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ELECTRIC FIELD EFFECT IN THE RESONANCE LINES OF INDIUM AND THALLIUM*

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ABSTRACT

The atomic beam method has been used to study the Stark effect in the resonance lines of indium ($6s\ ^2S_{1/2} \xrightarrow{4102\ \text{Å}} 5p\ ^2P_{1/2}$) and thallium ($7s\ ^2S_{1/2} \xrightarrow{3776\ \text{Å}} 6p\ ^2P_{1/2}$). The difference between the atomic polarizability of the $^2S_{1/2}$ state and that of the $^2P_{1/2}$ state $[\Delta\alpha(sp)]$ has been determined and compared with calculations in the Coulomb approximation. For indium we find $\Delta\alpha(sp) = 138(11) \times 10^{-24}\text{cm}^3$ and for thallium $\Delta\alpha(sp) = 115(12) \times 10^{-24}\text{cm}^3$. Details of the experiment and results are presented.

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the perturbation of atomic levels by electric fields was first observed more than forty years ago,[1] there has been little progress by way of a systematic study of the Stark effect on free atoms until the present decade. This has been due to the experimental difficulties of measuring small frequency shifts and attaining high electric fields, as well as theoretical difficulties in calculating and interpreting experimental results. Unlike the Zeeman effect, which depends only on the angular part of the wave function and can be calculated accurately for any atomic state, the calculation of the Stark effect involves infinite sums of radial integrals requiring accurate radial wave functions for excited states.

Recently there has been a resurgence of interest in the electric field effect. The renewed activity is due to the successful application of new experimental techniques to the Stark effect and to theoretical developments. In addition, interest has been generated by the application of the Stark effect to the search for electric dipole moments in elementary particles,[2,3,4] and the measurement of isotope shifts[5] and hyperfine structure of excited states.[6,7] On the experimental side atomic beam,[8] level crossing,[9,10] and optical double resonance[11] techniques have been used to observe differential Stark shifts between levels of an atomic state as well as shifts between levels belonging to two different states (optical Stark shift).[12] The differential shifts within a state $\approx 10^{-8}$ to 10^{-6} Hz/(kV/cm)^2 require relatively low electric fields (< 100 kV/cm) to observe due to the precision attainable in radio-frequency spectroscopy. The Stark shift in optical transitions requires large electric fields (> 100 kV/cm) to observe and measure due to the line

widths associated with optical transitions and the calibration procedure which involves large Stark shifts, approximately 10^3 MHz. Thus techniques had to be developed for achieving high electric fields. On the theoretical side, methods have been developed for treating the infinite sums appearing in the Stark effect[13,14] and calculating the radial integrals needed.[15]

In the present experiment the atomic beam method was used to investigate the Stark shift in the 4102 Å line of indium and the 3776 Å line of thallium. This experiment serves as an important preliminary to the measurement of isotope shifts in indium by the atomic beam method.

II. EXPERIMENTAL METHOD

The experimental method employed here has been described previously in connection with the Stark shift measurements in the D_1 lines of cesium, rubidium, and potassium.[12,16] The application of the method to indium and thallium deserves some additional discussion due to the different energy level structure and hence we will review the methods using indium as an example. The basic idea is one of a tuning experiment in which optical absorption lines of beam atoms are tuned by an electric field to emission lines of the same atoms. The atomic beam apparatus is used to detect the spin-flip which accompanies tuning. For a description of the atomic beam apparatus we refer to the literature.[17]

An atomic beam apparatus with flop-in geometry is employed. In the C-region a pair of electric field plates replaces the usual C-magnet and an optical photon source (resonance lamp) replaces the usual radio-frequency photon source (signal generator). The electric field plates may be used to

select a particular m_J trajectory and we assume this to be the case. Such state selection simplifies the analysis but is not necessary and was not used in this experiment.

Imagine a beam of indium atoms in the ground state level $|5\ ^2P_{1/2}\ m_J = -1/2\rangle$ in the C-region and with no electric field. The energy level diagram is shown in Fig. 1. If the atoms are illuminated with resonance radiation, 4102 Å, they will be excited to the $6s\ ^2S_{1/2}$ state and decay back ($\tau = 7.5 \times 10^{-9}$ sec) to the $^2P_{1/2}$ state as well as to the metastable $^2P_{3/2}$ state. It is clear that of those atoms returning to the $^2P_{1/2}$ state, one half will be in the $m_J = +1/2$ level and will thus be refocused at the detector. Some of the atoms terminating in the $^2P_{3/2}$ state will also undergo transitions $m_J = -1/2$ to $m_J = +1/2$; however, due to the different g_J of the $^2P_{3/2}$ state, these atoms will not be deflected properly and we may ignore them for the present. Thus, with no electric field applied in the C-region, a flop-in signal is observed at the detector. To consider what happens when an electric field is applied to the beam atoms we have to take the hyperfine structure into account. The hyperfine structure associated with the 4102 Å line of indium[18,19] is shown in Fig. 1. Also, reference to the Breit-Rabi diagram shows us that 90% of the indium atoms are in the lower ($F = 4$) hyperfine state prior to being flopped. We neglect the remaining 10% for simplicity and assume that all the atoms are in the $F = 4$ hyperfine state. The beam atoms then have two hyperfine absorption lines while the lamp emission line has four hyperfine components. The situation is depicted in Fig. 2a. Application of an electric field to the beam atoms decreases the transition frequencies of the lines α' and β', detuning them from α and β. α' and β' are decreased by the

