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Authors

Dyck, Robert S. Van Johnson, Charles E. Shugart, Howard A.

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Radiative Lifetime of the 2^1S_0 Metastable State of Helium *

Robert S. Van Dyck, Jr., † Charles E. Johnson, and Howard A. Shugart

Department of Physics and Lawrence Radiation Laboratory University of California, Berkeley, California 94720

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ABSTRACT

A time-of-flight technique has been used to measure the radiative lifetime of the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ state of helium. After passing from a cooled source, helium atoms are excited by a pulsed, antiparallel electron beam. The atomic beam then contains not only ground state helium atoms but also metastable atoms in both the $2^3\mathrm{S}_1$ and the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ states. The metastable atoms are detected at two positions, 1.9 meters and 6.7 meters from the electron gun, by Auger ejection of an electron from a copper target, the first of which is a 60% transmitting mesh. Ground state helium atoms cannot cause an electron to be ejected and hence are not detected. The time-of-flight distribution for the metastable $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ state is separated from that of the $2^3\mathrm{S}_1$ state by illuminating the beam with an rf-discharge helium lamp. The $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ state is quenched by resonant absorption of a 20,581 Å photon,

raising the atom to the 2^1P_1 state, which then decays preferentially to the 1S_0 ground state; the 2^3S_1 state remains unaffected because it is the ground state for the triplet system. The time-of-flight distribution for the 2^1S_0 atoms is therefore obtained from the difference between the full beam and the quenched beam. A comparison of the number of 2^1S_0 metastables within a given velocity interval at the two detectors determines the number which decay in flight and yields a value for the two-photon radiative lifetime. The value of the singlet lifetime for both ${\rm He}^3$ and ${\rm He}^4$ is 19.7 ± 1.0 msec, agreeing with the theoretical value of 19.5 msec, but disagreeing with the value 38 ± 8 msec measured by Pearl using a movable detector. The 1.0 msec error is an estimate of the remaining systematic errors in the experiment.

I. INTRODUCTION

A metastable state of any atom was once thought to exist for a very long time, only being able to change state through collisions, absorption of radiation, or perturbation by external fields. The appearance of forbidden lines, originally thought to belong to unidentified elements, initiated a large amount of both experimental and theoretical work on possible secondary decay mechanisms. The early pioneering work involved the unidentified lines from planetary nebulae, the sun's corona, and the polar aurora. Bowen, for example, found that some unidentified lines from nebulae were the forbidden lines of O I, N II, and O III, while the lines in the aurora were forbidden lines of O I. Today most of the "forbidden" lines have been examined and found to arise from transitions between two energy levels of known atoms or their multiply-ionized states. These observations provided scientists with solid evidence for the existence of second-order multipole radiation , i.e., electric quadrupole and magnetic dipole, where before only electric dipole radiation had been considered. With this new attention on secondary decay mechanisms, Maria Goeppert-Mayer² developed a theory of multiple quanta radiation. In 1940, Breit and Teller³ predicted the lifetime of the metastable ²S_{1/2} state of hydrogen, based on a two-photon decay process, to be 143 msec. Since the $2^{1}S_{0}$ metastable state of helium also decays by two-photon emission, they estimated the lifetime of this state to be approximately the same; however, the lifetime of the 2^3S_1 metastable state was expected to be much longer.

Forbidden radiation is of interest to astrophysicists, since metastable states of atoms provide much of the light emitted from planetary nebulae, where the density of matter is **tenuous** ($\approx 1000~\text{atoms/cm}^3$). Atoms can therefore exist a long time before making collisions and, provided the radiation density is not too large, will live long enough to decay spontaneously, emitting forbidden radiation. Measuring the intensity of these forbidden lines yields information concerning the density, temperature, chemical composition, and other important properties of these non-terrestrial features. For instance, the two-photon decay of the $2^2S_{1/2}$ metastable state of hydrogen is used to explain the continuous emission spectra of the planetary nebulae. Also, metastable helium is quite abundant in the atmospheres of certain Be stars and can be used for studying various properties of these stars.

