a good model for a decaying nucleus emitting radiation?

1. a nucleus is not “powered”

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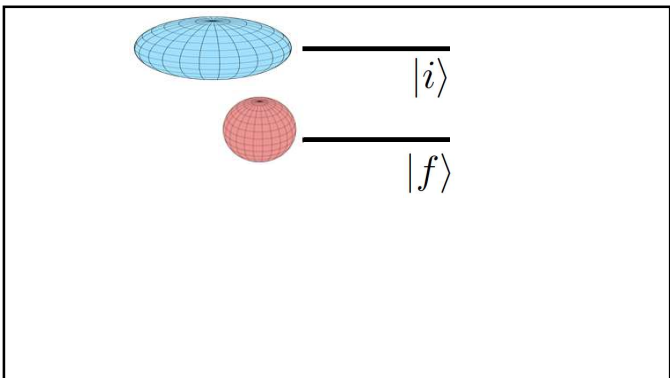
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Why is an oscillating multipole not a good model for a decaying nucleus emitting radiation?

1. a nucleus is not “powered”

2. a nucleus decays from one multipole moment to another, it is not an oscillating multipole moment.

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$\langle i | \hat{H}_{nn} | i \rangle$   
 $\langle f | \hat{H}_{nn} | f \rangle$

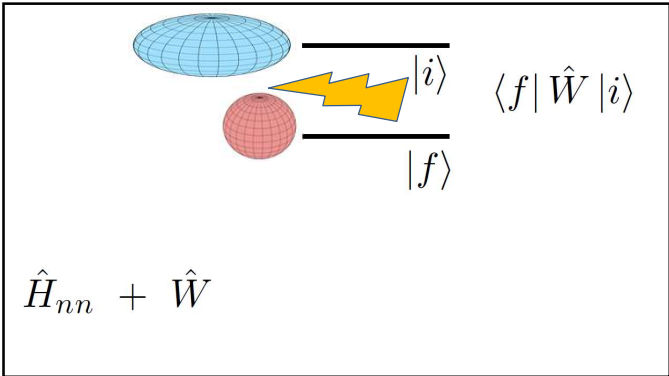
A diagram showing two multipole moments: a blue dipole and a red quadrupole. To the right of the dipole is a horizontal black line labeled  $|i\rangle$ , and to the right of the quadrupole is a horizontal black line labeled  $|f\rangle$ .

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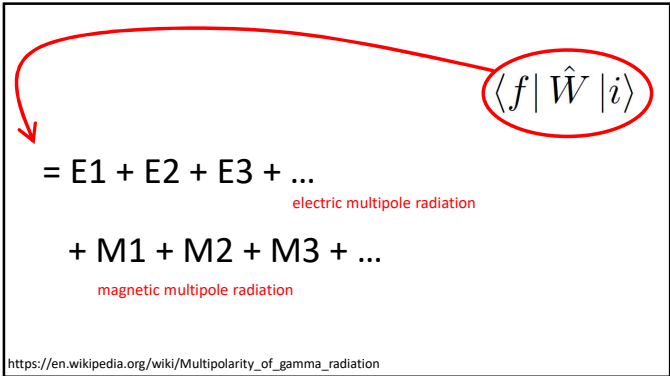
A diagram showing two multipole moments: a blue dipole and a red quadrupole. To the right of the dipole is a horizontal black line labeled  $|i\rangle$ , and to the right of the quadrupole is a horizontal black line labeled  $|f\rangle$ . A yellow lightning bolt arrow points from the  $|i\rangle$  level down to the  $|f\rangle$  level.

$\hat{H}_{nn} + \hat{W}$

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VIP - 1

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1

back to basics: the H- or He-atoms

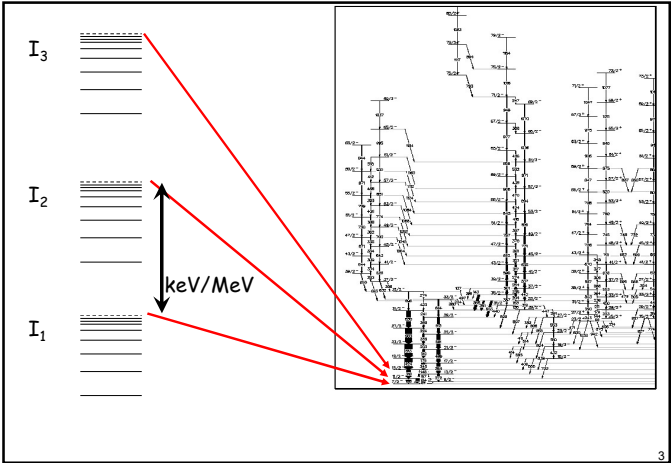
When you studied H or He in your first courses on quantum physics, you made the following approximations :

- non-relativistic
- effective electron-electron interactions (He, not H)
- infinitely heavy nucleus
- point nucleus

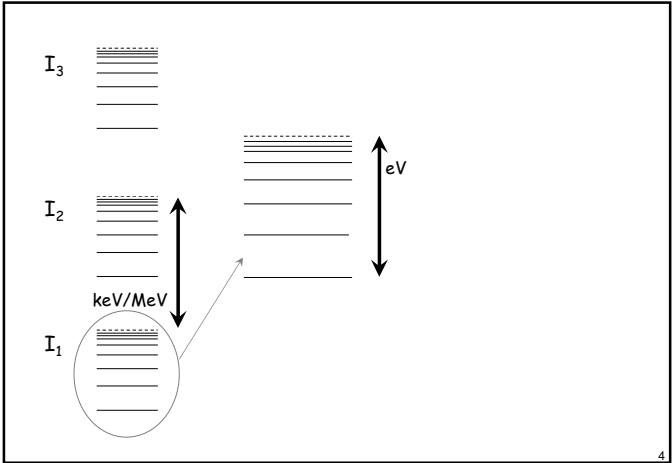
this course:

examine and exploit the new features that appear once the approximation of a point charge nucleus has been abandoned.

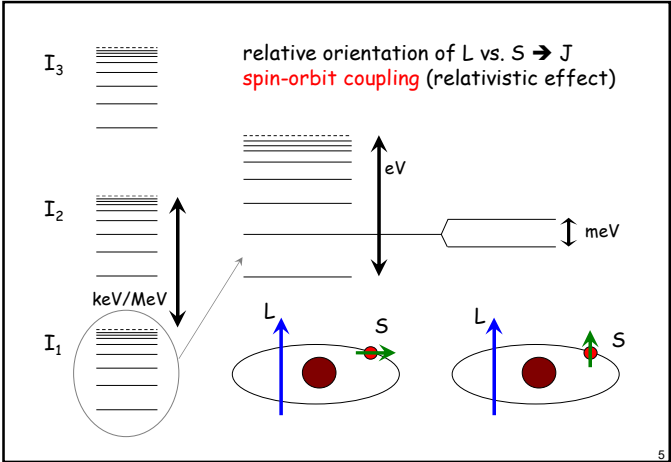
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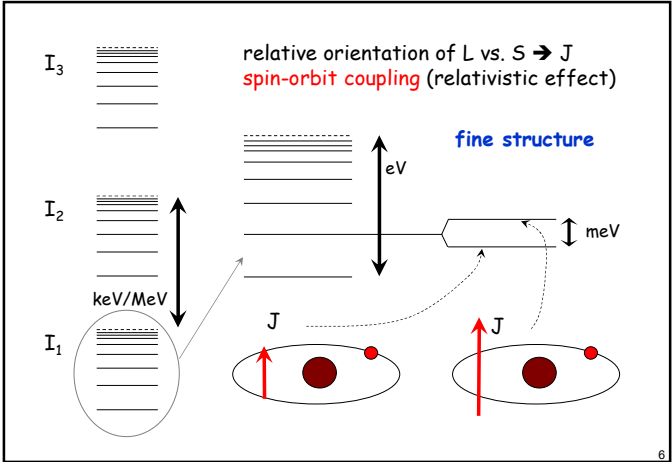
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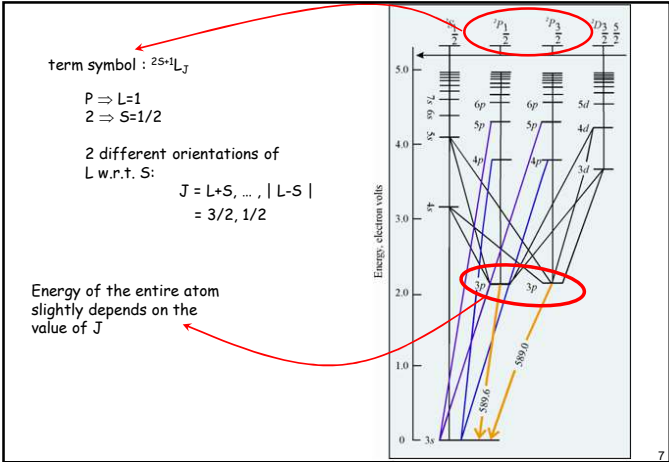
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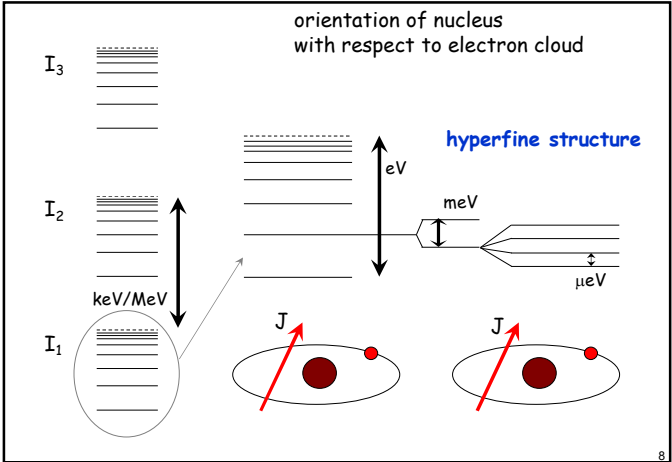
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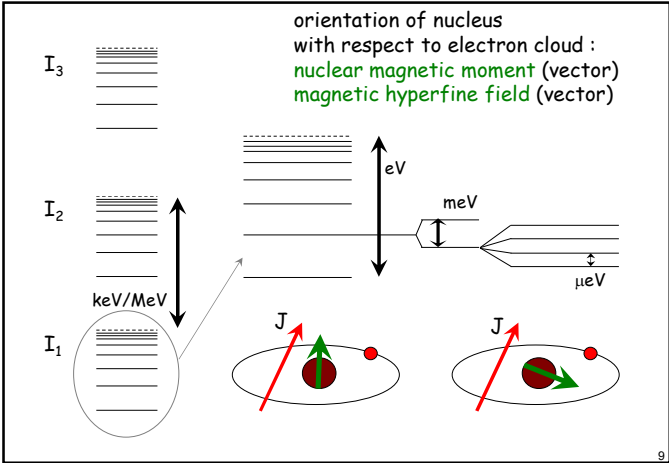
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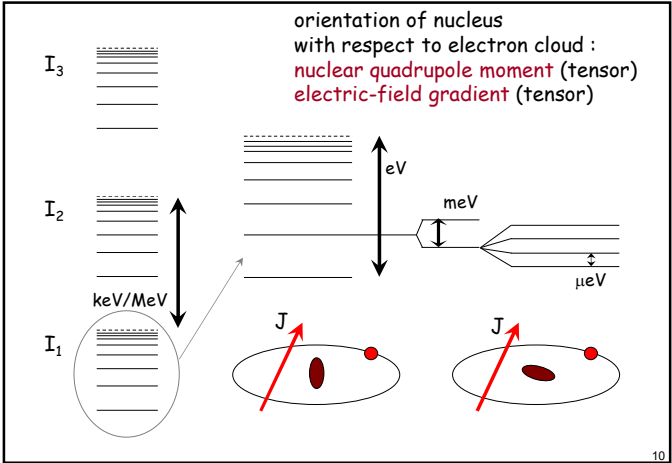
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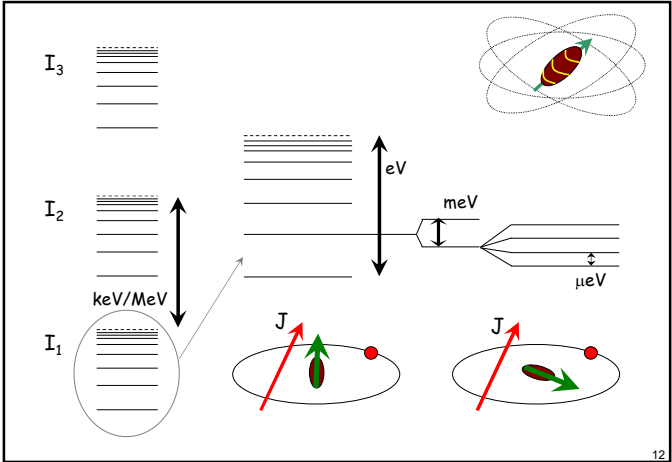
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**Attention !**

There will be 2 VIPs(\*) in this course, and on the following slide you have the first one.

(\*) Very Important Pictures

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gravitational analogue

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1

Fig. 2.1. Three situations of two mass distributions interacting by gravitation.

2

Gravitational potential energy of this system =

- gravitational potential energy of  $m_2$  in the field of  $m_1$
- or
- **gravitational potential energy of  $m_1$  in the field of  $m_2$**

$$E_{pot} = \int_1 \rho_1(r_1) V_2(r_1) dr_1$$

Potential field of  $m_2$  at position  $r_1$  :

$$V_2(r_1) = -G \int_2 \frac{\rho_2(r_2)}{|r_2 - r_1|} dr_2$$

And hence :

$$E_{pot} = -G \int_1 \int_2 \frac{\rho_1(r_1) \rho_2(r_2)}{|r_2 - r_1|} dr_1 dr_2$$

Fig. 2.1. Three situations of two mass distributions interacting by gravitation.

3

How to treat the double integral? → Laplace expansion

$$\frac{1}{|r_2 - r_1|} = 4\pi \sum_{n,q} \frac{r_<^n}{r_>^{n+1}} \frac{1}{2n+1} Y_q^{n*}(\theta_1, \phi_1) Y_q^n(\theta_2, \phi_2)$$
$$r_< = \min(r_1, r_2)$$
$$r_> = \max(r_1, r_2)$$
$$E_{pot} = -4\pi G \int_1 \int_2 \rho_1(r_1) \rho_2(r_2) \left( \sum_{n,q} \frac{r_<^n}{r_>^{n+1}} \frac{1}{2n+1} Y_q^{n*}(\theta_1, \phi_1) Y_q^n(\theta_2, \phi_2) \right) dr_1 dr_2$$

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Assumption: the mass distributions are such that any  $r_1$  is smaller than any  $r_2$

Imagine an example where this is not fulfilled...