same amount within the approximation described in the next section. Hence, the flop-in signal diminishes. However, for the appropriate values of the electric field, α' and β' can be brought into resonance with other hyperfine components as shown in Fig. 2. Each time that α' or β' is made coincident with an emission line component the flop-in signal increases. The frequency shifts associated with each of the diagrams in Fig. 2 and the electric fields at which they occur are shown in Table I. Similar results hold for thallium ($I = 1/2$) except that the β-component of the hyperfine transitions is forbidden and hence fewer resonances occur. The energy level diagram for thallium is shown in Fig. 1. The possible resonances for thallium are shown in Fig. 3 and summed up in Table II.

III. THEORY

In this section we obtain an expression for the Stark shift $\Delta\nu_s$ in an optical line. A comprehensive treatment of the Stark effect may be found in the literature.[1,20]

The interaction of an atom with an external electric field, E, directed along the z-axis, is described by the Hamiltonian

$$\mathcal{H}_1 = e \sum_i (rC_0^1(\theta,\phi))_i E \qquad (1)$$

where we have expressed the position vector of the i^{th} electron, $\vec{r}_i$, in terms of the spherical tensors $C_q^1(\theta,\phi)$.[21] We treat $\mathcal{H}_1$ as a perturbation on the atomic Hamiltonian which includes the central field, spin-orbit, and hyperfine structure operators. The hyperfine interaction is included since

$$\Delta\nu_s(^2P_{1/2}) \ll \Delta\nu_{hf}(^2P_{1/2})$$

and

$$\Delta\nu_s(^2S_{1/2}) \approx \Delta\nu_{hf}(^2S_{1/2})$$

for both indium and thallium.

The first non-vanishing contribution of $\mathcal{H}_1$ to the energy is given by second-order perturbation theory,

$$\Delta\nu_s(\gamma F m_F) = \frac{e^2E^2}{h} \sum_{\gamma'F'} \sum_i \frac{|\langle \gamma'F'm_F|(rC_0^1)_i|\gamma F m_F\rangle|^2}{\Delta W(\gamma'F',\gamma F)} \qquad (2)$$

where

$$\Delta W(\gamma'F',\gamma F) = W(\gamma'F') - W(\gamma F) \quad .$$

Considerable simplification can be achieved by considering the magnitude of the hyperfine structure and hyperfine Stark effect[20] in relation to the energies of the electronic configurations and the Stark shifts induced in the electronic configurations. We note first that $\Delta W(\gamma'F',\gamma F)$ differs from the energy denominator without hyperfine structure, $\Delta W(\gamma',\gamma)$, by order $(\Delta\nu_{hf})/(\Delta\nu_{opt}) \approx 10^{-5}$ and hence the hyperfine structure may be neglected in ΔW. Next we examine the hyperfine structure Stark effect. The frequency shifts induced by an electric field in the hyperfine transition $(F = 0, m_F = 0) \leftrightarrow (F = 1, m_F = 0)$ of the $6p\ ^2P_{1/2}$ state of ^{205}Tl has been

measured and is given by $\delta(\Delta\nu) \cong 3 \times 10^{-7}\ E^2$ Hz where E is in volt/cm.[22] Similar results may be expected in other transitions in the $^2P_{1/2}$ state as well as the $^2S_{1/2}$ state. This is to be compared with the frequency shift induced by an electric field in the electronic transition $6s^2(^1S)7s \rightarrow 6s^2(^1S)6p$ of thallium which can be readily estimated to be $\delta(\Delta\nu(6p\text{-}7s)) \sim 10^{-1}\ E^2$ Hz, and to the line-widths $\approx 10^9$ Hz inherent in the present experiment. Similar remarks apply to indium. Thus for the purposes of this experiment, hyperfine structure effects may be neglected. All hyperfine states are displaced by the same amount by the application of an electric field. The amount by which they are displaced depends only on the electronic quantum numbers within the above approximations, and is given by

$$\Delta\nu_s(\alpha J m_J) = \frac{e^2E^2}{h} \sum_{\alpha'J'} \sum_i \frac{|\langle \alpha'J'm_J|(rC_0^1)_i|\alpha J m_J\rangle|^2}{\Delta W(\alpha'J',\alpha J)} \quad . \tag{3}$$

In the present case we are dealing with a single electron coupled to a $^1S_0$ core and hence to the extent that the transition electron does not polarize the core

$$\Delta\nu_s(n\ell j m_j) = \frac{e^2E^2}{h} \sum_{n'\ell'j'} (2\ell+1)(2\ell'+1)(2j+1)(2j'+1) \begin{Bmatrix} \ell' & \ell & 1 \\ j & j' & s \end{Bmatrix}^2 \begin{pmatrix} j' & j & 1 \\ m_j & -m_j & 0 \end{pmatrix}^2$$

$$\times \begin{pmatrix} \ell' & \ell & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^2 \frac{|\langle n'\ell'j'\|r\|n\ell j\rangle|^2}{\Delta W(n'\ell'j',n\ell j)} \quad . \tag{4}$$