The first laboratory evidence of the two-photon emission process was observed in 1965 with an experiment on the $2^2 \mathrm{S}_{1/2}$ state of He⁺. Using an angular correlation technique, coincidence counts were collected by two independent counters with an angle θ between them. The counts were shown to be correlated with an angular dependence according to $1 + \cos^2 \theta$, as expected for this two-photon decay.

The two-photon decay process is also of fundamental importance to theoreticians. The lifetime of a metastable state which decays by two-photon emission is very sensitive to the exact wavefunctions describing states that are connected to the metastable state by electric dipole radiation. Until the last five years, though, most interest in

the two-photon decay process concentrated on the $2^2S_{1/2}$ state of hydrogenlike systems. Then, in 1966, Dalgarno⁸ published his first estimate of the lifetime of the $2^{1}S_{0}$ metastable state of helium, utilizing sum rules of oscillator strengths that had been determined experimentally and theoretically. The lifetime obtained was 22 msec. Later, Dalgarno and Victor9 calculated the lifetime to be 12 msec, using a special sum rule with initial and final state wavefunctions obtained from the time-dependent, uncoupled Hartree-Fock approximation; this is a simpler but less accurate method of calculation. In 1967, Victor ocalculated a value of 20 msec using wavefunctions obtained from the time-dependent coupled Hartree-Fock approximation. The most recent and most accurate calculation by Drake, Victor, and Dalgarno¹¹ gives $\tau(2^1S_0) = 19.5$ msec. In this calculation, correlation-type wavefunctions are used, in which the positions of the two electrons are correlated by including a dependence on the distance between electrons. Recently Jacobs 12 also completed an independent calculation using both length and velocity matrix elements; he obtains a value of $\tau(2^1S_0) = 19.6$ msec.

The first beam experiment 13 to measure the metastable helium lifetime yielded only a lower limit for the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ lifetime. Steinberg's apparatus was an earlier version of the present experiment and utilized the same time-of-flight technique for determining lifetimes. His apparatus was, however, severely pressure-limited and was only capable of measuring a lower limit of 9 msec for the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ lifetime. Pearl 14 used a single movable detector to report an experimental determination of the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ lifetime. His value of 38 ± 8 msec, however,

seriously disagrees not only with the theoretical result¹¹ of 19.5 msec but also with our present experiment, as reported previously.¹⁵ Following a discussion of the helium metastable states, this paper outlines the theory of two-photon decay, analyzes the time-of-flight technique for measuring metastable lifetimes, and explains the apparatus and data analysis used to obtain an experimental result for the two-photon radiative lifetime of the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ metastable state.

II. HELIUM METASTABLE STATES

The lowest-lying energy levels of helium are shown in Fig. 1. The only transition possible for the $2^{3}S_{1}$ state is to the $1^{1}S_{0}$ ground state. An examination of the selection rules 16 shows, however, that the $2^{3}S_{1}$ state is metastable and is therefore effectively the ground state of the triplet system. The transition is forbidden for electric dipole radiation since the parity does not change; electric quadrupole radiation is also forbidden for a $J = 1 \rightarrow J = 0$ transition. Although the transition does satisfy the rigorous selection rules for magnetic dipole radiation, the selection rule $\Delta S = 0$ would be violated. This rule holds well for helium since LS coupling is an excellent approximation. The most probable decay mode for the 2³S₁ state would therefore appear to be two-photon emission. In fact, for many years after the discovery of forbidden lines, it was thought that the $2^3S_1 \rightarrow 1^1S_0$ transition could occur only by two-photon emission with a transition probability between 10^{-8} and 10^{-9} sec⁻¹. However, there are spin-dependent relativistic correction operators to the usual magnetic dipole operator which allow a non-zero relativistic magnetic dipole transition to exist directly between the 2^3S_1 state and the 1^1S_0 The corresponding transition probability for this decay ground state. mode has been calculated 17 to be about 10^{-4} sec $^{-1}$. The 2^3 S₁ metastable state should therefore decay by relativistic magnetic dipole radiation rather than by two-photon emission.