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Condition: consider only cases for which any  $r_1$  is smaller than any  $r_2$

Consequence:  $r_< = r_1$   
 $r_> = r_2$

$$E_{pot} = -4\pi G \int_1 \int_2 \rho_1(r_1) \rho_2(r_2) \left( \sum_{n,q} \frac{r_1^n}{r_2^{n+1}} \frac{1}{2n+1} Y_q^{n*}(\theta_1, \phi_1) Y_q^n(\theta_2, \phi_2) \right) dr_1 dr_2$$

$$E_{pot} = \sum_{n,q} Q_q^n V_q^n$$

$$Q_q^n = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{2n+1}} \int_1 \rho_1(r_1) r_1^n Y_q^{n*}(\theta_1, \phi_1) dr_1$$
$$V_q^n = -G \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{2n+1}} \int_2 \frac{\rho_2(r_2)}{r_2^{n+1}} Y_q^n(\theta_2, \phi_2) dr_2$$

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Discussion :

monopole term

monopole moment	$Q_0^0 = m_1$	scalar
monopole field	$V_0^0 = -G \int \frac{\rho_2(r_2)}{ r_2 } dr_2$	scalar
monopole energy	$E_{pot}^{(0)} = Q_0^0 V_0^0$	dot product $\rightarrow$ scalar

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Discussion :

dipole term

dipole moment	$Q_q^1 = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{3}} \int_1 \rho_1(r_1) r_1 Y_q^1(\theta_1, \phi_1) dr_1$	vector
dipole field	$V_q^1 = -G \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{3}} \int_2 \frac{\rho_2(r_2)}{r_2^2} Y_q^1(\theta_2, \phi_2) dr_2$	vector
dipole energy	$E_{pot}^{(1)} = \sum_{q=-1,0,1} Q_q^1 V_q^1$	dot product $\rightarrow$ scalar

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interpretation of the dipole moment of  $m_1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} Q_x &= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} (Q_{-1}^1 - Q_{+1}^1) \\ &= \int_1 \rho_1(r_1) r_1 \sin \theta \cos \phi dr_1 \\ &= \int_1 \rho_1(r_1) x_1 dr_1 \\ Q_y &= \int_1 \rho_1(r_1) y_1 dr_1 \\ Q_z &= \int_1 \rho_1(r_1) z_1 dr_1 \end{aligned}$$

position vector of center of mass of  $m_1$

interpretation of the dipole field by  $m_2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} V_x &= -G \int_2 \frac{\rho_2(r_2)}{|r_2|^3} x_2 dr_2 \\ V_y &= -G \int_2 \frac{\rho_2(r_2)}{|r_2|^3} y_2 dr_2 \\ V_z &= -G \int_2 \frac{\rho_2(r_2)}{|r_2|^3} z_2 dr_2 \end{aligned}$$

opposite of the gravitational field by  $m_2$  at the origin

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Discussion :

quadrupole term

quadrupole moment	$Q_q^2 = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{5}} \int_1 \rho_1(r_1) r_1^2 Y_q^2(\theta_1, \phi_1) dr_1$	tensor
quadrupole field	$V_q^2 = -G \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{5}} \int_2 \frac{\rho_2(r_2)}{r_2^3} Y_q^2(\theta_2, \phi_2) dr_2$	tensor
quadrupole energy	$E_{pot}^{(2)} = \sum_{q=-2, \dots, 2} Q_q^2 V_q^2$	dot product $\rightarrow$ scalar

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quadrupole moment :

$$cQ_{sh}^{(2)} = \int_1 \rho_1(r_1) \begin{bmatrix} 3x_1^2 - r_1^2 & 3x_1y_1 & 3x_1z_1 \\ 3x_1y_1 & 3y_1^2 - r_1^2 & 3y_1z_1 \\ 3x_1z_1 & 3y_1z_1 & 3z_1^2 - r_1^2 \end{bmatrix} dr_1$$

- symmetric
- trace-less (show)

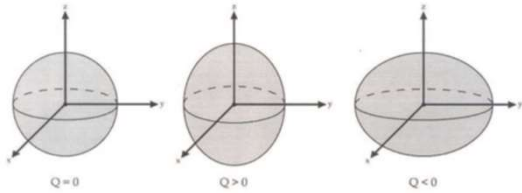


Fig. 2.2. A spherical, prolate and oblate mass distribution (with respect to the z-axis).

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quadrupole field :

$$cV_{sh}^{(2)} = -G \int_2 \frac{\rho_2(r_2)}{|r_2|^5} \begin{bmatrix} 3x_2^2 - r_2^2 & 3x_2y_2 & 3x_2z_2 \\ 3x_2y_2 & 3y_2^2 - r_2^2 & 3y_2z_2 \\ 3x_2z_2 & 3y_2z_2 & 3z_2^2 - r_2^2 \end{bmatrix} dr_2$$

- symmetric
- trace-less (show)

$$V_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x_2^2} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x_2 \partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x_3 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x_3 \partial x_2} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x_3^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The meaning of this tensor is more clear when deriving it using a cartesian Taylor expansion:

$\rightarrow$  (gravitational) field gradient tensor

Traceless?

$$\Delta V_2(\vec{0}) = \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\vec{0})}{\partial z^2} = 4\pi G \rho_2(\vec{0})$$

Poisson equation

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Taylor expansion of a scalar function defined on a vector domain:

Consider a function

$$f(\mathbf{r}) = \int \frac{g(\mathbf{r}_e)}{|\mathbf{r}_e - \mathbf{r}|} d\mathbf{r}_e \tag{B.1}$$

The integral runs over that part of space where  $g(\mathbf{r}_e)$  is not zero, which might be a finite or infinite region. If  $g$  is a charge or mass distribution,  $f$  gives the electric or gravitational potential in a point  $\mathbf{r}$  (apart from an appropriate factor). That point can be either inside or outside the non-zero region of  $g$  (Fig. B-1\*\*\*). If it lies inside, the denominator in the integral becomes zero and we have to care about the convergence of the integral. The latter is determined by the properties of  $g$ . We assume that we know the value of  $f$  and of all its derivatives at the origin 0. What we want to know is the value of  $f$  at points  $\mathbf{r} = (x, y, z)$  that are not far away from 0. This means we need a Taylor expansion of  $f(\mathbf{r})$  around 0. The general form of a Taylor expansion around 0 for a function with vectors as argument, is:

$$f(\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{r}) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{j!} (\mathbf{r} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{r}})^j f(\mathbf{r}') \right]_{\mathbf{r}'=\mathbf{0}} \tag{B.2}$$

dot product between scalars, vectors, tensors,...

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- monopole and dipole terms from Taylor expansion are identical to the Laplace expansion
- difference in the quadrupole term:

$$E_{pot}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) x_1^2 d\mathbf{r}_1 & \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) x_1 y_1 d\mathbf{r}_1 & \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) x_1 z_1 d\mathbf{r}_1 \\ \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) y_1 x_1 d\mathbf{r}_1 & \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) y_1^2 d\mathbf{r}_1 & \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) y_1 z_1 d\mathbf{r}_1 \\ \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) z_1 x_1 d\mathbf{r}_1 & \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) z_1 y_1 d\mathbf{r}_1 & \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) z_1^2 d\mathbf{r}_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_2^2} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_2 \partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_3 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_3 \partial x_2} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_3^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$_e K^{(2)} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} \{3x_1^2\} - \{r_1^2\} & \{3x_1 y_1\} & \{3x_1 z_1\} \\ \{3y_1 x_1\} & \{3y_1^2\} - \{r_1^2\} & \{3y_1 z_1\} \\ \{3z_1 x_1\} & \{3z_1 y_1\} & \{3z_1^2\} - \{r_1^2\} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} \{r_1^2\} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \{r_1^2\} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \{r_1^2\} \end{bmatrix} \tag{2.58}$$

$$_e W^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_1^2} - \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial y_1 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial z_1 \partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_1 \partial y_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial y_1^2} - \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial z_1 \partial y_1} \\ \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_1 \partial z_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial y_1 \partial z_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial z_1^2} - \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} \end{bmatrix} \tag{2.59}$$

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$$E_{pot}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} \{3x_1^2\} - \{r_1^2\} & \{3x_1 y_1\} & \{3x_1 z_1\} \\ \{3y_1 x_1\} & \{3y_1^2\} - \{r_1^2\} & \{3y_1 z_1\} \\ \{3z_1 x_1\} & \{3z_1 y_1\} & \{3z_1^2\} - \{r_1^2\} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_1^2} - \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial y_1 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial z_1 \partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_1 \partial y_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial y_1^2} - \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial z_1 \partial y_1} \\ \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial x_1 \partial z_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial y_1 \partial z_1} & \frac{\partial^2 V_2(\mathbf{0})}{\partial z_1^2} - \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} \{r_1^2\} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \{r_1^2\} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \{r_1^2\} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{\Delta V_2(\mathbf{0})}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

monopole shift :

$$\frac{1}{6} \rho_2^{(0)} \cdot \rho_1 V_{as}^{(0)} = \frac{1}{6} \Delta V_2(\mathbf{0}) \langle r_1^2 \rangle = \frac{4\pi G}{6} \rho_2^{(0)} \int \rho_1(\mathbf{r}_1) r_1^2 d\mathbf{r}_1$$

only if  $m_2$  extends up to the origin !  
(i.e. impossible if always  $r_1 < r_2 \rightarrow$  this was a more general derivation)

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no overlap	monopole term	dipole term	quadrupole term
$m_1$	mass of $m_1$	position vector center of mass of $m_1$	quadrupole moment of $m_1$
$m_2$	potential by $m_2$ at origin	opposite of field by $m_2$ at origin	gradient of gravitational field by $m_2$ at origin
with overlap			
	correction depending on the size of $m_1$ and the mass contribution of $m_2$ at the origin		

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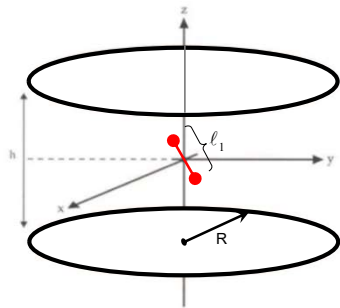
the double ring

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1

Example: a dumb-bell and a double ring.

total mass of dumbbell:  $m_1$   
total mass of double ring:  $m_2$



$\frac{r_1}{r_2} \ll 1 \quad \longrightarrow \quad \frac{l_1}{2} \ll \sqrt{\frac{h^2}{4} + R^2}$

2

monopole energy : 
$$E_{pot}^{(0)} = V_{sh}^{(0)} \cdot Q_{sh}^{(0)} = - \frac{Gm_1m_2}{\sqrt{\frac{h^2}{4} + R^2}}$$

quadrupole moment tensor of dumbbell:

$$Q_{sh}^{(2)} = \frac{3m_1l_1^2}{4} \begin{bmatrix} \sin^2\theta \cos^2\phi - \frac{1}{3} & \sin^2\theta \sin\phi \cos\phi & \sin\theta \cos\theta \cos\phi \\ \sin^2\theta \sin\phi \cos\phi & \sin^2\theta \sin^2\phi - \frac{1}{3} & \sin\theta \cos\theta \sin\phi \\ \sin\theta \cos\theta \cos\phi & \sin\theta \cos\theta \sin\phi & \cos^2\theta - \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

quadrupole field due to double ring:

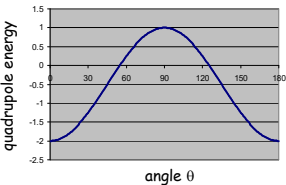
$$V_{sh}^{(2)} = - \frac{Gm_2}{8R(R^2 + \frac{h^2}{4})^{\frac{5}{2}}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{diagonal!} \rightarrow \text{PAS})$$

3

quadrupole energy :

(dot product between tensors = term by term multiplication, no matrix multiplication)

$$\frac{1}{6}Q_{sh}^{(2)} \cdot V_{sh}^{(2)} = - \underbrace{\frac{3Gm_1m_2l_1^2}{32R(R^2 + \frac{h^2}{4})^{\frac{5}{2}}}}_{\alpha} (2\cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta)$$



(picture made for  $\alpha \leq 1$ )

4

quadrupole energy :

(dot product between tensors = term by term multiplication, no matrix multiplication)

$$\frac{1}{6}Q_{sh}^{(2)} \cdot V_{sh}^{(2)} = - \underbrace{\frac{3Gm_1m_2l_1^2}{32R(R^2 + \frac{h^2}{4})^{\frac{5}{2}}}}_{\alpha} (2\cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta)$$

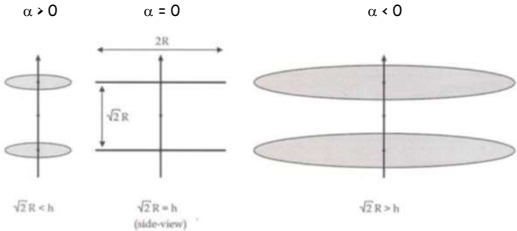


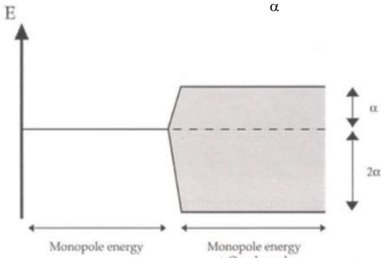
Fig. 2.6. The three distinct classes of double-ring systems.

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quadrupole energy :

(dot product between tensors = term by term multiplication, no matrix multiplication)

$$\frac{1}{6}Q_{sh}^{(2)} \cdot V_{sh}^{(2)} = - \underbrace{\frac{3Gm_1m_2l_1^2}{32R(R^2 + \frac{h^2}{4})^{\frac{5}{2}}}}_{\alpha} (2\cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta)$$



(picture for  $\alpha > 0$ )

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perturbation theory

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recapitulation: perturbation theory

Assuming we know eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of a hamiltonian  $H_0$ :

$$H_0 |n_0\rangle = E_n^0 |n_0\rangle$$

what are the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of a hamiltonian  $H$  that has the form

$$H = H_0 + \epsilon H_1 + \epsilon^2 H_2 + \dots$$

where  $\epsilon$  is a small number ( $\ll 1$ ) ?

(Note:  $H_2$  can be zero).

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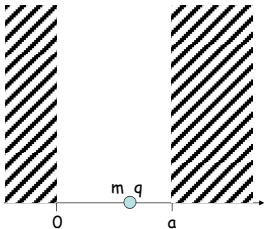
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Example 1: charged particle in an infinitely deep potential well



$$\begin{aligned} H_0 &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \\ E_{0,N} &= \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2ma^2} N^2 \quad (N = 1, 2, 3, \dots) \\ \Psi_{0,N}(x) &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin \frac{N\pi x}{a} \end{aligned}$$

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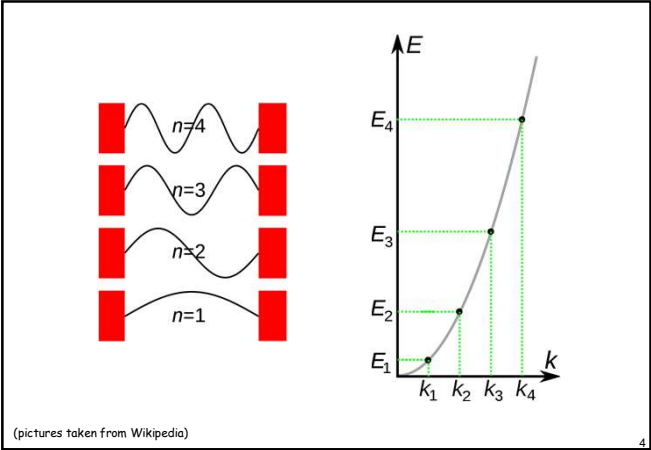
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perturbation: constant electric field

electric field :  $\vec{E}(x) = K \vec{e}_x$

potential energy:  $V(x) = -qKx$

perturbing operator:  $\hat{H}_1 = -qK\hat{x}$

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_1$$
$$= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} - qKx$$

form of hamiltonian  $\propto \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \underbrace{\frac{2qmK}{\hbar^2} x}_{\text{small if the electric field is not too strong}}$

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**recapitulation: perturbation theory**

Solution up to first order in  $\epsilon$  :

**1) non-degenerate case**

For eigenvalues that are non-degenerate (i.e.  $H_1$  does not lift any degeneracy), the new eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are given by:

$$\Delta E_n^1 = \langle n_0 | H_1 | n_0 \rangle$$
$$\Rightarrow E_{\tilde{n}} = E_n^0 + \epsilon \Delta E_n^1$$
$$|\tilde{n}_1\rangle = \sum_{m \neq n} \frac{\langle m_0 | H_1 | n_0 \rangle}{E_n^0 - E_m^0} |m_0\rangle$$
$$\Rightarrow |\tilde{n}\rangle = |n_0\rangle + \epsilon |n_1\rangle$$

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recapitulation: perturbation theory

Application to example 1:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta E_N^1 &= \langle \Psi_{0,N} | \hat{H}_1 | \Psi_{0,N} \rangle \\ &= -\frac{2qK}{a} \int x \sin^2 \frac{N\pi x}{a} dx \\ &= -\frac{qKa}{2}\end{aligned}$$

Downward shift of all levels, independent of N.