A number of authors have evaluated the angular factors in Eq. (3) for particular

values of $\ell j m_j$,[23,24] but in fact we can reduce Eq. (3) to a simple formula that sums up the Stark effect for any alkali-like transitions. For, due to the selection rules on ℓ, and j and remembering that j equals $\ell \pm 1/2$, there are at most three non-vanishing terms in the angular part of the summation. Furthermore, the $3j$ and $6j$ coefficients are of a particularly simple kind and may be readily expressed in terms of their arguments. Thus we arrive at

$$\Delta\nu_s(n\ell\ j=\ell\pm 1/2\ m_j) = \frac{e^2E^2}{4h}\left[\frac{j^2-m_j^2}{j^2}R(\ell-1,j-1;n\ell j) + \frac{m_j^2}{j^2(j+1)^2}R(\ell\pm 1,j;n\ell j)\right.$$

$$\left. + \frac{(j+1)^2-m_j^2}{(j+1)^2}R(\ell+1,j+1;n\ell j)\right] \qquad (5)$$

where

$$R(\ell-1,j-1;n\ell j) = \sum_{\substack{n'\\ n'\neq n}} \frac{|\langle n'\ell-1,j-1\|r\|n\ell j\rangle|^2}{\Delta E(n'\ell-1,j-1;n\ell j)}$$

and similarly for the other terms. The $\pm$ sign in the second term on the right is to be used with $j = \ell \pm 1/2$.

Applying Eq. (5) to an $s_{1/2}$ and a $p_{1/2}$ state[25] we get

$$\Delta\nu_s(ns_{1/2}) = \frac{e^2E^2}{9h}\left[R(p_{1/2};ns_{1/2}) + 2R(p_{1/2};ns_{1/2})\right]$$

$$\Delta\nu_s(np_{1/2}) = \frac{e^2E^2}{9h}\left[R(s_{1/2};np_{1/2}) + 2R(d_{3/2};np_{1/2})\right]$$

or for the shift in the optical line $n_1s_{1/2} \longleftrightarrow n_2p_{1/2}$

$$\delta(n_1s_{1/2} \longleftrightarrow n_2p_{1/2}) = \frac{e^2E^2}{9h}\left[R(s_{1/2};n_2p_{1/2}) - R(p_{1/2};n_1s_{1/2}) + 2(R(d_{3/2};n_2p_{1/2}) - R(p_{3/2};n_1s_{1/2}))\right] .$$

If we define the atomic polarizability as usual by $h\Delta\nu_s = -\frac{1}{2}\alpha E^2$, then

$$2\delta(n_1s_{1/2} \longleftrightarrow n_2p_{1/2})hE^{-2} = \Delta\alpha(n_2p_{1/2};n_1s_{1/2})$$

where

$$\Delta\alpha(n_2p_{1/2};n_1s_{1/2}) = \alpha(n_2p_{1/2}) - \alpha(n_1s_{1/2}) .$$

IV. APPARATUS

The atomic beam apparatus is conventional, except for the electric field plates, and will not be discussed here. The electric field plates, the high-voltage power supply, and the associated read-out equipment have been described previously and no further discussion is needed.[26] We limit our discussion to the beam source, detector, and light sources.

A. Production and Detection of Beams

Beams of indium and thallium were produced by electron bombardment of a tantalum oven containing indium or thallium and having a 0.030 inch slit. Approximately 30 watts (electron bombardment) were required to produce thallium beams and 60 watts were required for indium. The oven temperature was not measured, but was estimated at approximately 1200°K. The populations of the

metastable $^2P_{3/2}$ state can be calculated from the Boltzmann factors and is negligible for thallium, while about 15% of the indium atoms are in the $^2P_{3/2}$ state.

Detection of indium and thallium was accomplished with an iridium hot-ribbon surface ionization detector, 1 inch × 0.1 inch × 0.0015 inch. Iridium was used because of its high work function (5.9 eV) and the fact that it is inherently quieter and less troublesome than the more usual surfaces. Typical background from the hot-ribbon was around 2×10^{-12} amp with a noise $< 10^{-13}$ amp. A Keithy 417 high-speed picoammeter was used to measure the ion currents.

B. Resonance Lamps

The measurement of the Stark effect by atomic beams requires light sources having a high spectral density. Since the atomic beam is illuminated at right angles to its direction, the absorption width of beam atoms is the natural width $\Delta\nu_N \sim 10$ MHz. The light source must put out enough photons within this width to flop a substantial number of atoms. An intense electrodeless discharge lamp was developed for this purpose.

The low vapor pressure of indium makes it impractical to discharge the metal directly; consequently, indium-iodide was used. The high vapor pressure of iodine, which is produced in the dissociation of the iodide, causes the discharge to become unstable, so it is necessary to use microscopic amounts of the iodide in order to limit the iodine vapor pressure. To this end the iodide was formed in the presence of an argon discharge so that formation of the iodide could be monitored through the appearance of the indium blue line.