The 2^1S_0 state lies above both the 2^3S_1 and the 1^1S_0 states. The intercombination transition $2^1S_0 \rightarrow 2^3S_1$ violates the $\Delta S = 0$ selection rule and is consequently very improbable. The only other possibility, the $2^1S_0 \rightarrow 1^1S_0$ transition, is a J = 0 \rightarrow J = 0 transition, which is rigorously forbidden for all orders of single-photon multipole radiation. The next most probable decay mechanism available for the 2^1S_0 state is the emission of two electric dipole photons. The object of this research is to determine experimentally the mean life of this state. Since the calculated 2^1S_0 lifetime of 19.5 msec is very short when compared to the expected 2^3S_1 lifetime of 10^4 sec, the 2^3S_1 state can, for the purposes of this experiment, be considered to have an essentially infinite lifetime.

III. THEORETICAL TWO-PHOTON LIFETIME

The expression³ for the probability of emitting two photons spontaneously, with one photon having a frequency between v_1 and v_1 + dv_1 , is

$$A(v_1)dv_1 = \frac{2^{10}\pi^6 e^4}{h^2 c^6} v_1^3 v_2^3 |M_{fi}|_{av}^2 dv_1$$
 (1)

where, by conservation of energy,

$$E = hv_1 + hv_2$$
$$= E_i - E_f;$$

E is the energy difference between the initial state i and final state f. The matrix element $M_{\mbox{fi}}$ for the transition must be averaged over the directions of propagation and of polarization $\hat{\epsilon}$, independently for both photons. The matrix element $M_{\mbox{fi}}$ for two electric dipole photons is

$$M_{fi} = \sum_{n} \left[\frac{(\hat{\epsilon}_{1} \cdot \vec{r})_{fn} (\hat{\epsilon}_{2} \cdot \vec{r})_{ni}}{v_{ni} + v_{2}} + \frac{(\hat{\epsilon}_{2} \cdot \vec{r})_{fn} (\hat{\epsilon}_{1} \cdot \vec{r})_{ni}}{v_{ni} + v_{1}} \right]. \quad (2)$$

Energy $h\nu_{ni}$ is the difference between intermediate and initial state energies. The summation over n includes all possible real intermediate states of the atom, as well as states in the continuum. Since matrix elements representing allowed electric dipole transitions are much larger than those representing other decay modes, the intermediate states must be only those which can be reached from the initial state, and also the final state, by absorption of a single electric dipole

photon. This criterion is satisfied for an initial 2^1S_0 state and a final 1^1S_0 state by the n^1P states, which are therefore the ones to enter the summation over n. Thus, terms like $(\hat{\epsilon}_1 \cdot \vec{r})_{fn}$ are the usual electric dipole matrix elements between the 1S_0 and n^1P states in which \vec{r} is the sum of the position vectors of the two electrons.

Equation 2 can be shown³ to reduce to

$$M_{fi} = (\hat{\epsilon}_1 \cdot \hat{\epsilon}_2) \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} z_{fn} z_{ni} \left[\frac{1}{v_{ni} + v_2} + \frac{1}{v_{ni} + v_1} \right]$$

where the index n refers to the intermediate 1P state and $z_{\rm fn}$, $z_{\rm ni}$ are the electric dipole matrix elements between the 1S_0 and 1P states. The relationship between the directions of polarization of the two photons is given by $(\hat{\varepsilon}_1 \cdot \hat{\varepsilon}_2)$; thus the emission probability is proportional to $\cos^2\theta$ of the angle between the two polarization directions. The necessary average over polarization directions is