Exercise: find the wave functions and probability density.

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recapitulation: perturbation theory

Solution up to first order in  $\epsilon$ :

2) l-fold degenerate case

For eigenvalues that are degenerate (i.e.  $H_1$  does lift a degeneracy), the new eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are found by this procedure:

→ orthonormalize  
Find an orthonormal basis  $|n_0^i\rangle$  for the l-dimensional subspace

→ diagonalize  
The l energy corrections are found as the l eigenvalues of this matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle n_0^1 | \epsilon H_1 | n_0^1 \rangle & \langle n_0^1 | \epsilon H_1 | n_0^2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle n_0^1 | \epsilon H_1 | n_0^l \rangle \\ \langle n_0^2 | \epsilon H_1 | n_0^1 \rangle & \langle n_0^2 | \epsilon H_1 | n_0^2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle n_0^2 | \epsilon H_1 | n_0^l \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle n_0^l | \epsilon H_1 | n_0^1 \rangle & \langle n_0^l | \epsilon H_1 | n_0^2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle n_0^l | \epsilon H_1 | n_0^l \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

The new eigenstates are the eigenvectors of this matrix.

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recapitulation: perturbation theory

Example 2: free electron under an applied magnetic field

without field, up and down spin are degenerate:  $\Psi_\uparrow \quad \Psi_\downarrow$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{H}_0 &= \hat{\mathbb{I}} \\ \hat{H}_1 &= -\hat{\vec{\mu}} \cdot \vec{B} \\ &= -\left(\frac{-2\mu_B \hat{S}}{\hbar}\right) \cdot \vec{B}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle \Psi_\uparrow | \hat{S}_z | \Psi_\uparrow \rangle & \langle \Psi_\uparrow | \hat{S}_z | \Psi_\downarrow \rangle \\ \langle \Psi_\downarrow | \hat{S}_z | \Psi_\uparrow \rangle & \langle \Psi_\downarrow | \hat{S}_z | \Psi_\downarrow \rangle \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2}\hbar & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2}\hbar \end{bmatrix}$$

This is already diagonal.

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recapitulation: perturbation theory

A derivation and more examples can be found at  
[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Perturbation\\_theory\\_\(quantum\\_mechanics\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Perturbation_theory_(quantum_mechanics))  
(section 2.1, 2.2 and 5)

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quantum  
multipole expansion

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- We did discuss the multipole expansion for a classical system
- We did discuss the perturbation theory method
- We will now discuss the multipole expansion for a quantum system. We will conclude it is identical to the classical case, except for the role of perturbation theory.

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multipole expansion in quantum physics

1) Description of a free nucleus

$$\hat{H}_n = \hat{T}_n + \hat{U}_{nn}$$

$$\hat{H}_n |I\rangle = E_I |I\rangle$$

→ separated by keV/MeV

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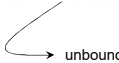
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multipole expansion in quantum physics

2) Description of a free electron cloud

$$\hat{H}_e = \hat{T}_e + \hat{U}_{ee}$$
$$\hat{H}_e |\psi_e\rangle = E_\psi |\psi_e\rangle$$


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multipole expansion in quantum physics

3) Description of nucleus that is NOT interacting with an electron cloud

$$\left(\hat{H}_n \otimes \mathbb{1} + \mathbb{1} \otimes \hat{H}_e\right) |I \otimes \psi_e\rangle = (E_I + E_\psi) |I \otimes \psi_e\rangle$$

(somewhat artificial, this is combining the two independent systems in one mathematical picture)

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multipole expansion in quantum physics

4) Description of a nucleus that is interacting with an electron cloud

Hamiltonian: 
$$\hat{H}_n \otimes \mathbb{1} + \mathbb{1} \otimes \hat{H}_e + \hat{Q} \otimes \hat{V}$$

It is the interaction term that makes life difficult. We can make a multipole expansion:

$$\hat{Q} \otimes \hat{V} = \hat{Q}^{(0)} \otimes \hat{V}^{(0)} + \hat{Q}^{(1)} \otimes \hat{V}^{(1)} + \hat{Q}^{(2)} \otimes \hat{V}^{(2)} + \dots$$

This leads to a hierarchy in energy scales (→ perturbation theory will be convenient !):

$\hat{T}_n \otimes \mathbb{1} + \hat{U}_{nn} \otimes \mathbb{1}$	$\left  T_n + U_{nn} \right $	$keV - MeV$	nuclear energy levels
$\mathbb{1} \otimes \hat{T}_e + \mathbb{1} \otimes \hat{U}_{ee} + \hat{Q}^{(0)} \otimes \hat{V}^{(0)}$	$\left  T_e + U_{ee} + E_{ne}^{(0)} \right $	$eV (meV)$	atomic energy levels
$\hat{Q}^{(1)} \otimes \hat{V}^{(1)} + \hat{Q}^{(2)} \otimes \hat{V}^{(2)}$	$\left  E_{ne}^{(1)} + E_{ne}^{(2)} \right $	$\mu eV$	hyperfine structure

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multipole expansion in quantum physics

In the multipole-expanded formal hamiltonian, we will treat all nuclear properties as phenomenological parameters that are known (Z, I, Q, μ, <r²>,...)

The electronic properties will be kept as operators, and will have to be solved for.

$$\underbrace{\hat{H}_n \otimes \mathbb{1} + \mathbb{1} \otimes \hat{H}_e + \hat{Q}^{(0)} \otimes \hat{V}^{(0)}}_{\text{known}} + \underbrace{\hat{Q}^{(1)} \otimes \hat{V}^{(1)}}_{\substack{\hat{H}_1 \\ \text{small correction}}} + \dots$$

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multipole expansion in quantum physics

Solution of the usual problem:

$$E_0 = \langle \psi_e^{(0)} \otimes I | \hat{H}_0 | I \otimes \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle$$

this wave function can be considered as known  
(found by ab initio calculations for atoms, molecules or solids)

$$E_{tot} \approx E_0 + \underbrace{\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \otimes I | \hat{H}_1 | I \otimes \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle}_{\text{energy corrections due to nuclear shape are computable ! (first order perturbation)}}$$

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multipole expansion in quantum physics  
(charge-charge interaction)

➡ The gravitational problem is fully equivalent to the quantum problem, except for the need to use perturbation theory.

Translation for the charge-charge interaction:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle &= \langle I | I \rangle = 1 = \int \psi_n^*(r_n) \psi_n(r_n) dr_n = \frac{1}{Ze} \int \rho_n(r_n) dr_n \\ \langle \psi_e | \psi_e \rangle &= 1 = \int \psi_e^*(r_e) \psi_e(r_e) dr_e = -\frac{1}{Ne} \int \rho_e(r_e) dr_e \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} G &\leftrightarrow \frac{-1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \\ \mathbf{r}_1 &\leftrightarrow \mathbf{r}_n \\ \mathbf{r}_2 &\leftrightarrow \mathbf{r}_e \\ m_1 &\leftrightarrow eZ \\ m_2 &\leftrightarrow -eN \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E_{pot} &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_n \int_e \frac{\rho_n(r_n) \rho_e(r_e)}{|\mathbf{r}_e - \mathbf{r}_n|} d\mathbf{r}_n d\mathbf{r}_e \\ &= -\frac{e^2 N Z}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \langle \psi_e \otimes I | \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_e - \mathbf{r}_n|} | I \otimes \psi_e \rangle \end{aligned}$$

multipole expansion

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## 10

## 11

## 12

multipole expansion in quantum physics  
(current-current interaction)

Vector potential due to a given current distribution:  $A(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}')}{|\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}|} d\mathbf{r}'$

Energy for the interaction between two current distributions :

$$E_{pot}^{jj} = \int_n \mathbf{j}_n(\mathbf{r}_n) \cdot \mathbf{A}_e(\mathbf{r}_n) d\mathbf{r}_n$$
$$= \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int_n \int_e \frac{\mathbf{j}_n(\mathbf{r}_n) \cdot \mathbf{j}_e(\mathbf{r}_e)}{|\mathbf{r}_e - \mathbf{r}_n|} d\mathbf{r}_n d\mathbf{r}_e$$

Multipole expansion (different mathematics due to vector quantities) :

$$\hat{H}_{jj} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{B^{(n)} \cdot M^{(n)}}{2n+1}$$

• nuclear magnetic multipole moments  
• magnetic multipole fields

Even terms vanish – dipole term is the leading one :

dipole hamiltonian:  $-\hat{\mu}_I \cdot \hat{B}(0)$

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multipole expansion in quantum physics  
(summary / overview)

We want to have the energy corrections due to  $H_1$ , with and without overlap :

$$\hat{H} \approx \hat{T}_n + \hat{U}_{nn} + \underbrace{\hat{T}_e + \hat{U}_{ee}}_{H_0} - \frac{e^2 N Z}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_e} +$$
$$\underbrace{- \frac{e^2 N Z}{5\epsilon_0} \left( \frac{r_n^2}{r_e^3} Y^2(\theta_e, \phi_e) \cdot Y^2(\theta_n, \phi_n) \right)}_{H_1} - \hat{\mu}_I \cdot \hat{B}(0)$$

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multipole expansion in quantum physics  
(summary / overview)

Fig. 3.1	monopole	dipole	quadrupole	octupole
charge-charge (no overlap)	"normal" electronic structure [a] $Q \cdot \nabla(0)$		electric-field gradient [b] $Q \otimes \nabla^2(0)$	
charge-charge (overlap)	isotope shift [c] $Q(\mathbf{r}) \cdot \nabla(\mathbf{r})$		(too small) [e]	
current-current (no overlap)		orbital field spin dipolar field [d] $\mathbf{j}_e \cdot \mathbf{B}_e$		(too small)
current-current (overlap)		Fermi contact field [d] $\mathbf{j}_e \cdot \mathbf{B}_e$ Bohr-Weiskopf		(too small)

Fig. 3.1. A schematic overview of all contributions to electric (charge-charge) and magnetic (current-current) hyperfine fields, ordered according to their multipole order, and split into shape-dependent and size-dependent contribution. Contributions that do not exist are barred, contributions that are too small to be relevant are indicated. When a dashed line is present in a box, the contribution above the line does not vanish for a point nucleus, while the contribution below the line does. Explaining this scheme is the task of chapters 4 to 7.

(the letters in square brackets refer to the next page).

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multipole expansion in quantum physics (summary / overview)				
order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
$\mathcal{O}(0)$	$M \propto r^0 Y_{00}$ $V \propto v(0)$ } MI [a]	$\tilde{M}^{(1)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\}$ $\tilde{V}^{(1)} \propto \Delta v(0)$ } MS <sup>(1)</sup> [d]	$\tilde{M}^{(2)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{00}\}$ $\tilde{V}^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 v(0)$ } MS <sup>(2)</sup>	...
$\mathcal{O}(2)$	$Q \propto r^2 Y_{20}$ $V_{ij} \propto \partial_{ij} v(0)$ } QI [b]	$\tilde{Q}^{(1)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{20}\}$ $\tilde{V}_i^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta v(0)$ } QS <sup>(1)</sup> [e]	$\tilde{Q}^{(2)} \propto \{r^6 Y_{20}\}$ $\tilde{V}_{ij}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta^2 v(0)$ } QS <sup>(2)</sup>	...
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...	...	...	...	...

Table 1. Systematic overview of nuclear multipole and quasi multipole moments and electronic multipole and quasi multipole fields that appear in the multipole expansion of for two interacting (and overlapping) classical charge distributions. The first column gives the regular multipole expansion for point nuclei: the monopole interaction (labeled by [a]) which provides the unperturbed hamiltonian in a quantum frame-work. This is perturbed by [b] the quadrupole and [c] the hexadecapole interaction. The next columns give the quasi multipole moments/fields for every multipole interaction, denoted by a tilde. They provide first order corrections (shifts) to the multipole interactions of the first column, due to the extendability of the nucleus. The box labeled [d] gives rise to the isomer/isotope shift, while the box labeled [e] is the main topic of the present paper. Colored (gray) text is by extrapolation only, and is not systematically derived in this paper. The objects in each line are spherical tensors of a given rank (rank 0 for line 1, rank 2 for line 2, rank 4 for line 3, ...).

- multipole interaction
- first order multipole shift
- second order multipole shift
- ...

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summary

The quantum case is as the classical (gravitation) case, apart from perturbation theory.

We have a roadmap of the kind of interactions we have to study.

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# monopole shift

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## overview for the charge-charge case

order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
$\mathcal{O}(0)$	$M \propto r^0 Y_{00}$ $V \propto v(0)$ } MI [a]	$M^{(1)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(1)} \propto \Delta v(0)$ } MS <sup>(1)</sup> [d]	$M^{(2)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 v(0)$ } MS <sup>(2)</sup>	...
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- multipole interaction
- first order multipole shift
- second order multipole shift
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## overview for the charge-charge case

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...	...	...	...	...

This is what one usually does.

Example for a single atom (if Z=1 : hydrogen) :

$$Q_{00} = \frac{\sqrt{4\pi}}{\sqrt{4\pi}} \int \rho_n(\vec{r}) d\vec{r}$$
$$= eZ$$
$$V_{00} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\sqrt{4\pi}}{\sqrt{4\pi}} \int \frac{\rho_e(\vec{r})}{r} d\vec{r}$$
$$= \frac{-e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \langle \Psi_e | \frac{1}{r} | \Psi_e \rangle$$

$$E_0^{(0)} = Q_{00}V_{00}$$
$$= \frac{-e^2 Z}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \langle \Psi_e | \frac{1}{r} | \Psi_e \rangle$$

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overview for the charge-charge case

order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
$\mathcal{O}(0)$	$M \propto r^0 Y_{00}$ $V \propto v(0)$ } MI [a]	$M^{(1)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(1)} \propto \Delta v(0)$ } MS <sup>(1)</sup> [d]	$M^{(2)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 v(0)$ } MS <sup>(2)</sup>	...
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...	...	...	...	...

This is what one usually does.

Example for a single atom (if Z=1 : hydrogen) :

E

n=3

n=2

n=1

non-relativistic hydrogen levels

$E_0^{(0)} = Q_{00} V_{00}$   
 $= -\frac{e^2 Z}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \langle \Psi_e | \frac{1}{r} | \Psi_e \rangle$

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overview for the charge-charge case

order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
$\mathcal{O}(0)$	$M \propto r^0 Y_{00}$ $V \propto v(0)$ } MI [a]	$M^{(1)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(1)} \propto \Delta v(0)$ } MS <sup>(1)</sup> [d]	$M^{(2)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 v(0)$ } MS <sup>(2)</sup>	...
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...	...	...	...	...

Corrections due to the shape of the nucleus (quadrupole moment, hexadecapole moment,...) in the case without overlap

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overview for the charge-charge case

order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
$\mathcal{O}(0)$	$M \propto r^0 Y_{00}$ $V \propto v(0)$ } MI [a]	$M^{(1)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(1)} \propto \Delta v(0)$ } MS <sup>(1)</sup> [d]	$M^{(2)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 v(0)$ } MS <sup>(2)</sup>	...
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...	...	...	...	...