The procedure is similar to that used by Cunningham and Link[27] with two exceptions: 1) we distilled the indium to insure purity, and 2) we reacted the indium with iodine prior to sealing off the lamp. After forming the iodide the argon was pumped out and the lamp refilled with spectroscopic grade xenon at a pressure of 1 Torr and sealed off. The thallium lamp presented no special problem and thallium-chloride was used.

The quartz lamps were cylinders 5 cm in diameter and 6 mm long. They were outgassed under vacuum at around 900°C for at least 10 hours before filling. The pressure prior to filling was approximately 2×10^{-7} Torr.

Excitation of the lamps was achieved with a 100 watt diathermy unit with a type A antenna. The lamp to be excited was placed in an oven, one end of which consisted of the microwave antenna. A boron nitride holder fixed the lamp inside the oven. A schematic of the oven is shown in Fig. 4. Normally the diathermy unit was operated at 60% to 80% power and the lamp temperature maintained about 210°C for indium and about 240°C for thallium. The lamp profiles were scanned with the atomic beam apparatus as previously described. A scan of the indium lamp line is shown in Fig. 5 where the frequency scale has been established from the known hyperfine structure of the $5p\ ^2P_{1/2}$ and $6s\ ^2S_{1/2}$ states.[18,19,28] The intensity distribution shown is actually a composite since a number of absorption lines are simultaneously scanning the lamp. It is clear from the width of the lamp line that less than 1/2% of the available light is effective in pumping. The number of photons which would be available for pumping an absorption cell would be increased by a factor $\Delta\nu_{Doppler}/\Delta\nu_N \sim 100$ assuming a cell temperature $\approx 600°C$.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The measurement of the Stark shift consists of scanning the lamp line with the atomic beam apparatus, as previously described, identifying the various resonances and using them to determine the frequency shift as a function of the applied voltages, V. All that remains to be done is measure the electric field gap, d, and determine the electric field from V/d. The illumination region is sufficiently small compared to the dimensions of the plates that fringing effects may be neglected. Details of the plates were previously published.[26] The voltages were supplied by a Sams[29] 50 kV supply and read by a digital volt meter using a Parks[30] voltage divider. Overall accuracy of the voltage system was < 0.1%. The electric field gap was measured with a feeler gauge which was checked against a micrometer. The value of the gap was $d = 0.825 \pm 0.024$ mm. We present below, separately, the results for indium and thallium.

A. Indium

Typical results for indium are shown in Fig. 5 and are summarized in Table III in terms of the polarizability difference $\Delta\alpha(6^2 S_{1/2}, 5^2 P_{1/2})$. Also shown are the theoretical values of the polarizabilities which are based on Eq. (5) and the Bates-Damgaard (B-D) Coulomb approximation which was used to calculate the radial integrals.

The resonance lamp and beams were made from naturally occurring indium. In natural abundance, indium consists of two isotopes ^{115}In (96%) and ^{113}In (4%). The hyperfine structure of these isotopes differs by ≈ 25 MHz[28] and may be neglected for our purposes. The isotope shift

$\approx$.270 MHz[31] is a small fraction of the line-width and may be neglected particularly in view of the low abundance of ^{113}In.

Two features of Fig. 5 are rather conspicuous and deserve comment. First, the absence of a peak at 2974 MHz and second, the near equality of the three high-field peaks. These features can be understood with reference to the last row of Table I where we show the signal intensities. The signal intensities are calculated by multiplying together the transition probabilities of overlapping lines. Theoretical transition probabilities were used. We see that if we did not select the $F = 4$ hyperfine state but instead had both the $F = 4$ and $F = 5$ hyperfine states present in the beam (no state selection) the signal intensity at 2974 MHz would be $\approx 9\%$ of the zero electric field signal intensity. In view of the line-width we would not expect to observe this peak. Furthermore, the signal intensities at 8435 MHz, 11,410 MHz and 19,845 MHz would be equal. Indeed, due to the small $g_J = 0.67$ of the $^2P_{1/2}$ state and the high velocity of the beam atoms, state selection cannot be accomplished with the size of the electric field gap employed.

B. Thallium

Results for thallium are shown in Fig. 6 and summarized in Table III. All measurements were made using naturally occurring thallium which consists of two isotopes ^{203}Tl (30%) and ^{205}Tl (70%). Here the isotope shift is a large fraction of the line-width amounting to $\approx$ 1600-1800 MHz[32,33] and consequently the thallium resonances are broader. The difference in the hyperfine structure[34] ($\approx$ 200 MHz) which could lead to a more complicated pattern may be neglected.