$$\int \cos^2\theta \, \frac{\mathrm{d}\Omega}{4\pi} = \frac{1}{3} .$$

Equation 1 therefore becomes

$$A(v_1)dv_1 = \frac{2^{10}\pi^6 e^4}{3h^2c^6} v_1^3 v_2^3 \left[\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} z_{fn}^2 z_{ni} \left(\frac{1}{v_{ni} + v_1} + \frac{1}{v_{ni} + v_2} \right) \right]^2 dv_1$$
 (3)

where the summation is understood to include the continuum. Equation 3 is the starting point for most theoretical calculations $^{e^{-11}}$ of the $^{2}S_{0}$ lifetime. The various calculations have differed in the choice

of wavefunctions used to calculate the matrix elements \mathbf{z}_{fn} , \mathbf{z}_{ni} and in the treatment of the continuum. Jacobs' calculation¹² of this lifetime demonstrates the importance of the continuum summation.

The total two-photon emission probability \mathbf{A}_T is obtained by integrating Eq. 3 over frequency \mathbf{v}_1 :

$$A_{T} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{E/h} A(v_1) dv_1$$

where the factor 1/2 results from counting photon 1 twice in the frequency interval [0, E/h]. The mean life for two-photon emission is then

$$\tau(2^1S_0) = \frac{1}{A_T}$$
.

IV. TIME-OF-FLIGHT ANALYSIS

The formalism for the time-of-flight technique is first outlined for the general case of an atomic beam containing different metastable states created instantaneously by a pulsed electron beam at a single position; then the theory is applied to the case of helium, showing how the lifetime τ of the 2^1S_0 state can be determined.

A. General Formalism

The number of atoms in a particular metastable state k with initial velocity distribution $n_0(v,k)$, which arrive at detector i at time t_i , is $n_0(v,k)$ e^{$-t_i/\tau_k$}; the exponential factor allows for the possibility of radiative decay with mean life τ_k . The probability of detecting a particular metastable atom depends upon the surface efficiency $\epsilon_i(k)$ of detector i. Although this efficiency should be velocity independent for the thermal velocity range of this experiment, it is not necessarily true that the efficiency is independent of position on the detector surface. The total number $N_i(v)$ of metastable atoms with velocity v that are counted at detector v is therefore obtained not only by summing over the different metastable states v, but also by integrating over the surface of the detector:

$$N_{i}(v) = \sum_{k} \int_{\text{surface}} \varepsilon_{i}(k) \ n_{o}(v,k) \ e^{-t_{i}/\tau_{k}} \ dS .$$
 (4)

Dependence on the details of the detector surface is eliminated by insuring that the initial velocity distribution $n_O(v,k)$ is uniform

across the beam so that each point on the detector surface sees the same velocity distribution. The number of metastable atoms counted is then simply

$$N_{i}(v) = \sum_{k} C_{i}(k) n_{o}(v,k) e^{-t_{i}/\tau_{k}},$$
 (5)

where $C_i(k) = \int_S \varepsilon_i(k) \, dS$ is a constant efficiency factor of the i'th detector. A comparison of the number of metastable atoms in the same velocity interval at two spatially separated detectors allows the determination of the mean lifetimes τ_k , since, with the reasonable assumption that the velocity distribution $n_o(v,k)$ is the same for all states k, the ratio

$$R = \frac{N_2(v)}{N_1(v)} = \frac{\sum_{k}^{\infty} C_2(k) e^{-t_2/\tau_k}}{\sum_{k}^{\infty} C_1(k) e^{-t_1/\tau_k}}$$
(6)

is independent of this velocity distribution. The ratio is also evidently independent of the initial velocity distribution if only one metastable state is present in the beam, and

$$R = \frac{N_2(v)}{N_1(v)} = \frac{C_2 e^{-t_2/\tau}}{C_1 e^{-t_1/\tau}} = Ce^{-t/\tau}$$
 (7)

where $t = t_2 - t_1$ is the time of flight between the two detectors. The natural logarithm of Eq. (7) yields the equation of a straight line whose slope is $-1/\tau$.