The influence of overlap:

- first order monopole shift (well-known)
- first order quadrupole shift (recent advancement)
- first order hexadecapole shift (extremely small)

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overview for the charge-charge case

order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
$\mathcal{O}(0)$	$\left. \begin{matrix} M \propto r^0 Y_{00} \\ V \propto v(0) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{MI [a]}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \tilde{M}^{(1)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\} \\ \tilde{V}^{(1)} \propto \Delta v(0) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{MS}^{(1)} \text{ [d]}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \tilde{M}^{(2)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{00}\} \\ \tilde{V}^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 v(0) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{MS}^{(2)}$	...
$\mathcal{O}(2)$	$\left. \begin{matrix} Q \propto r^2 Y_{20} \\ V_{ij} \propto \partial_{ij} v(0) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{QI [b]}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \tilde{Q}^{(1)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{20}\} \\ \tilde{V}_i^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta v(0) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{QS}^{(1)} \text{ [c]}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \tilde{Q}^{(2)} \propto \{r^6 Y_{20}\} \\ \tilde{V}_{ij}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta^2 v(0) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{QS}^{(2)}$	...
$\mathcal{O}(4)$	$\left. \begin{matrix} H \propto r^4 Y_{40} \\ V_{ijkl} \propto \partial_{ijkl} v(0) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{HDI [c]}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \tilde{H}^{(1)} \propto \{r^6 Y_{40}\} \\ \tilde{V}_{ijkl}^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta v(0) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{HDS}^{(1)}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \tilde{H}^{(2)} \propto \{r^8 Y_{40}\} \\ \tilde{V}_{ijkl}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta^2 v(0) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{HDS}^{(2)}$	...
...	...	...	...	...

The influence of overlap:

- second order monopole shift (known but exotic)
- (the rest is too small)

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first-order monopole shift

monopole term, no overlap :

$$\begin{aligned} E_{sh}^{qq(0)} &= E_I + \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \otimes I \left| \hat{T}_e + \hat{U}_{ee} - \frac{e^2 N Z}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_e} \right| I \otimes \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle \\ &= \underbrace{E_I + E_e + E_{ee}}_{E_\alpha} - \frac{e^2 N Z}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \langle I | I \rangle \underbrace{\left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \left| \frac{1}{r_e} \right| \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle}_{\left\langle \frac{1}{r_e} \right\rangle} \\ &= E_\alpha - \frac{e^2 N Z}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left\langle \frac{1}{r_e} \right\rangle \end{aligned}$$

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first-order monopole shift

monopole term, with overlap :

Look back at the gravitational result :

monopole shift :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{6} {}_e Q_{sz}^{(0)} \cdot {}_e V_{sz}^{(0)} &= \frac{1}{6} \Delta V_2(0) \langle r_1^2 \rangle \\ &= \frac{4\pi G}{6} \rho_2(0) \int \rho_1(r_1) r_1^2 dr_1 \end{aligned}$$

only if  $m_2$  extends up to the origin !

Translate this to operators/expectation values for the quantum case:

monopole shift  $\propto$

$$\langle \Psi_e \otimes I | \underbrace{\hat{\delta}(\vec{r}) \otimes \hat{r}^2}_{\text{small perturbation operator}} | \Psi_e \otimes I \rangle$$

unperturbed wave function

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first-order monopole shift

Final result :

$$E_{qq}^{(0)} = E_{\alpha} - \frac{e^2NZ}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left\langle \frac{1}{r_e} \right\rangle - \frac{eZ}{6\epsilon_0} \rho_e(\mathbf{0}) \langle r_n^2 \rangle$$

or

$$E_{qq}^{(0)} = E_{\alpha} + \underbrace{\tilde{Q} \left\{ -\frac{eN}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left\langle \frac{1}{r_e} \right\rangle \right\}}_{\text{monopole field = potential at the nucleus, depends on integral property of electrons.}} + \underbrace{\tilde{Q} \left\{ -\frac{1}{6\epsilon_0} \rho_e(\mathbf{0}) \langle r_n^2 \rangle \right\}}_{\text{Extra potential at the nucleus, depends on point property of electrons and integral property of nucleus.}}$$

monopole moment =  $eZ$

monopole field = potential at the nucleus, depends on integral property of electrons.

Extra potential at the nucleus, depends on point property of electrons and integral property of nucleus.

- Vanishes if :
- the nucleus is a point, or
  - the electrons do not enter the nucleus

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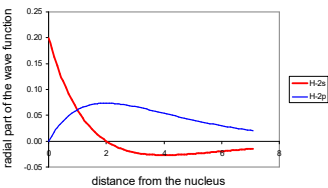
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do electrons enter the nucleus ?

Go back to the H-atoms and check the equations on <http://winter.group.shef.ac.uk/orbitron/> (take any orbital at the left, then choose the tab 'equations' on top).



Estimate the order of magnitude of the monopole shift energy (use the non-relativistic equation for H-atom s wave functions, and the nuclear radius trend seen in the first lecture.

- non-relativistic s-electrons do have a non-zero wave-function at  $r=0$ .
- the same holds for relativistic  $p_{1/2}$  electrons

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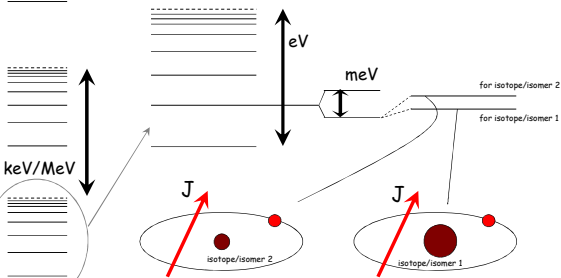
the electric monopole shift

$I_3$

$I_2$

$I_1$

The monopole shift is always positive.



2 isotopes of the same element may have different radii : **isotope shift**  
2 states (isomers) of the same nucleus may have different radii : **isomer shift**

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experimental consequence: isotope shift

What:  
levels in the atomic spectra of different isotopes  
of the same element are shifted (by the  
monopole shift).

We will later encounter the *isomer shift* :  
for the same isotope, levels do depend on the  
nuclear state ("isomer").

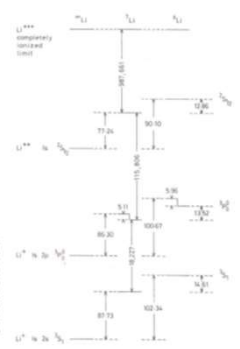


Fig. 4.1. Calculated mass shifts in free Li ions. All energies are relative to the completely ionized limit. Energies are expressed in cm<sup>-1</sup> (multiply by 0.1239 to get values in μeV). For instance, the 7S<sub>1/2</sub> configuration (2P<sup>2</sup> 3P<sup>2</sup> with the two spins parallel) is infinitely being 2P<sup>2</sup> has an energy shift in 2S<sub>1/2</sub> cm<sup>-1</sup> (26.00 μeV) lower than the same configuration in 2P<sup>2</sup> and 20.00 μeV (2.44 μeV) lower than in configuration in 2P<sup>2</sup>. Comparisons with an infinitely being are correct to checked or approximately, but the difference of 1.44 cm<sup>-1</sup> (1.74 μeV) between the 2P<sup>2</sup> configurations of 2P<sup>2</sup> and 2P<sup>2</sup> is given in experiment. Similar interpretations can be made for the 8R<sub>1/2</sub> configuration, while the 7P<sub>1/2</sub> configuration contains configurations not discussed in this text. (Data from Isotope Shifts in Atomic Spectra, W. R. King, Plenum Press, 1984.)

(shifts in this picture are due to the mass of the isotope  
– see lecture 2 – as well as to the isotope shift)

overview for the charge-charge case

order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
O(0)	$M \propto r^0 Y_{00}$ $V \propto v(0)$	$M^{(1)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(1)} \propto \Delta v(0)$	$M^{(2)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 v(0)$	...
O(2)	$Q \propto r^2 Y_{20}$ $V_{ij} \propto \partial_{ij} v(0)$	$Q^{(1)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{20}\}$ $V_{ij}^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta v(0)$	$Q^{(2)} \propto \{r^6 Y_{20}\}$ $V_{ij}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta^2 v(0)$	...
O(4)	$H \propto r^4 Y_{40}$ $V_{ijkl} \propto \partial_{ijkl} v(0)$	$H^{(1)} \propto \{r^6 Y_{40}\}$ $V_{ijkl}^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta v(0)$	$H^{(2)} \propto \{r^8 Y_{40}\}$ $V_{ijkl}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta^2 v(0)$	...
...	...	...	...	...

The influence of overlap:

- second order monopole shift (known but exotic)

- much smaller (4<sup>th</sup> power of the nuclear radius)
- nevertheless relevant for exotic cases: muonic atoms  
(atoms where one of the electrons is replaced by a much heavier muon → closer to the nucleus, more overlap)

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Exotic\\_atom#Muonic\\_atoms](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Exotic_atom#Muonic_atoms)

a toy model for  
the monopole shift

www.hyperfinecourse.org

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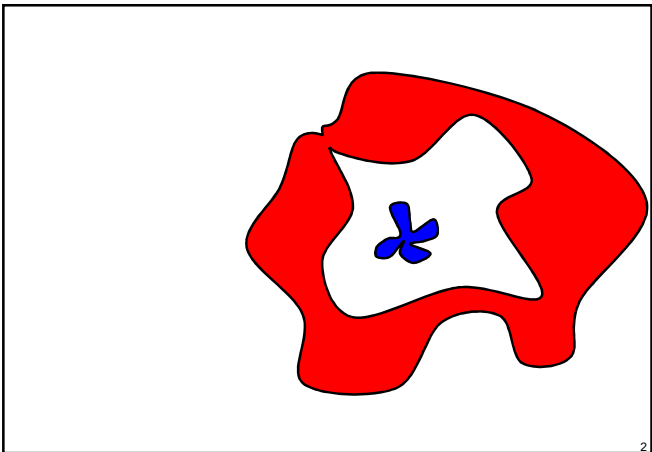
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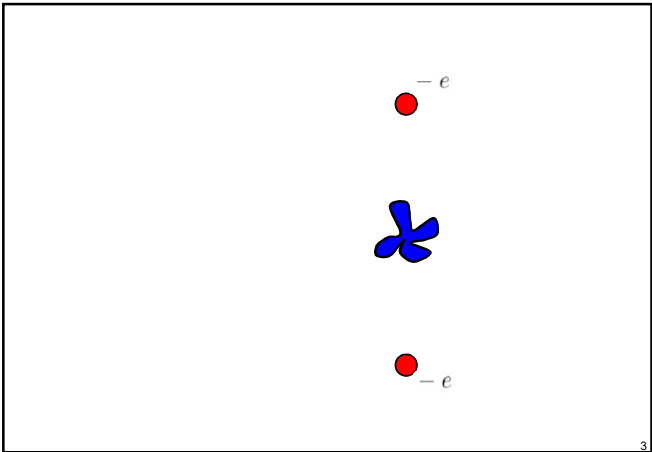
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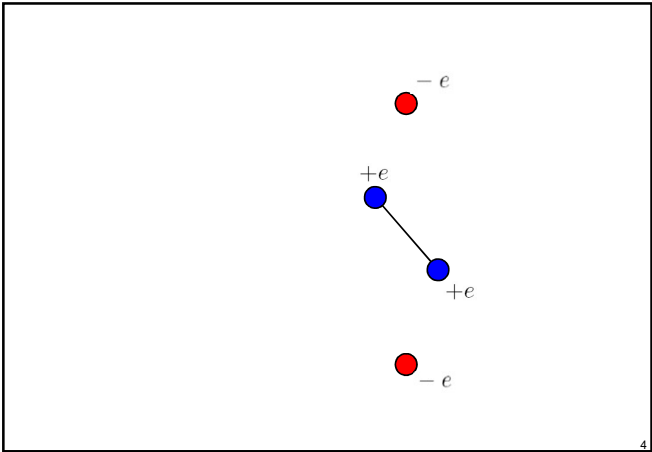
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Exactly solvable classical toy model : no electrons in nucleus

a)

b)

$2\ell$

$2d$

$\theta$

$\phi$

$tm0$

$$E_0(\theta) = -2C \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{\ell^2 \sin^2 \theta + (d - \ell \cos \theta)^2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\ell^2 \sin^2 \theta + (d + \ell \cos \theta)^2}} \right) \quad C = e^2 / (4\pi\epsilon_0)$$

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Exactly solvable classical toy model : no electrons in nucleus

a)

b)

$2\ell$

$2d$

$\theta$

$\phi$

$tm0$

The graph shows the interaction energy as a function of the angle  $\theta$  in degrees. The x-axis ranges from 0 to 180 degrees, and the y-axis ranges from -3.95 to -4.20. There are several curves: a solid orange line for  $E_0$ , a solid blue line for  $E_A$ , a solid cyan line for  $E_B$ , a dashed orange line for  $E_{tm0}$ , a dashed blue line for  $E_{avA}$ , a dashed cyan line for  $E_{avB}$ , and a dashed light blue line for  $E_{av}$ . The curves show oscillatory behavior with peaks and troughs.

$$E_0(\theta) = -2C \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{\ell^2 \sin^2 \theta + (d - \ell \cos \theta)^2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\ell^2 \sin^2 \theta + (d + \ell \cos \theta)^2}} \right) \quad C = e^2 / (4\pi\epsilon_0)$$

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# magnetic hyperfine interaction in free atoms

www.hyperfinecourse.org

1

## magnetic hyperfine interaction in free atoms

or

coupling of  
angular momenta :  
from L-S to I-J

stefaan.cottenier@ugent.be

2

### coupling of angular momenta: L-S

We'll remind first what you saw in earlier courses on the coupling of orbital and spin angular momenta in an atom:

The problem: "For a given shell (n,l), how do a given number of electrons occupy the available orbitals?"

Example: C (n=2, l=1), 2 p-electrons

There are 6 different orbitals ( $m_l = -1, 0, +1$  and this for either spin), hence  $6 \times 2 = 12$  possibilities to put these 2 electrons. Which of those 12 possibilities has the lowest energy (and will therefore be found as the ground state in Nature)?

Hund's rules provide you with an algorithm to find this ground state (no mathematical justification – these rules were originally derived from experimental trends)

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### coupling of angular momenta: L-S

#### 1<sup>st</sup> Hund's rule

Only configurations where the total S is maximal should be considered further.

S is found as the absolute value of the sum of all  $m_s$  values

Our example: only states with  $S=1$  (twice  $m_s = +1/2$  or twice  $m_s = -1/2$ ) should be considered further.

#### 2<sup>nd</sup> Hund's rule

Within the previous set, only configurations where the total L is maximal should be considered further.

L is found as the absolute value of the sum of all  $m_l$  values

Our example: states with  $S=1$  cannot contain 2 electrons in the same  $m_l$  orbital. Hence, the maximal L is  $L=1$  (two electrons in  $m_l = +1, 0$ , or in  $m_l = -1, 0$ )

4

4

### coupling of angular momenta: L-S

How many of our 36 states are left if we restrict ourselves to  $S=1$  and  $L=1$ ?

Two ways to count:

#### First way :

$S=1$  can have three different orientations ( $2S+1=3$ ;  $m_s = -1, 0, +1$ )  
 $L=1$  can have three different orientations ( $2L+1=3$ ;  $m_l = -1, 0, +1$ )

→  $3 \times 3 = 9$  out of 36

#### Second way:

Angular momenta coupling rules:  $S=1$  and  $L=1$  can couple to  $J=L+S, \dots, |L-S| = 2, 1, 0$   
 Each J-value has  $2J+1$  orientations: 5, 3, 1

→  $5+3+1=9$  out of 36

5

5

### coupling of angular momenta: L-S

Which of the remaining (9) states is the ground state?