The experimental results are in good agreement with B-D calculations but were found to be lower than B-D by $\approx 6\%$ in all measurements.[35] We can obtain a reasonably good value for $\alpha(^2P_{1/2})$ by relating α to the oscillator strengths, f, and using experimental f-values. If we use the f-values of Penkin and Shabanova[36] we get for indium and thallium respectively $\alpha(5^2P_{1/2}) = 4.5(1.5 \times 10^{-24}\text{cm}^3$ and $\alpha(6^2P_{1/2}) = 3.5(1) \times 10^{-24}\text{cm}^3$. From these values of the ground state polarizabilities we can deduce the excited state polarizabilities. We get, for indium and thallium respectively, $\alpha(6^2S_{1/2}) = 142(12.5) \times 10^{-24}\text{cm}^3$ and $\alpha(7^2S_{1/2}) = 118(13) \times 10^{-24}\text{cm}^3$ in very good agreement with B-D (Table III). We have calculated also the polarizabilities of the metastable state, $\alpha(^2P_{3/2}{}^{\pm m_j})$, from the f-values of Penkin and Shabanova and find then to be in fair agreement with the B-D values.

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FOOTNOTES AND REFERENCES

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Table I. Frequency shifts, electric fields, and signal intensities associated with indium.

Indium	F = 4					F = 5	
Overlapping lines	$\alpha' = \alpha$ $\beta' = \beta$	$\beta' = \gamma$	$\alpha' = \beta$	$\alpha' = \gamma$ $\beta' = \delta$	$\alpha' = \delta$	$\gamma' = \gamma$ $\delta' = \delta$	$\gamma' = \delta$
$\Delta\nu_s$ (MHz)	0	2,974.	8,435.	11,410.	19,845.	0	8,435.
Approx. kV/cm	0	162	274	319	425	0	274
Signal intensity	1.132	0.242	0.364	1.030	1.000	1.444	0.667

Table II. Frequency shifts, electric fields, and signal intensities associated with thallium.

Thallium	No state selection			
Overlapping lines	$\alpha' = \alpha$ $\gamma' = \gamma$, $\delta' = \delta$	$\gamma' = \delta$	$\alpha' = \gamma$	$\alpha' = \delta$
$\Delta\nu_s$ (MHz)	0	12,090	21,311	33,401
Approx. kV/cm	0	366	485	610
Signal intensity	1.50	0.50	0.50	0.25

Table III. Summary of calculated and experimental polarizabilities.

	Theoretical polarizabilities* $\times 10^{24}$ cm^{-3}					Experimental
	$\alpha(^2P_{1/2})$	$\alpha(^2P_{3/2}\pm 3/2)$	$\alpha(^2P_{3/2}\pm 1/2)$	$\alpha(^2S_{1/2})$	$\Delta\alpha(^2S_{1/2}, ^2P_{1/2})$	$\Delta\alpha(^2S_{1/2}, ^2P_{1/2})$
Indium	4.7	4.5	7.4	150.8	146.1	138(11)
Thallium	2.7	4.4	9.0	125.0	122.3	115(12)

*Bates-Damgaard.

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1. Indium and thallium energy levels.

Fig. 2. Possible overlaps between absorption lines of indium beam atoms (primed) and indium lamp lines (unprimed).

Fig. 3. Possible overlaps between absorption lines of thallium beam atoms (primed) and thallium lamp lines (unprimed).

Fig. 4. Details of the indium and thallium lamp oven.

(1) Heavy Duty, Inc. heater

(2) boron nitride lamp holder

(3) copper screen

(4) asbestos

(5) copper shell

(6) type A antena

(7) electrical feed-thru.

Fig. 5. Indium stark shift data. Overlapping lines are indicated above the resonances.

Fig. 6. Thallium stark shift data. Overlapping lines are indicated above the resonances.

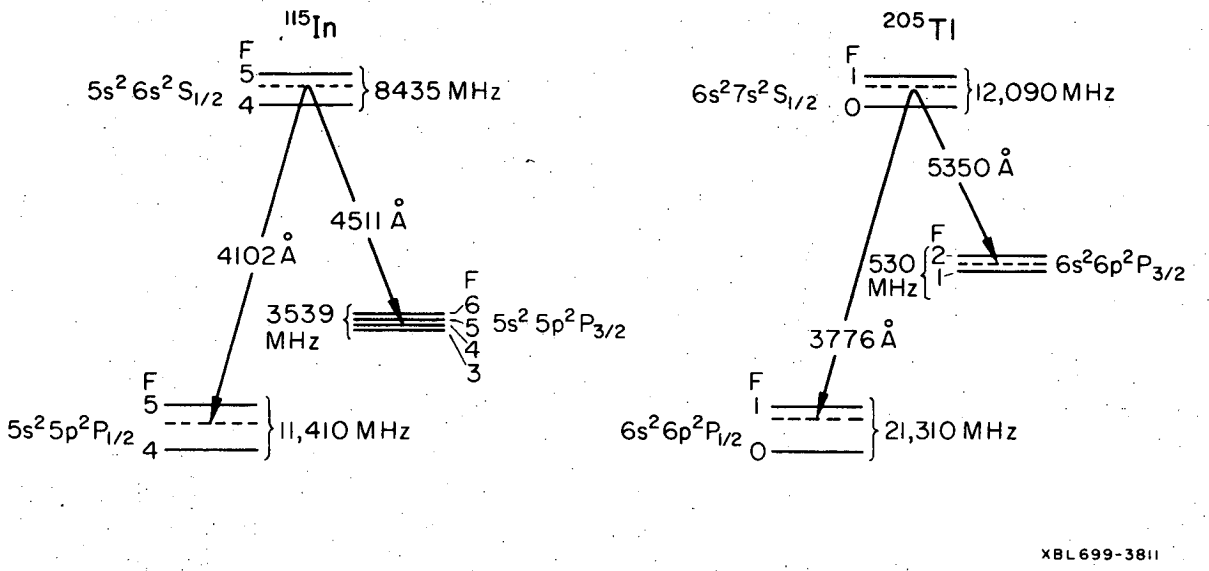
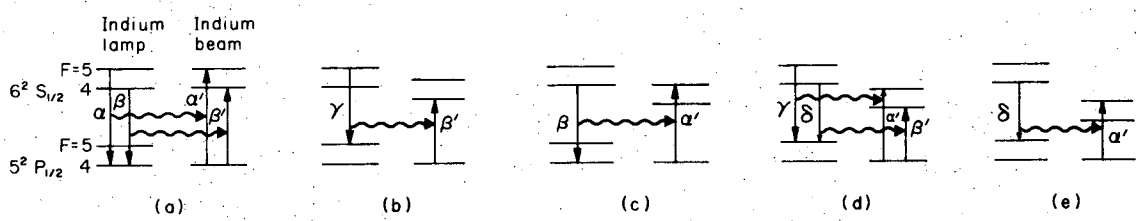