B. Metastable Helium Analysis

Since the 2^3S_1 level in helium is lower in energy than the 2^1S_0 level, electron bombardment excitation necessarily produces atoms in both metastable states. Atoms in the 2^1S_0 state can be quenched, however, by exciting them with 20,581 Å resonance radiation to the 2^1P_1 state, which subsequently decays preferentially to the 1S_0 ground state by emitting 584 Å radiation; see Fig. 1. Application of Eq. (5) to the specific case of helium shows that the number of counts at the first detector with the quench lamp off is

$$N_1(\text{off}) = C_1(^1S) n_0(^1S) e^{-t_1/\tau_1} + C_1(^3S) n_0(^3S) e^{-t_1/\tau_3}$$
 (8)

If the quench radiation is not 100% effective, then only a certain fraction f(v) of the 2^1S_0 atoms are quenched, where f(v) may depend on the velocity of the atom. Again applying Eq. (5), but now with the quench lamp on, gives

$$N_{1}(\text{on}) = [1 - f(v)] C_{1}(^{1}S) n_{0}(^{1}S) e^{-t_{1}/\tau_{1}} + C_{1}(^{3}S) n_{0}(^{3}S) e^{-t_{1}/\tau_{3}}$$
(9)

as the number of metastable atoms counted at the first detector. The difference between Eq. (8) and Eq. (9) is the effective number of 2^1S_0 metastable atoms which are analyzed to determine the mean life τ_1 :

$$N_1(^1S) \equiv N_1(off) - N_1(on) = C_1(^1S) f(v) n_0(^1S) e^{-t_1/\tau_1}$$
.

Similarly, for the second detector,

$$N_2(^1S) = C_2(^1S) f(v) n_0(^1S) e^{-t_2/\tau_1}$$

The ratio of the number of atoms counted within the same velocity interval is not only independent of the initial velocity distribution $\mathbf{n}_{0}(v)$ but also independent of the details of the quenching process as contained in the quenching fraction $\mathbf{f}(v)$. The logarithm of this ratio is

$$\ln R = \ln \left[\frac{N_2(^1S)}{N_1(^1S)} \right] = A - \frac{t}{\tau_1},$$
 (10)

where $t=t_2-t_1$ is the time of flight for a particular velocity interval and A is a constant depending on the efficiency of the two detectors. The calculation of this ratio for several different velocity intervals of the time-of-flight distribution allows a determination of the mean life from the slope = $-1/\tau_1$ of a straight line, least-squares fitted to a plot of $\ln R$ versus the time of flight.

V. APPARATUS

The time-of-flight apparatus is outlined in Fig. 2. The major components in addition to the vacuum system are: (1) the source, (2) the metastabilizer [electron gun], (3) the quench lamp, and (4) the detector at either end of a 4.8 meter drift region. Cooled helium gas effuses from the source and passes vertically through the metastabilizer where a pulsed, antiparallel electron beam excites the ground state atoms to the two metastable states. The resonance discharge lamp allows the effective separation of the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ and $2^3\mathrm{S}_1$ metastable states. A comparison of the number of $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ metastable atoms within specific velocity intervals arriving at the two detectors yields the number which decay in flight between them, and consequently gives the mean life τ of the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ state. The major components will now be described in more detail.

A. Vacuum System

The nature of a time-of-flight experiment for measuring the lifetime of a metastable state requires that the loss of metastable atoms between the two detectors resulting from residual gas scattering be negligible in comparison to the loss from radiative decay. To achieve this situation the vacuum system is constructed of stainless steel and, following a 48-hr bakeout at 300° C, a pressure in the drift region of 1×10^{-10} Torr is obtainable with liquid nitrogen trapping. Experimentally, a drift region pressure lower than 1×10^{-8} Torr proved sufficient to eliminate any systematic scattering effect on the lifetime, and all final data were taken with the pressure this low or lower.