- If there is no interaction between L and S, all these states are degenerate.
- If there is interaction (spin-orbit coupling), some will have a lower energy than others

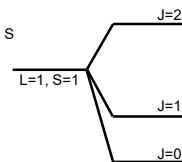
#### 3<sup>rd</sup> Hund's rule

Of the remaining states, those with the lowest energy are the ones with

- J minimal if the shell is less than half-filled
- J maximal if the shell is more than half-filled

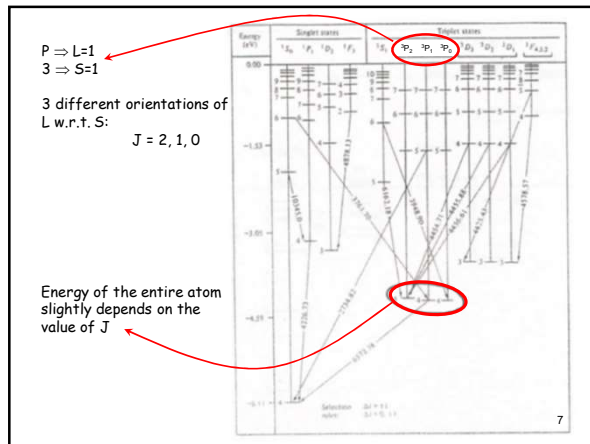
Physical picture: mutual orientation of L and S

Example: 2 electrons in a p-shell is less than half-filled  
 → J=0 has the lowest energy.



6

6



7

### coupling of angular momenta: L-S

Landé's interval rule:

$$\frac{E_J - E_{J-1}}{E_{J-1} - E_{J-2}} = \frac{J}{J-1}$$

8

### coupling of angular momenta: I-J

A nucleus with spin  $I$  has  $2I+1$  possible orientations.  
An electron cloud with total angular momentum  $J$  has  $2J+1$  possible orientations.

If there is no interaction between  $I$  and  $J$ , all these  $(2I+1)(2J+1)$  possibilities have the same energy.

$I$  is related to the nuclear magnetic moment (dipole moment for the current-current case)  
Each  $J$  state provides a specific magnetic hyperfine field (dipole field for the current-current case)

- $I$  and  $J$  do interact
- which mutual orientation of  $I$  and  $J$  corresponds to the lowest energy?

We will discuss this in terms of a new total angular momentum  $F$ :

$$F = I+J, I+J-1, \dots, |I-J|$$

Each value of  $F$  corresponds to a different mutual orientation of  $I$  and  $J$ .  
For a given  $F$ , different values of  $m_F$  correspond to a rotation of the atom as a whole (mutual orientation is unaffected).

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### coupling of angular momenta: I-J

nuclear magnetic moment operator

$$\hat{\mu}_I = \frac{\mu}{I\hbar} \hat{I}$$

experimentally known – the 'size' of the nuclear magnetic moment (scalar).

Magnetic hyperfine field operator:

$$\hat{B}_J = \frac{B_J}{J\hbar} \hat{J}$$

Let us consider this for the time being as known (experimentally or computable).

The perturbing hamiltonian  $H_{ij}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H}_{ij} &= -\hat{\mu}_I \cdot \mathbf{B}(0) \\ &= -\frac{\mu B_J}{\hbar^2 I J} \hat{I} \cdot \hat{J} \\ &= -\frac{\mu B_J}{2\hbar^2 I J} (\hat{F}^2 - \hat{I}^2 - \hat{J}^2) \end{aligned}$$

Use  $\hat{F}^2 = \hat{F}^2 = (\hat{I} + \hat{J})^2 = \hat{I}^2 + \hat{J}^2 + 2\hat{I} \cdot \hat{J}$

10

### coupling of angular momenta: I-J

Apply perturbation theory

The states of the unperturbed system are the  $|F\rangle$  (direct product of  $|I\rangle$  and  $|J\rangle$ )

The perturbing hamiltonian is likely to lift degeneracies  
→ perturbation theory for the degenerate case

Fortunately the  $|F\rangle$  states are orthonormal already (property of angular momentum eigenstates)

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle 0 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 0 \rangle & \langle 1 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 0 \rangle & \langle 2 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 0 \rangle & \langle 3 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 0 \rangle \\ \langle 0 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 1 \rangle & \langle 1 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 1 \rangle & \langle 2 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 1 \rangle & \langle 3 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 1 \rangle \\ \langle 0 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 2 \rangle & \langle 1 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 2 \rangle & \langle 2 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 2 \rangle & \langle 3 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 2 \rangle \\ \langle 0 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 3 \rangle & \langle 1 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 3 \rangle & \langle 2 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 3 \rangle & \langle 3 | \hat{H}_{ij} | 3 \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

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### coupling of angular momenta: I-J

Only diagonal matrix elements will survive:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle F | \hat{H}_{ij} | F \rangle &= -\frac{\mu B_J}{2\hbar^2 I J} \langle F | \hat{F}^2 - \hat{I}^2 - \hat{J}^2 | F \rangle \\ &= -\frac{\mu B_J}{2\hbar^2 I J} \hbar^2 \underbrace{(F(F+1) - I(I+1) - J(J+1))}_C \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} a C \end{aligned}$$

Hence, no diagonalization needed, the matrix is already diagonal and the eigenvalues (=energy corrections) can be read right away:

$$-\frac{1}{2} a \begin{bmatrix} C_{00} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & C_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & C_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & C_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

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## coupling of angular momenta: I-J

Energy difference between two subsequent transitions (cfr. Landé interval rule):

$$\frac{E_F - E_{F-1}}{E_{F-1} - E_{F-2}} = \frac{F(F+1) - (F-1)F}{(F-1)F - (F-2)(F-1)} = \frac{F}{F-1}$$

Level scheme :

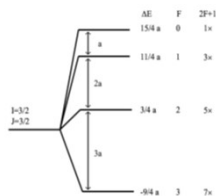


Fig. 5.1. Magnetic hyperfine splitting for an atom with nuclear spin  $I = 3/2$  and electronic spin  $J = 3/2$ . The energy of the total system depends on how  $I$  and  $J$  are oriented with respect to each other, which is given by the new total spin  $F$ . The picture uses a correct scale. The right column gives the degeneracy of each level. The hyperfine variant of the Landé interval rule is illustrated as well.

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## coupling of angular momenta: I-J

This formalism applies to

- free atoms or free ions [rigorously]
- atoms in ionic compounds (salts) [qualitatively]

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## magnetic hyperfine interaction in solids

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1

### magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids

The presence of a crystal lattice in a solid breaks the rotational invariance of space – which is required to get to the concept of  $|F\rangle$  etc.

→ different formalism needed.

The magnetic hyperfine field will have a fixed direction in space (not yet determined/specified which direction). Take the z-axis of your axis system along this direction. (This means we work in a PAS for the dipole interaction – see later.)

Perturbation theory:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{jj} &= - \langle I | \hat{\mu}_I | I \rangle \cdot \langle \psi_e^{(0)} | \hat{B}(0) | \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle \\
 &= - \langle I | \hat{\mu}_I | I \rangle \cdot B(0) \\
 &= - \langle I | \hat{\mu}_{I,z} | I \rangle B(0)
 \end{aligned}$$

wave function for the point nucleus solid

nuclear wave function

2

### magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids

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 &= - \langle I | \hat{\mu}_I | I \rangle \cdot B(0) \\
 &= - \langle I | \hat{\mu}_{I,z} | I \rangle B(0)
 \end{aligned}$$

wave function for the point nucleus solid

nuclear wave function

computable by point-nucleus DFT codes

3

3

### magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids

We don't know explicit expression for the nuclear wave functions – how to overcome ?

$$\hat{\mu}_I = \frac{\mu}{I\hbar} \hat{I}$$

$$\hat{I} = \hat{I}_x \mathbf{e}_x + \hat{I}_y \mathbf{e}_y + \hat{I}_z \mathbf{e}_z$$

$$\hat{I}_+ = \hat{I}_x + i\hat{I}_y \quad \hat{I}_+ |I, m_I\rangle = \sqrt{I(I+1) - m_I(m_I+1)} \hbar |I, m_I+1\rangle$$

$$\hat{I}_- = \hat{I}_x - i\hat{I}_y \quad \hat{I}_- |I, m_I\rangle = \sqrt{I(I+1) - m_I(m_I-1)} \hbar |I, m_I-1\rangle$$

Rewrite the magnetic moment operator as a sum of operators for which the nuclear states are eigenfunctions – the eigenvalues depend on quantities that can be experimentally determined.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{\mu}_{Ix} &= \frac{\mu}{2I\hbar} (\hat{I}_+ + \hat{I}_-) \\
 \hat{\mu}_{Iy} &= \frac{\mu}{2I\hbar} \frac{1}{i} (\hat{I}_+ - \hat{I}_-) \\
 \hat{\mu}_{Iz} &= \frac{\mu}{I\hbar} \hat{I}_z
 \end{aligned}$$

4

4

### magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids

In this way, we can express the nuclear matrix element that we need in terms of the experimentally accessible quantities  $\mu$  and  $I$ :

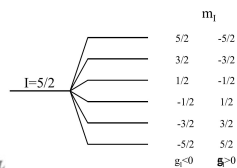
$$\langle m'_I, I | \hat{\mu}_z | I, m_I \rangle = \frac{\mu}{I} m_I \delta_{m'_I, m_I}$$

(i.e. we circumvent the lack of nuclear physics theoretical knowledge by using experimental input).

$$E_{jj}^{m_I} = - \frac{\mu m_I}{I} B_{hf}$$

Equidistant:

$$E_{hf}^{m_I+1} - E_{hf}^{m_I} = - g_I \mu_N B_{hf} = \hbar \omega_L$$



5

### Intermezzo: physical meaning of $g_I$

Two vector properties of the nucleus:  $I$  and  $\mu$

( $\mu$  is related to interaction with magnetic fields,  $I$  plays a role in the weak interaction)

$$\text{They are related to each other by } g_I: \hat{\mu} = \frac{g_I \mu_N}{\hbar} \hat{I}$$

The sign of  $g_I$  determines the orientation of  $\mu$  w.r.t.  $I$

Gyromagnetic ratio:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{\mu} &= \gamma \hat{I} \\
 \gamma &= \frac{g_I \mu_N}{\hbar}
 \end{aligned}$$



6

6



## magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids

In this way, we can express the nuclear matrix element that we need in terms of the experimentally accessible quantities  $\mu$  and  $I$ :

$$\langle m'_I, I | \hat{\mu}_z | I, m_I \rangle = \frac{\mu}{I} m_I \delta_{m'_I, m_I}$$

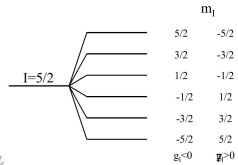
(i.e. we circumvent the lack of nuclear physics theoretical knowledge by using experimental input).

$$E_{\text{hf}}^{m_I} = -\frac{\mu m_I}{I} B_{\text{hf}}$$

computable

Equidistant:

$$E_{\text{hf}}^{m_I+1} - E_{\text{hf}}^{m_I} = -g_I \mu_N B_{\text{hf}} = \hbar \omega_L$$



7

magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids  
the hyperfine field operator

Without derivation:

$$B(0) = -\frac{\mu_B \mu_0}{2\pi \hbar} \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \left| \frac{\mathbf{L}_i}{r^3} \right| \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle + \frac{\mu_B \mu_0}{4\pi} \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \left| \frac{\boldsymbol{\sigma} - 3(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{e}_r) \mathbf{e}_r}{r^3} \right| \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle + -\frac{2\mu_B \mu_0}{3} \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \left| \boldsymbol{\sigma} \delta(\mathbf{r}) \right| \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle$$

8

8

magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids  
the hyperfine field operator

Without derivation:

$$B(0) = -\frac{\mu_B \mu_0}{2\pi \hbar} \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \left| \frac{\mathbf{L}_i}{r^3} \right| \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle + \frac{\mu_B \mu_0}{4\pi} \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \left| \frac{\boldsymbol{\sigma} - 3(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{e}_r) \mathbf{e}_r}{r^3} \right| \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle + -\frac{2\mu_B \mu_0}{3} \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \left| \boldsymbol{\sigma} \delta(\mathbf{r}) \right| \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle$$

- orbital contribution
- spin dipolar contribution
- Fermi contact contribution

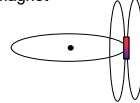
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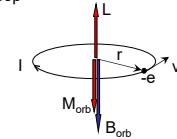
magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids  
the hyperfine field operator

$$B_{\text{tot}} = B_{\text{dip}} + B_{\text{orb}} + B_{\text{Fermi}}$$

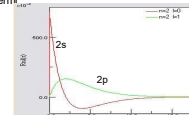
>  $B_{\text{dip}}$  = electron as bar magnet



>  $B_{\text{orb}}$  = electron as current loop



>  $B_{\text{Fermi}}$  = electron in nucleus



(+ other contributions from the atomic moments of neighbouring atoms – Lorentz construction; too much detail for our purpose)

$$-\frac{2\mu_B \mu_0}{3} \left( |\psi_{e,\uparrow}(0)|^2 - |\psi_{e,\downarrow}(0)|^2 \right)$$

10

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magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids  
case studies

bcc-Fe

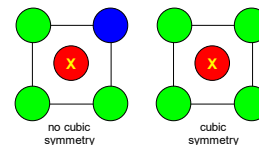
orbital hyperfine field:	9.6 T
dipolar hyperfine field:	-0.03 T
Fermi contact hyperfine field:	
1s+2s+3s (core):	-41.2 T
4s (valence):	-3.7 T
Sum:	-35.3 T

11

11

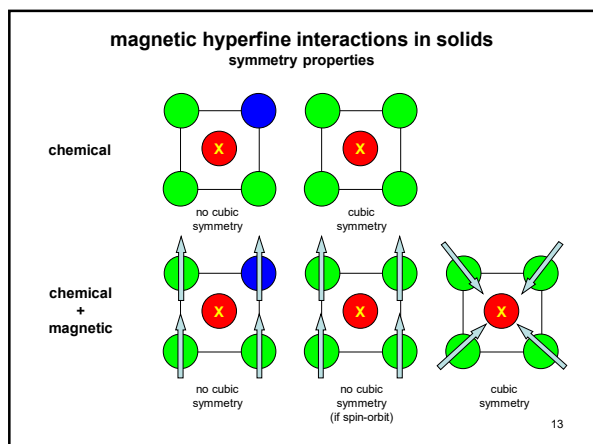
magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids  
symmetry properties