115In
F
5
4
5s² 6s² S1/2
8435 MHz
4511 Å
4102 Å
F
6
5
4
3
3539 MHz
5s² 5p² P3/2
F
5
4
5s² 5p² P1/2
11,410 MHz
205Tl
F
1
0
6s² 7s² S1/2
12,090 MHz
5350 Å
F
2
1
530 MHz
6s² 6p² P3/2
3776 Å
F
1
0
6s² 6p² P1/2
21,310 MHz
XBL699-3811

Fig. 1



XBL 699-3809

Fig. 2

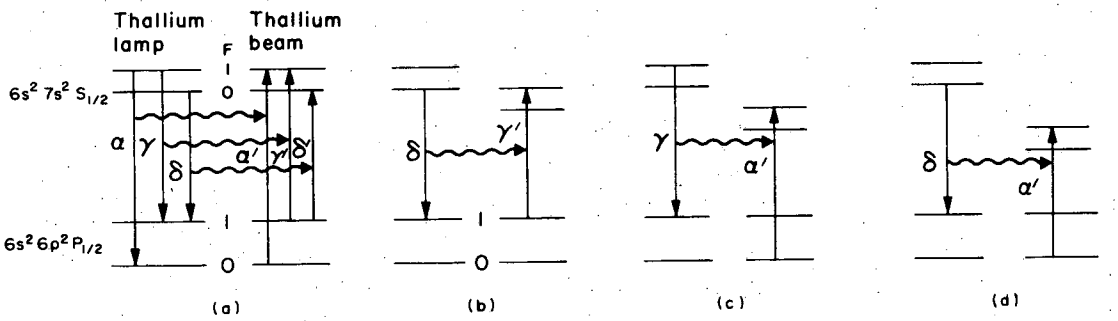
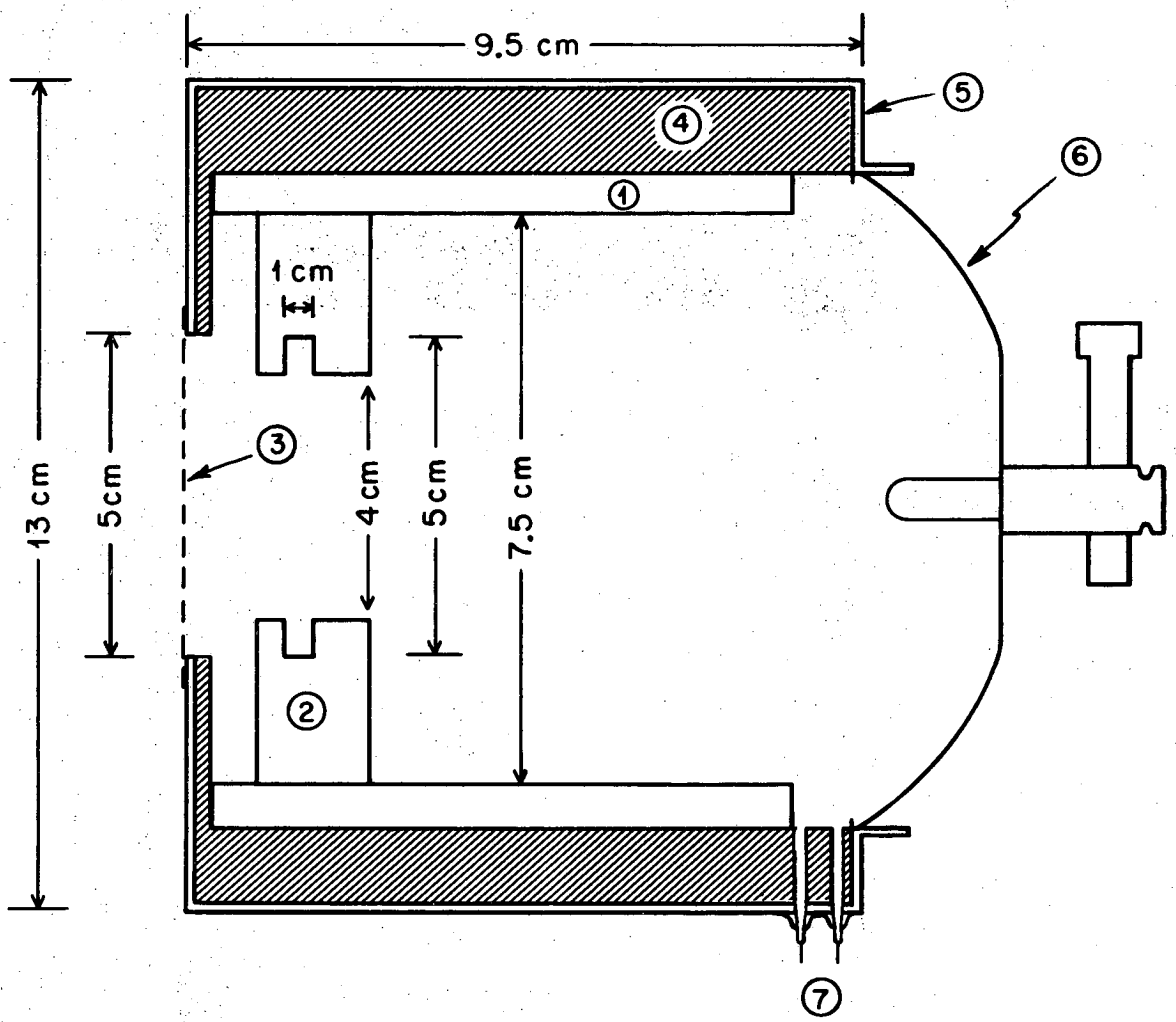
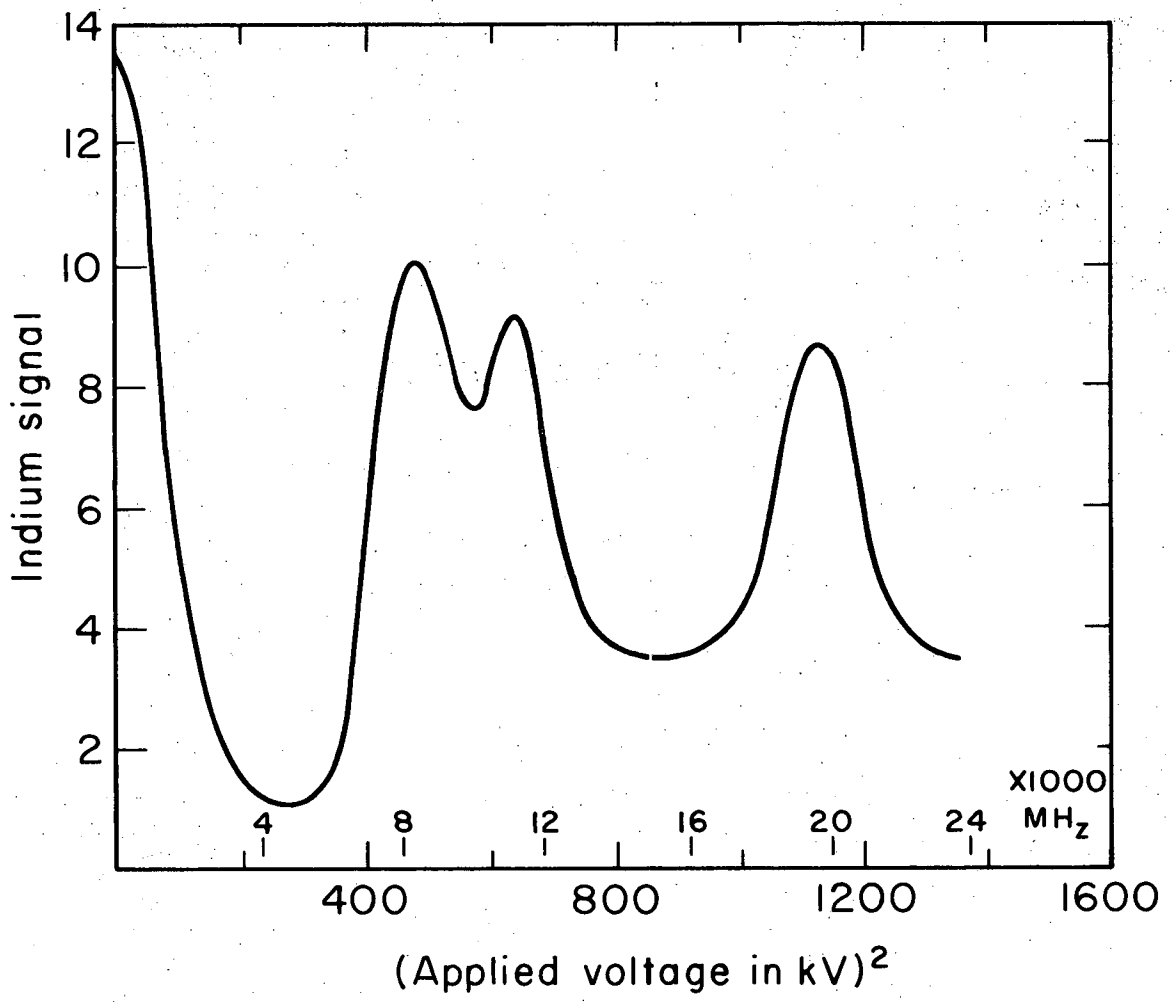