chemical

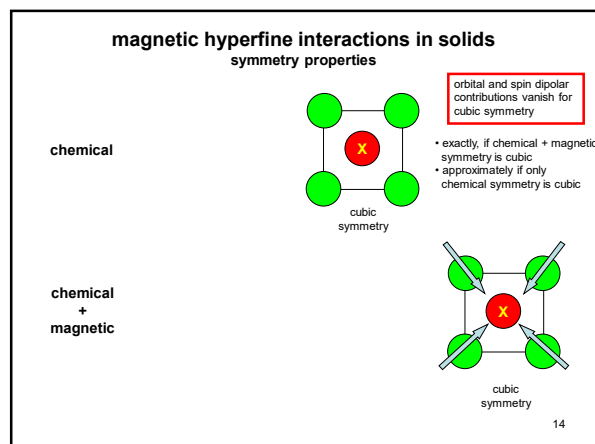


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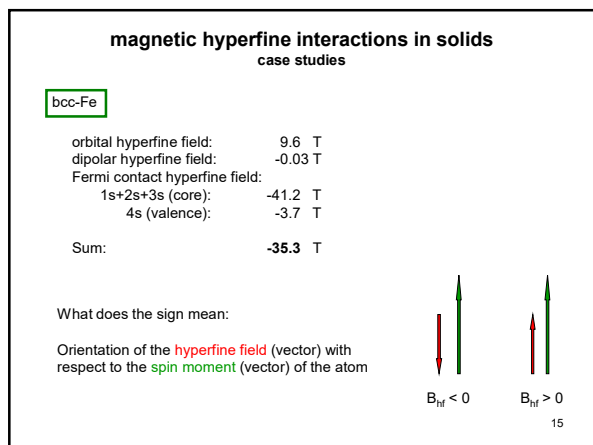
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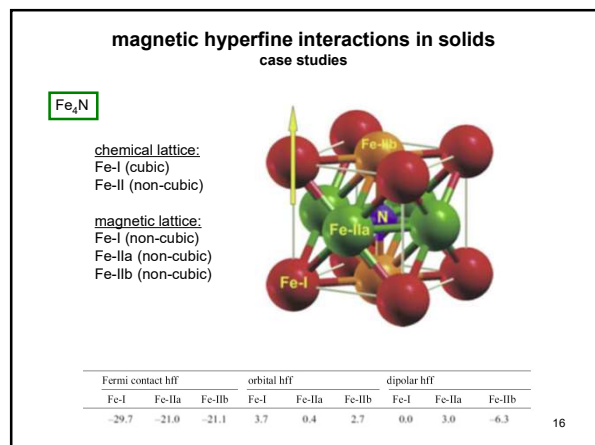
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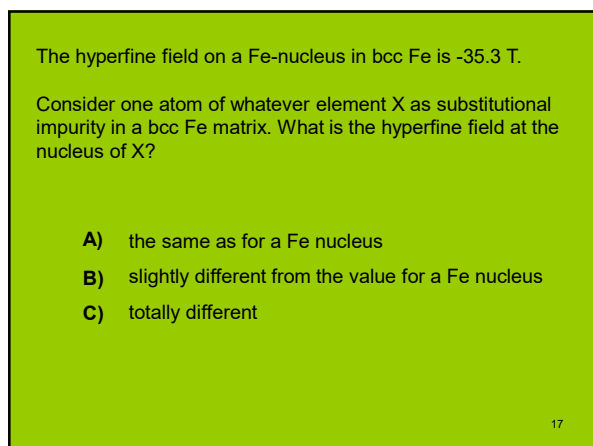
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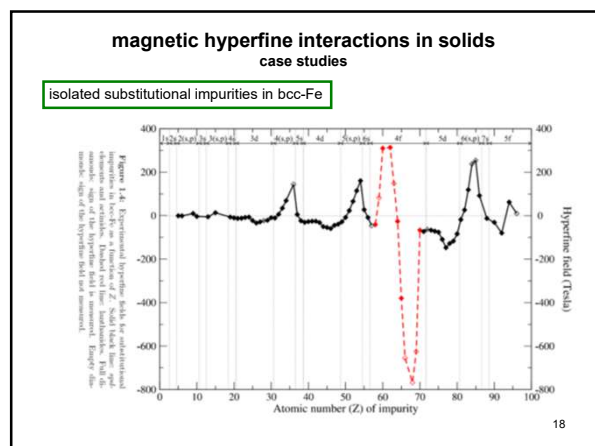
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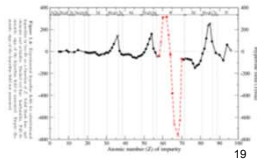
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### magnetic hyperfine interactions in solids case studies

- 50 years of experimental work
- a repeated trend through every period of the periodic table
  - small and negative for s-groups
  - S-shape for d-block
  - rising from small and negative to large and positive in p-block
  - huge fields with positive/negative transition for f-block
- all this can be understood (not really the goal of this course)



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# overlap contribution (magnetic hyperfine interaction)

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1

## overlap in the charge-charge interaction

What did we have for the charge-charge interaction:

order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
O(0)	$M \propto r^0 Y_{00}$ $V \propto v(r)$	$M^{(1)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(1)} \propto \Delta v(r)$	$M^{(2)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 v(r)$	...
O(2)	$Q \propto r^2 Y_{20}$ $V_{ij} \propto \partial_{ij} v(r)$	$Q^{(1)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{20}\}$ $V_{ij}^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta v(r)$	$Q^{(2)} \propto \{r^6 Y_{20}\}$ $V_{ij}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta^2 v(r)$	...
O(4)	$H \propto r^4 Y_{40}$ $V_{ijkl} \propto \partial_{ijkl} v(r)$	$H^{(1)} \propto \{r^6 Y_{40}\}$ $V_{ijkl}^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta v(r)$	$H^{(2)} \propto \{r^8 Y_{40}\}$ $V_{ijkl}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta^2 v(r)$	...

0<sup>th</sup> order contribution for a point nucleus

2

## overlap in the charge-charge interaction

What did we have for the charge-charge interaction:

order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
O(0)	$M \propto r^0 Y_{00}$ $V \propto v(r)$	$M^{(1)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(1)} \propto \Delta v(r)$	$M^{(2)} \propto \{r^4 Y_{00}\}$ $V^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 v(r)$	...
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O(4)	$H \propto r^4 Y_{40}$ $V_{ijkl} \propto \partial_{ijkl} v(r)$	$H^{(1)} \propto \{r^6 Y_{40}\}$ $V_{ijkl}^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta v(r)$	$H^{(2)} \propto \{r^8 Y_{40}\}$ $V_{ijkl}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta^2 v(r)$	...

first order correction to 0<sup>th</sup> order for overlap (or 'extended nucleus')

$$-\frac{eZ}{6\epsilon_0} \rho_c(\mathbf{0}) \langle r_n^2 \rangle$$

- vanishes if the nucleus is a point...
- ...even if the charge density at  $r=0$  is not zero
- correction is small w.r.t. regular monopole term.

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## overlap in the current-current interaction

Translate this to the leading term of the current-current interaction

	dipole contribution	first order correction due to overlap
O(1)	$-\hat{\mu}_I \cdot \hat{B}(\mathbf{0})$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Fermi contact contribution</li> <li><math>-\frac{2\mu_B\mu_0}{3} ( \psi_{e,1}(\mathbf{0}) ^2 -  \psi_{e,-1}(\mathbf{0}) ^2)</math></li> <li>→ does not vanish if nucleus becomes a point</li> <li>field related to Bohr-Weisskopf effect</li> </ul>

overlap ⇔ extended nucleus !

'correction' is often dominant w.r.t. regular dipole term (see bcc-Fe)

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## Bohr-Weisskopf effect

Two different isotopes of the same element have a different nuclear moment. The spatial distribution of this moment over the nuclear volume need not to be homogeneous:

$$E_{mag} = - \int_{nuc} B_{hf} \cdot d\mu_I$$

- Bring the two naked nuclei in an externally applied B and measure the magnetic interaction energy. B is constant over the nuclear volume and goes out of the integral:
 
$$\frac{E_1}{E_2} = \frac{\mu_{I1}}{\mu_{I2}}$$
- Bring both nuclei in the same hyperfine field. This varies over the nuclear volume and interacts with the (differently) distributed magnetic moments. B does not get out of the integral, which leads to:
 
$$\frac{E_1}{E_2} = \frac{\mu_{I1}}{\mu_{I2}} (1 + \Delta) \rightarrow \text{Bohr-Weisskopf effect}$$

hyperfine anomaly (up to 2%)

5

from toy model  
to quantum physics

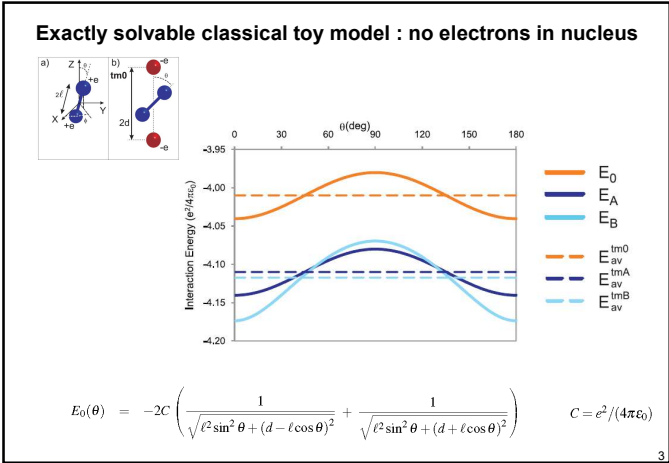
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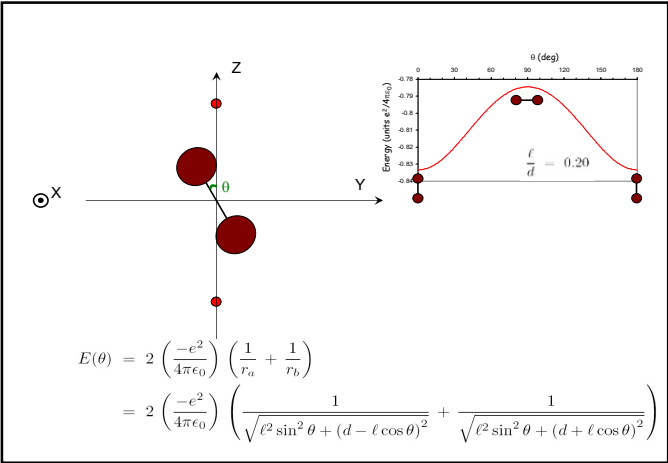
Overview for the charge-charge case				
order	multipole moment / field	first order quasi moment / quasi field	second order quasi moment / quasi field	...
$\mathcal{O}(0)$	$M \propto r^0 Y_{00}$ $V \propto r(0)$ } MI [a]	$M^{(1)} \propto \{r^1 Y_{00}\}$ $\hat{V}^{(1)} \propto \Delta r(0)$ } MS <sup>(1)</sup> [d]	$M^{(2)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{00}\}$ $\hat{V}^{(2)} \propto \Delta^2 r(0)$ } MS <sup>(2)</sup>	...
$\mathcal{O}(2)$	$Q \propto r^2 Y_{20}$ $V_{ij} \propto \partial_{ij} r(0)$ } QI [b]	$\hat{Q}^{(1)} \propto \{r^1 Y_{20}\}$ $\hat{V}_{ij}^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta r(0)$ } QS <sup>(1)</sup> [e]	$\hat{Q}^{(2)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{20}\}$ $\hat{V}_{ij}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ij} \Delta^2 r(0)$ } QS <sup>(2)</sup>	...
$\mathcal{O}(4)$	$H \propto r^4 Y_{40}$ $V_{ijkl} \propto \partial_{ijkl} r(0)$ } HDI [c]	$\hat{H}^{(1)} \propto \{r^1 Y_{40}\}$ $\hat{V}_{ijkl}^{(1)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta r(0)$ } HDS <sup>(1)</sup>	$\hat{H}^{(2)} \propto \{r^2 Y_{40}\}$ $\hat{V}_{ijkl}^{(2)} \propto \partial_{ijkl} \Delta^2 r(0)$ } HDS <sup>(2)</sup>	...
...	...	...	...	...

Corrections due to the shape of the nucleus (quadrupole moment) in the case without overlap

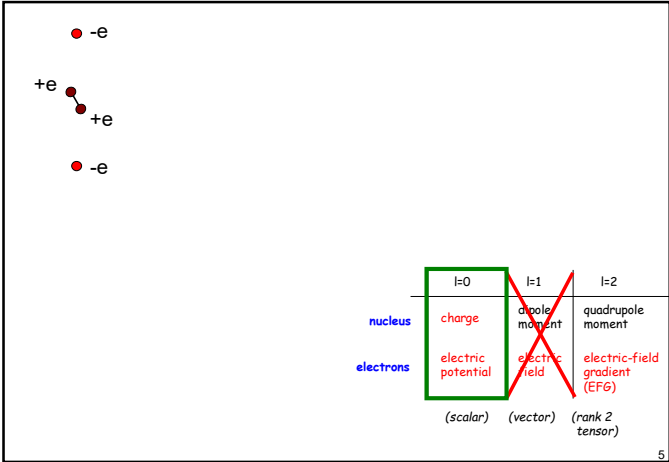
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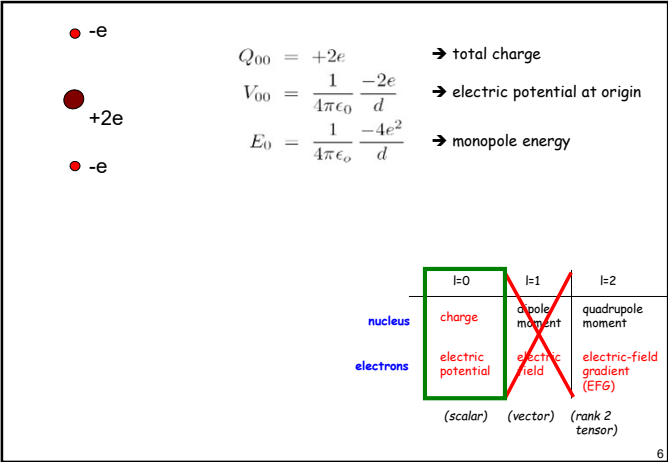
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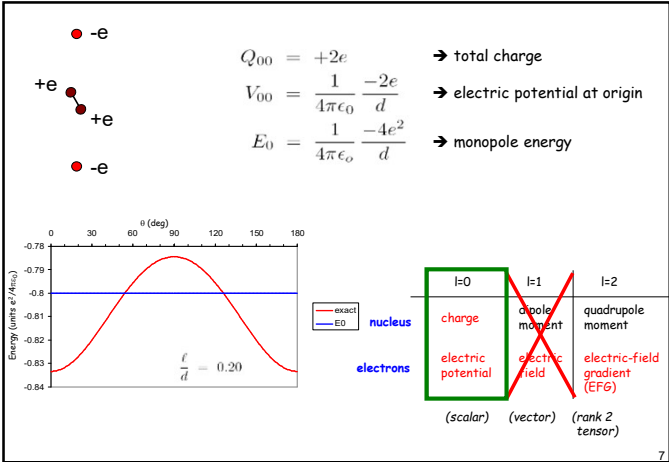
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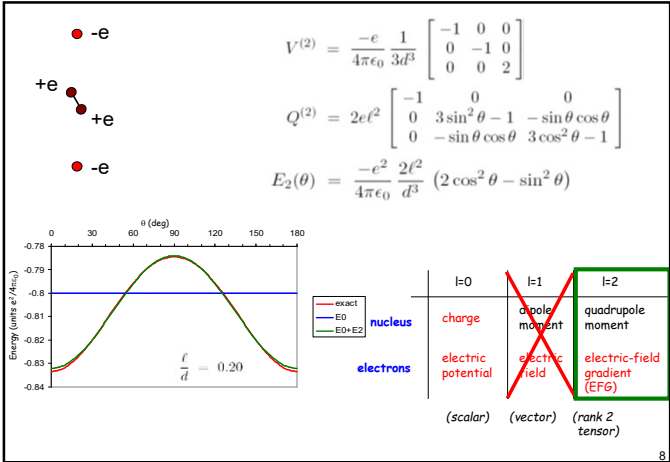
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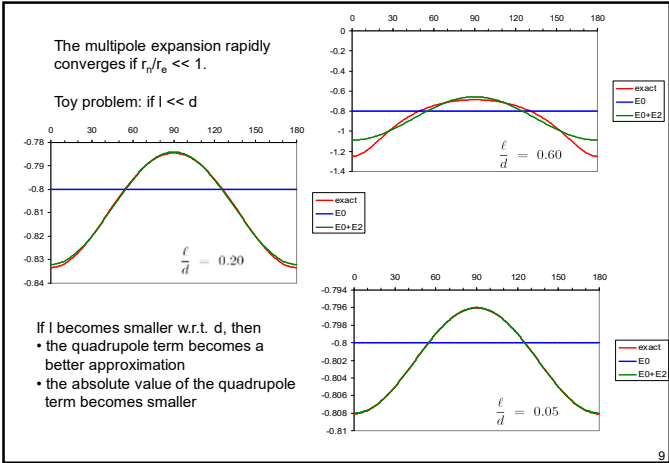
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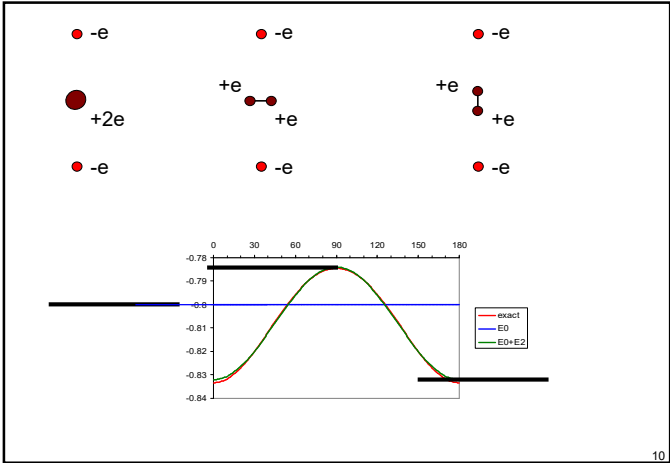
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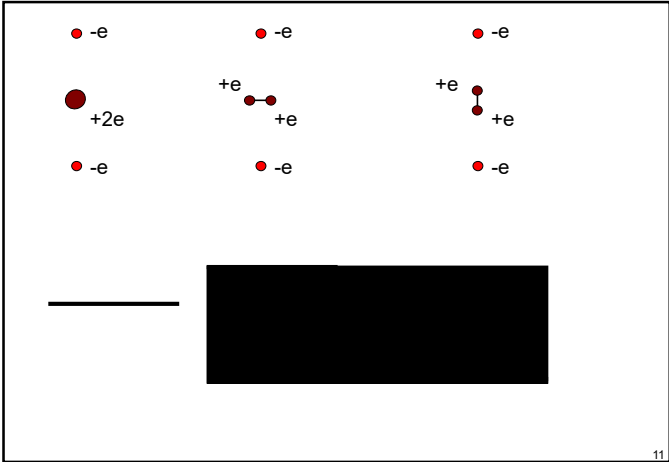
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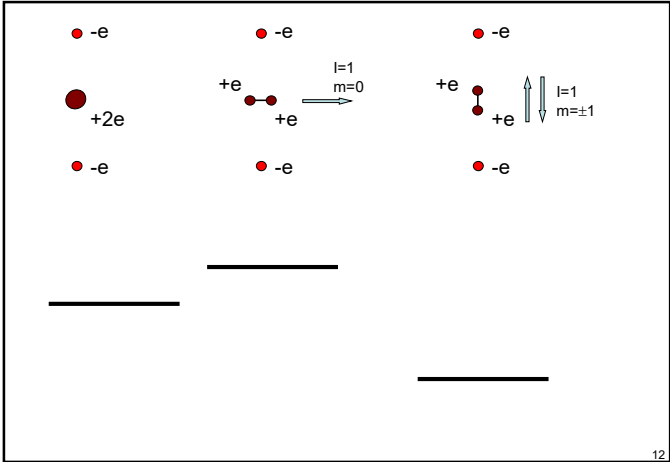
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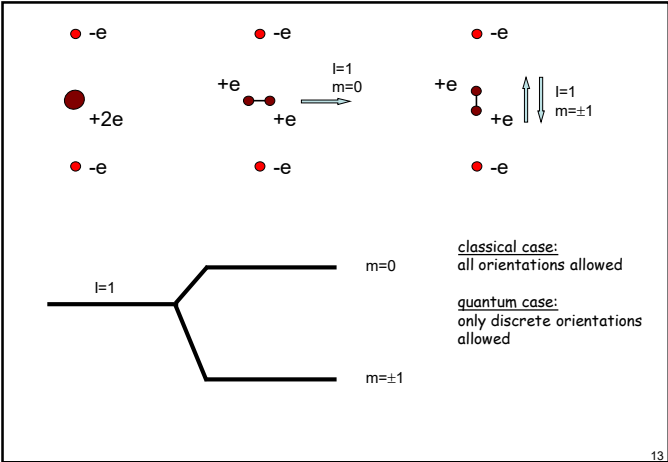
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11