Thallium lamp
Thallium beam
F
1
0
$6s^2\,7s^2\,S_{1/2}$
α
γ
δ
α′
γ′
δ′
1
$6s^2\,6p^2\,P_{1/2}$
0
(a)
δ
γ′
1
0
(b)
γ
α′
(c)
δ
α′
(d)
XBL699-3810

Fig. 3



XBL696-2908

Fig. 4



XBL699-3813

Fig. 5

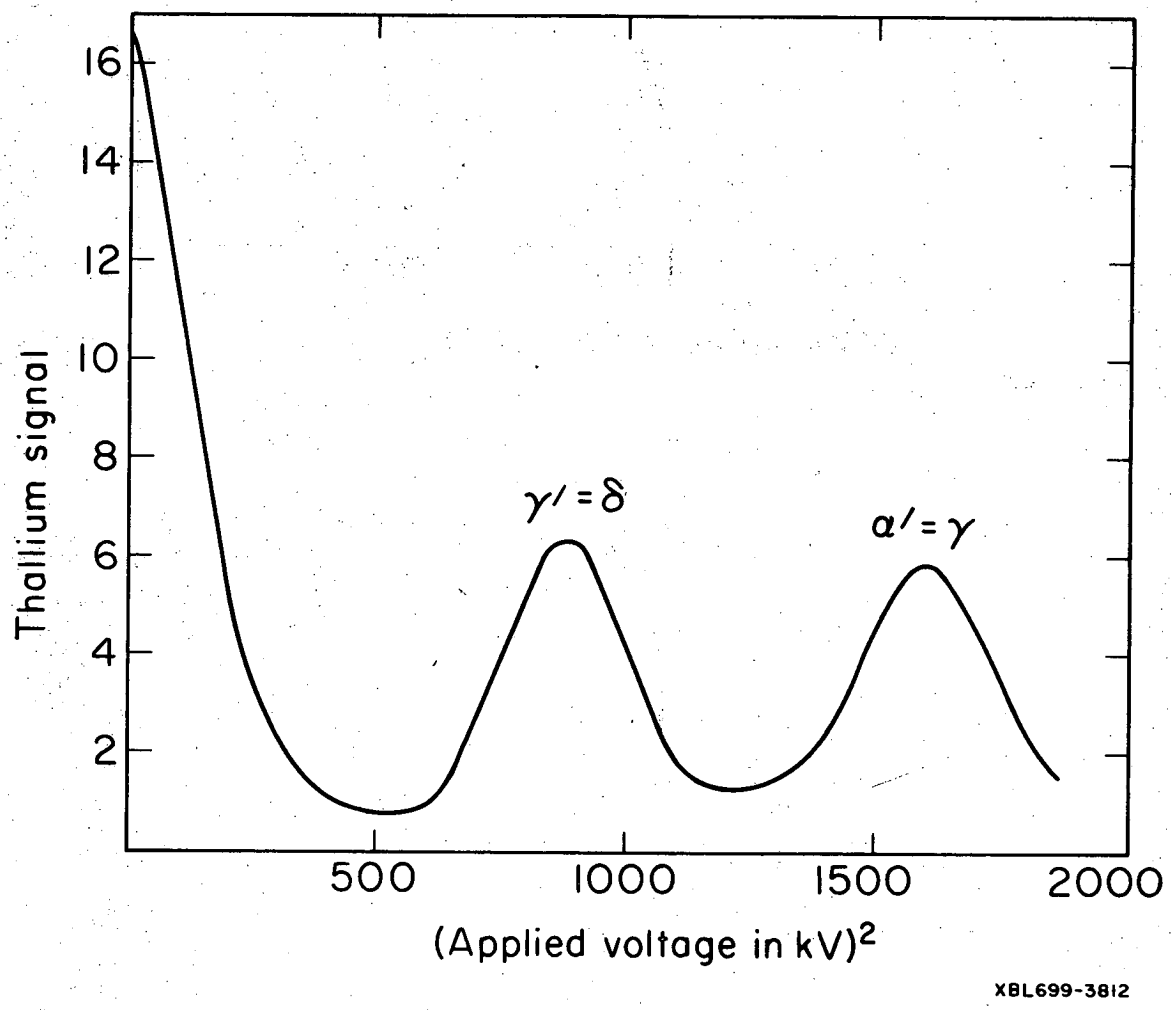

Thallium signal
16
14
12
10
8
6
4
2
500
1000
1500
2000
(Applied voltage in kV)²
γ′ = δ
α′ = γ
XBL699-3812

Fig. 6

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