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quadrupole operator

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1

Content

dipole (last week)

quadrupole (now)

Coupling of angular momenta (recapitulation)

I-J coupling: dipole interaction in a free atom

magnetic hyperfine interaction in solids

- operator
- symmetry
- case-studies

An extended nucleus

electric quadrupole interaction in solids

- operator
- symmetry
- case-studies

An extended nucleus

2

Quadrupole interaction

Apply first order perturbation:

$$E_{qq} = - \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \otimes I \left| \frac{e^2 N Z}{5 \epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{r_e^3} Y^2(\theta_e, \phi_e) \right) \cdot \left( r_n^2 Y^2(\theta_n, \phi_n) \right) \right| I \otimes \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle$$

Can be separated because we do not consider charge-charge overlap:

$$E_{qq}^{(2)} = \underbrace{\langle I | s Q_{ab}^{(2)} | I \rangle}_{\text{(short-hand for the matrix of the degenerate case of first order perturbation theory, with for every matrix element a sum of 5 terms)}} \cdot \underbrace{\langle \psi_e^{(0)} | s \hat{Y}^{(2)} | \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle}_{\text{(short-hand for the matrix of the degenerate case of first order perturbation theory, with for every matrix element a sum of 5 terms)}}$$

in general axis system:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_e^{(0)} | \hat{Y}_0^2 | \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} V_{zz} \\ \langle \psi_e^{(0)} | \hat{Y}_{\pm 1}^2 | \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle &= \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} (V_{xx} \pm V_{yy}) \\ \langle \psi_e^{(0)} | \hat{Y}_{\pm 2}^2 | \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{6}} (V_{xx} - V_{yy} \pm i V_{xy}) \end{aligned}$$

5 numbers

6-1=5 numbers (traceless)

- electric-field gradient at r=0, due to electrons
- tensor of rank 2 → 5 numbers
- can be computed by ab initio code
- we consider these 5 numbers as known
- these 5 numbers depend on the choice of axis system (compare to a vector)

3

Quadrupole interaction

Apply first order perturbation:

$$E_{qq} = - \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \otimes I \left| \frac{e^2 N Z}{5 \epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{r_e^3} Y^2(\theta_e, \phi_e) \right) \cdot \left( r_n^2 Y^2(\theta_n, \phi_n) \right) \right| I \otimes \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle$$

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in PAS:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_e^{(0)} | \hat{Y}_0^2 | \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} V_{zz} \\ \langle \psi_e^{(0)} | \hat{Y}_{\pm 1}^2 | \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle &= 0 \\ \langle \psi_e^{(0)} | \hat{Y}_{\pm 2}^2 | \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{6}} \eta V_{zz} \end{aligned}$$

5 numbers

2 numbers + 3 Euler angles

- electric-field gradient at r=0, due to electrons
- tensor of rank 2 → 5 numbers
- can be computed by ab initio code
- we consider these 5 numbers as known
- these 5 numbers depend on the choice of axis system (compare to a vector)
- there are axis systems where some of these 5 numbers vanish: *Principal Axis System* (PAS)
- symmetry properties often reveal the PAS
- we will work in the PAS of the EFG, to limit the number of terms in the dot product (cfr. choice of Z-axis in magnetic case)

$$\eta = \frac{V_{xx} - V_{yy}}{V_{zz}}, \quad 0 \leq \eta \leq 1$$

4

Quadrupole interaction

Apply first order perturbation:

$$E_{qq} = - \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \otimes I \left| \frac{e^2 N Z}{5 \epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{r_e^3} Y^2(\theta_e, \phi_e) \right) \cdot \left( r_n^2 Y^2(\theta_n, \phi_n) \right) \right| I \otimes \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle$$

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- electric quadrupole moment operator of the nucleus
- tensor of rank 2 → 5 operators
- nuclear theory cannot provide its eigenvalues ab initio → a clever trick and experimental info are needed
  - determine experimentally the single number Q in an axis system fixed to the I-axis of the nucleus (for now assume this can be done)
  - write the Q-operators in terms of operators of which we know the eigenvalues (p. 99-101)
  - note that we applied the same strategy for the nuclear magnetic moment operator

$$\hat{Q}_q^2 = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{5}} \frac{eQ}{I(2I-1)\hbar^2} \hat{I}^2 \hat{Y}_q^2(I)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{I}^2 \hat{Y}_0^2(I) &= \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{5}{4\pi}} (3I_z^2 - I^2) \\ \hat{I}^2 \hat{Y}_{\pm 1}^2(I) &= \mp \sqrt{\frac{15}{8\pi}} \frac{1}{2} (I_{\pm} I_{\pm} + I_{\pm} I_{\pm}) \\ \hat{I}^2 \hat{Y}_{\pm 2}^2(I) &= \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{15}{2\pi}} \hat{I}_{\pm}^2 \end{aligned}$$

5

Quadrupole interaction

Apply first order perturbation:

$$E_{qq} = - \left\langle \psi_e^{(0)} \otimes I \left| \frac{e^2 N Z}{5 \epsilon_0} \left( \frac{1}{r_e^3} Y^2(\theta_e, \phi_e) \right) \cdot \left( r_n^2 Y^2(\theta_n, \phi_n) \right) \right| I \otimes \psi_e^{(0)} \right\rangle$$

Can be separated because we do not consider charge-charge overlap:

$$E_{qq}^{(2)} = \underbrace{\langle I | s Q_{ab}^{(2)} | I \rangle}_{\text{(short-hand for the matrix of the degenerate case of first order perturbation theory, with for every matrix element a sum of 5 terms)}} \cdot \underbrace{\langle \psi_e^{(0)} | s \hat{Y}^{(2)} | \psi_e^{(0)} \rangle}_{\text{(short-hand for the matrix of the degenerate case of first order perturbation theory, with for every matrix element a sum of 5 terms)}}$$

- electric quadrupole moment operator of the nucleus
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  - determine experimentally the single number Q in an axis system fixed to the I-axis of the nucleus (for now assume this can be done)
  - write the Q-operators in terms of operators of which we know the eigenvalues (p. 99-101)
  - note that we applied the same strategy for the nuclear magnetic moment operator
  - all matrix elements needed for the degenerate case of 1st order perturbation theory can be written:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle I, m_I | \hat{Q}_0^2 | I, m_I \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{5}{4\pi}} \frac{eQ}{I(2I-1)\hbar^2} (3m_I^2 - I(I+1)) \hbar m_I m_I \\ \langle I, m_I | \hat{Q}_{\pm 1}^2 | I, m_I \rangle &= \mp \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{15}{8\pi}} \frac{eQ}{I(2I-1)\hbar^2} \sqrt{I(I+1) - m_I(m_I \pm 1)} (2m_I \pm 1) \hbar m_I m_I \pm 1 \\ \langle I, m_I | \hat{Q}_{\pm 2}^2 | I, m_I \rangle &= \frac{1}{8} \sqrt{\frac{15}{2\pi}} \frac{eQ}{I(2I-1)\hbar^2} \sqrt{I(I+1) - m_I(m_I \pm 1)} (I \mp 1) (I \pm 1) \hbar m_I m_I \pm 1 \end{aligned}$$

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### Quadrupole interaction

After

- inserting the "5" numbers for the field gradient and
- transforming the 5 nuclear operators to a form with known eigenvalues,

we end up with this perturbing hamiltonian:

$$H_{qq}^{nuc} = \frac{eQV_{zz}}{4I(2I-1)\hbar^2} \left[ (3I_z^2 - I^2) + \frac{\eta}{2} (I_+^2 + I_-^2) \right]$$

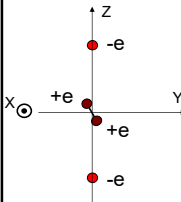
of which all matrix elements in the degenerate  $|I, m\rangle$ -levels have to be evaluated (=degenerate case of 1<sup>st</sup> order perturbation).

number, known from experimental nuclear physics

numbers, computable by ab initio (solid state/molecular) methods

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### Illustration for the toy problem:



Electric-field gradient tensor:

$$V^{(2)} = \frac{-e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{3d^3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- is already diagonal. The chosen axis system is a PAS.
- $V_{zz}$  is negative: at (0,0),  $E_z$  decreases with  $z$
- $V_{yy}$  is positive: at (0,0),  $E_y$  increases with  $y$

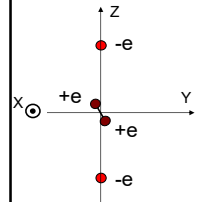
For this simple case, you might verify this.

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### Illustration for the toy problem:



nuclear quadrupole moment tensor:

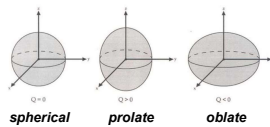
$$Q^{(2)} = 2e\ell^2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3\sin^2\theta - 1 & -\sin\theta\cos\theta \\ 0 & -\sin\theta\cos\theta & 3\cos^2\theta - 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The intrinsic properties of the nucleus are seen if you examine this tensor in an axis system that is consistent with the symmetry of the nucleus (Z // dumb-bell axis = direction of spin I)

$$Q^{(2)} = 2e\ell^2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$Q_{zz}$  is positive: prolate nucleus

You can consider the quadrupole moment tensor for any orientation as the result of this 'intrinsic' quadrupole moment tensor, followed by a rotation. This is the idea behind the nuclear operator transformation on one of the previous slides: take the intrinsic shape given by  $Q_{zz}=Q$  (why are  $Q_{xx}$  and  $Q_{yy}$  fully determined by this?), and a rotation (given by the z-component of I in the given axis system).



spherical      prolate      oblate

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### Quadrupole interaction vs. magnetic dipole interaction

→ Look back at the chapter on the magnetic dipole interaction, and try to recognize all the steps on the previous slides in that derivation as well. Every step made for the quadrupole interaction has an exact match for the magnetic dipole interaction (but with vectors rather than with tensors of rank 2). In contrast to what we will see in the next few slides for the quadrupole interaction, the level splitting due to the magnetic interaction in solids is equidistant.

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## Analytical examples

Simplest case:  $l=1$  ( $l=0$  and  $l=1/2$  have  $Q=0$ )

Non-zero matrix elements :

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \pm 1 | H_{\eta\eta}^{\text{vac}} | \pm 1 \rangle &= \frac{eQV_{zz}}{4} \\ \langle \pm 1 | H_{\eta\eta}^{\text{vac}} | \mp 1 \rangle &= \frac{eQV_{zz}}{4} \eta \\ \langle 0 | H_{\eta\eta}^{\text{vac}} | 0 \rangle &= -\frac{eQV_{zz}}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Matrix for 1<sup>st</sup> order perturbation :

not ordered

$$E_Q = \frac{eQV_{zz}}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \eta \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

ordered

$$E_Q = \frac{eQV_{zz}}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \eta & 0 \\ \eta & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Analytical examples

Simplest case:  $l=1$  ( $l=0$  and  $l=1/2$  have  $Q=0$ )

After diagonalization

$$E_Q = -\frac{eQ V_{zz}}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1+\eta & 0 \\ 0 & 1-\eta \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Graphical:

$\eta=0$        $0$        $\eta \geq 0$        $1$

## Analytical examples

Simplest case:  $I=1$  ( $I=0$  and  $I=1/2$  have  $Q=0$ )

the nucleus has its spin axis in the xy-plane

the nucleus has its spin axis parallel to the z-axis

Graphical:

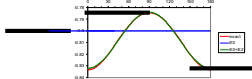
up and down matter (=the EFG distinguishes between  $+z$  and  $-z$ )

The graph shows the energy levels for a nucleus with  $I=1$ . The y-axis represents the energy shift  $eQV_{zz}/4$ , ranging from -2 to +2. The x-axis represents the magnetic quantum number  $m$ , with labels  $n=0$ ,  $0$ ,  $n \neq 0$ , and  $1$ . A horizontal line at  $y=0$  is labeled  $I=1$ . Three lines branch out from the origin: a top line labeled  $m=\pm 1$ , a middle horizontal line labeled  $m=0$ , and a bottom line labeled  $m=0$ . Red arrows point from the text 'the nucleus has its spin axis in the xy-plane' to the  $m=\pm 1$  line, and from 'the nucleus has its spin axis parallel to the z-axis' to the  $m=0$  lines. Another red arrow points from 'up and down matter' to the  $m=\pm 1$  line.

## Analytical examples

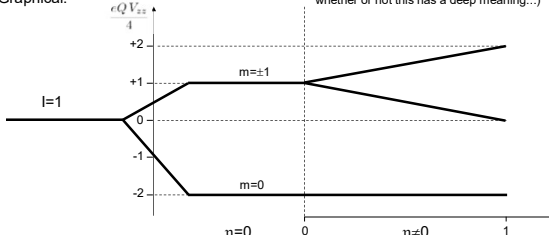
Simplest case:  $l=1$  ( $l=0$  and  $l=1/2$  have  $Q=0$ )

Qualitatively similar to what we found for the toy problem:



( $V_{zz}$  was negative there,  $Q$  was positive. The picture hereunder renders  $m=0$  with the *highest energy* if  $V_{zz}$  is negative. The 1:2 ratio for the classical case turns into a 2:1 ratio for the quantum case – not sure whether or not this has a deep meaning...)

Graphical:



$eQ V_{zz}$

$\frac{4}$

$+2$

$+1$

$0$

$-1$

$-2$

$m=\pm 1$

$m=0$

$l=1$

$n=0$

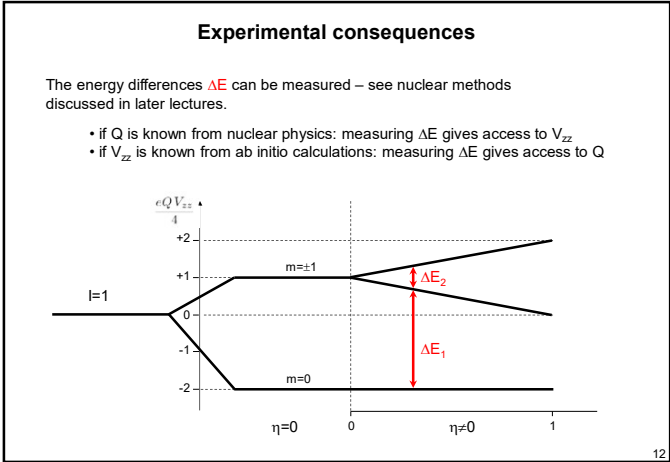
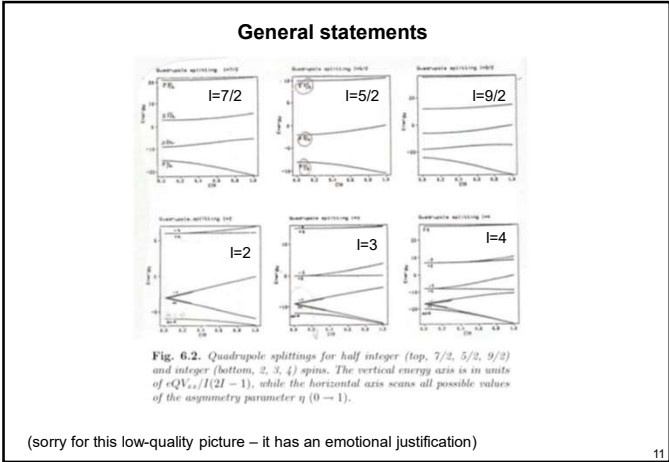
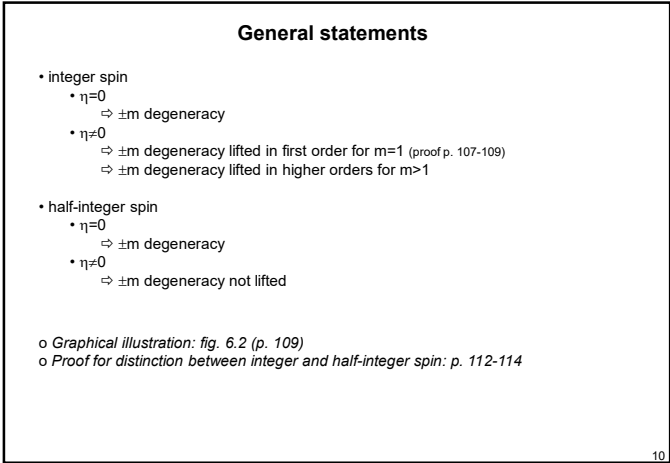
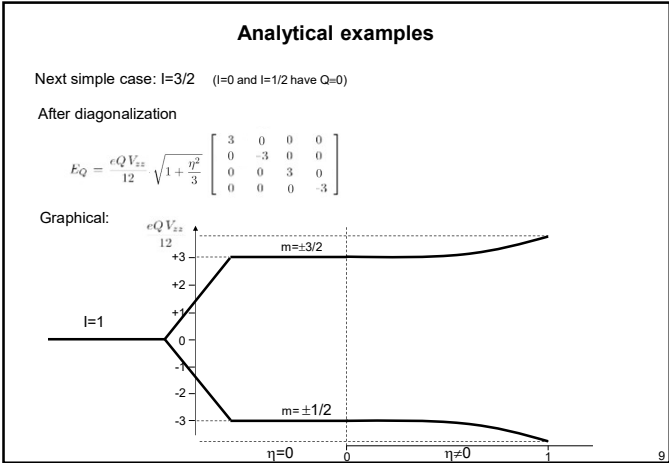
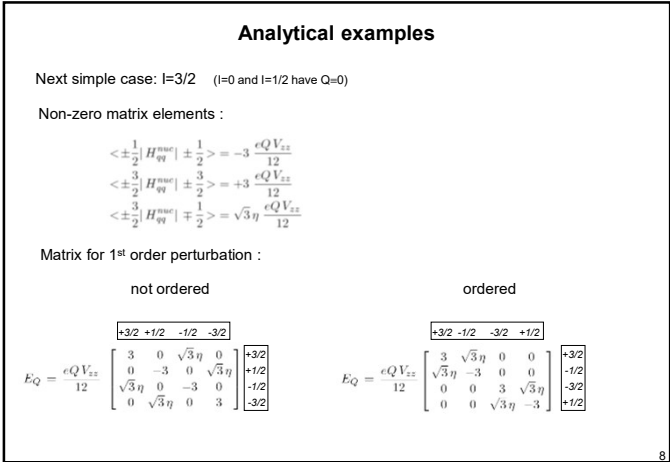
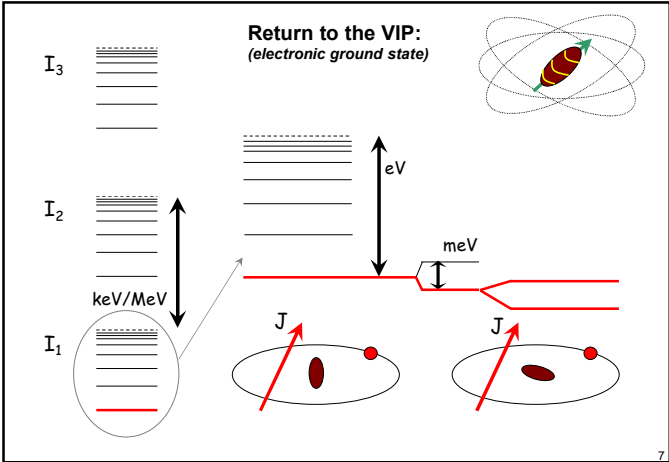
$0$

$n \neq 0$

$1$

[illegible]

1



Symmetry properties of the EFG tensor

EFG tensor = 5 numbers, depending on the choice of axis system

Theorem 1

- a 2-fold rotation axis can be chosen as z-axis of PAS
- a 3-fold (or more) rotation axis is z-axis of PAS and  $\eta=0$ .

Proof : p. 116

Theorem 2

- If there are two or more 3-fold (or more) rotation axes, then the EFG tensor is zero.

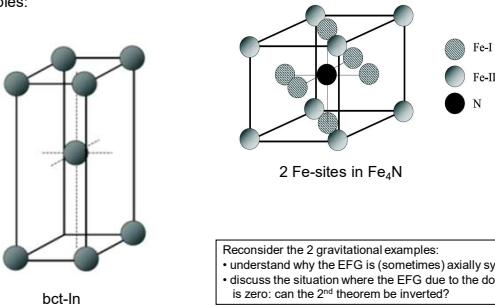
Proof : p. 117

In solids, the situation of this second theorem appears only in 5 point groups, which are all cubic (23,  $\bar{4}3m$ , m-3, 432 and m-3m).

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Symmetry properties of the EFG tensor

Examples:



Reconsider the 2 gravitational examples:  
• understand why the EFG is (sometimes) axially symmetric  
• discuss the situation where the EFG due to the double ring is zero: can the 2<sup>nd</sup> theorem be inverted?

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quadrupole interaction :  
miscellaneous topics

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1

ab initio calculation of the EFG tensor

- Calculating the EFG tensor for a real solid requires good knowledge of its electron density.
- This was too complicated to calculate for a long time.
- Therefore, a dramatic approximation was frequently used: the point charge model
  - replace the continuous electron density by positive point charges at the atomic sites
  - calculate the EFG tensor due to this set of classical charges
  - the (initially spherical) charge distribution of the atom at  $r=0$  gets deformed by this external EFG. This provides an additional EFG, proportional to the external one. The proportionality factor (Sternheimer antishielding factor) can be estimated from ab initio calculations on free ions
  - an extra proportionality due to an EFG by unfilled orbitals of the atom at  $r=0$  is present as well

$$V_{zz} = (1 - K)(1 - \gamma_{\infty}) V_{zz}^{latt}$$

- Very crude, but there was nothing better and many people strongly believed in this for decades. However, it doesn't really give much insight.

2

ab initio calculation of the EFG tensor

related to the second derivative of the density  $1/r^3$  strongly amplifies the region close to the nucleus

Once ab initio calculations became available, it turned out that the EFG was dominated by contributions from the region very close to the nucleus: tails of the wave functions, which carry over the influence of bonds with the neighbouring atoms to the nuclear site.

the EFG is an integrated property, but the region close to the nucleus contributes most.

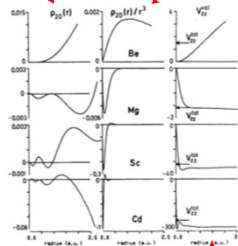


Fig. 6.7. Illustrating which regions in space contribute to  $V_{zz}$ . First column: the function  $\rho(r)$  from the integral in equation 6.101 (without  $1/r^3$ ). Second column: similarly, but with the factor  $1/r^3$ . Third column: this function integrated up to  $r$ , which is equation 6.101. The arrows indicate the full calculated  $V_{zz}$ , including the "lattice contribution" from distant atoms.

P. Blaha et al., Phys. Rev. B 37 (1988) 2792

3

Temperature dependence of the EFG tensor

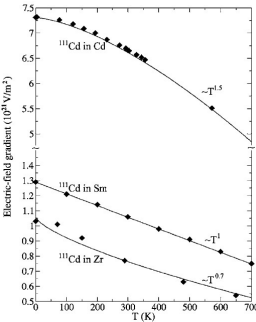
Summary of experimental observations:

$$V_{zz}(T) = V_{zz}(0)(1 - BT^{\alpha})$$

with spd-electrons, very often  $\alpha \approx 1.5$

with f-electrons, very often  $\alpha \approx 1.0$

sometimes more complicated behaviour appears



4

Temperature dependence of the EFG tensor

Long-standing question : is there an analytical argument for the  $\alpha \approx 1.5$  ?

ab initio study of thermally induced vibrations for Cd in hcp-Cd (supercell with 24 atoms) : the order of magnitude is recovered.

Prohibitively long calculations on cells with 2000 atoms would be needed to get good numerical accuracy

→ this strongly suggests the 1.5 exponent is the average of many harmonic modes, and is more accidental than analytical.

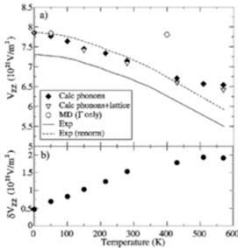


FIG. 6. (a) Calculated values of electric-field gradient for hcp-Cd as a function of temperature: for a fixed lattice constant (diamonds) and for the lattice constant corresponding to that temperature (triangles), compared with experiment. MD results at 50 K and 400 K (circles) are rescaled so that the 50 K result matches the experimental value. (b) The standard deviation of the  $9 \times 24 = 216$   $V_{zz}$  values as a function of temperature.

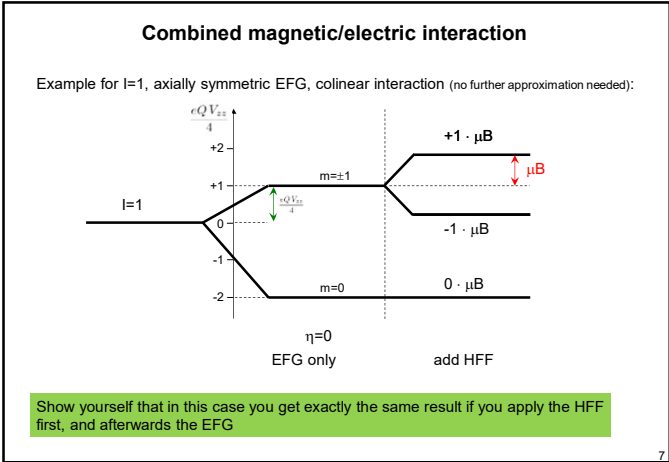
D. Torumba et al., Phys. Rev. B 74 (2006) 144304

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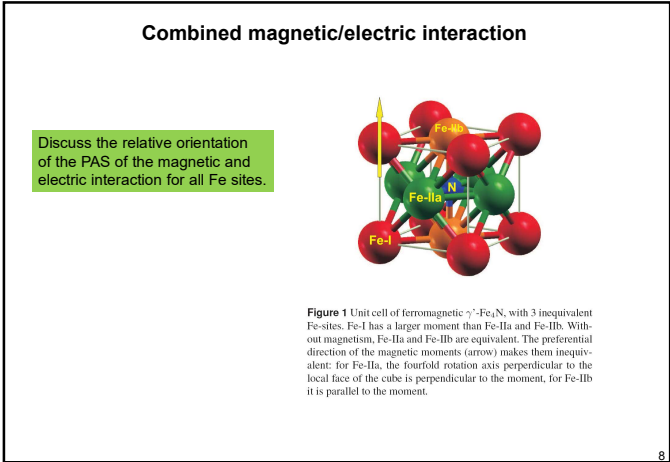
Combined magnetic/electric interaction

- The formalism remains the same as before
  - write the combined hamiltonian
  - find all matrix elements (degenerate 1<sup>st</sup> order perturbation)
  - diagonalize the matrix to find eigenvalues
- The general case can be technically involved, but important simpler situations exist:
  - if one of the two interactions is much stronger than the other one, consider the weak interaction as a new perturbation (i.e. you work in the PAS of the dominant interaction)
  - in all cases, expressions are simpler for an axially symmetric EFG
  - the case where the magnetic hyperfine field is aligned with the z-axis of the PAS of the EFG (i.e. the magnetic and electric PAS coincide) can be treated exactly.

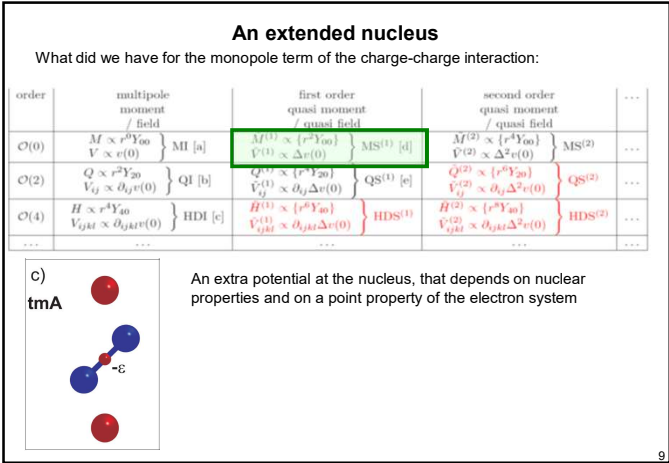
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