An additional requirement of the vacuum system is that there be sufficient buffer chambers and pumping speed to insure that the drift region pressure does not increase while a helium beam is flowing. The present apparatus has three buffer chambers; the first is pumped by a 2000 liters/sec oil diffusion pump, the second and third by 500 liters/sec liquid-nitrogen-trapped pumps. The drift region is pumped by three equally spaced 1000 liters/sec pumps. No detectable rise in drift region pressure was observed even for a helium flow rate 100 times that used during data collection.

The stainless steel plates, each with a 0.64 cm axial hole, separating the various buffer chambers also served as collimators. The main purpose of the collimation and subsequent lineup of the source slit, electron gun, and collimators is to assure that any atom that can be seen by the lower detector can also be seen by the upper detector. The source area, in the worst possible situation, is determined only by the collimator directly above the electron gun. Then the linear dimension subtended across the lower detector is 0.74 cm and the corresponding dimension on the upper detector is 4.45 cm. Since each detector target has a minimum dimension of 9.0 cm, both detectors necessarily see the same metastable beam.

The collimators also eliminate helium ions from the beam; an ion moving through the earth's magnetic field must have a velocity greater than 70,000 m/sec to pass through the collimators and reach the first detector. However, only $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ metastable atoms with velocities less than 2000 m/sec are detected in a quantity sufficient

for data analysis. The maximum solid angle subtended by the beam is 5×10^{-5} steradians and indicates that the number of uv photons reaching the detectors from the quench region is negligible in comparison to the metastable beam.

B. Source

Commercial grade helium is stored in a 10 liter volume at atmospheric pressure. The gas flow from the reservoir to the source assembly is controlled by a needle valve. A typical flow rate is 0.1 liter/hr and is very stable during a two-hour run.

The source assembly, shown in Fig. 3, is used to cool the helium. The inner dewar of this assembly can be filled with either liquid nitrogen or liquid helium, and the outer jacket normally contains liquid nitrogen. The source gas is first cooled to liquid nitrogen temperature inside this outer jacket before passing into the heat exchanger attached to the bottom of the inner dewar. A long copper tube is attached to this heat exchanger to bring the cooled gas to the beam axis. When liquid helium is used, a radiation shield at liquid nitrogen temperature is placed over the long copper tube. The 0.025 cm wide slit at the end of this tube is oriented parallel to the direction of the tube and is 0.5 cm long. The pressure in the source tube is about 0.05 Torr for a flow rate of 0.1 liter/hr.

C. Metastabilizer

Ground state helium atoms are excited to the 2¹S₀ metastable state by electron bombardment immediately after the source slit. The electron gun is a type of sheath electrode gun described previously. The atomic beam passes antiparallel to the electron beam through a 2 cm by 0.25 cm slot in the collector and between the two side electrodes which define the 1 cm long excitation region. The electron beam originates from a 2.5 cm long, 0.025 cm diameter thoriated tungsten filament heated by about 8 amps of 3 kHz audiofrequency current; about 20 ma of emission current are obtained at 50 V. A 300 G magnetic field from a concentric solenoid helps focus the electrons onto the collector and confine them to the excitation region.

D. Quench Lamp

An air-cooled rf-discharge helium lamp¹⁹ is located adjacent to the first buffer chamber and illuminates the metastable beam through a Pyrex window. The lamps are made from an 8 cm long, 0.8 cm diameter Pyrex tube, and are prepared with special emphasis on cleanliness and purity of the gas sample. The lamps are evacuated and baked before filling to about 5 Torr. A 50 watt, 70 MHz oscillator drives the lamp.

E. Detection System

The basic goal of the detection system is to preferentially detect the metastable atoms and to store the data for both detectors

according to time of flight. When a metastable atom strikes a copper detector target, the first being a 60% transparent electroformed mesh, the ejected Auger electron is focused onto an electron multiplier. The resultant pulse is amplified, counted, and then stored in a PDP-8 computer memory location corresponding to its arrival time after the initial electron gun pulse. A block diagram of the total data collection network is shown in Fig. 4. The central component of this network is the PDP-8 digital computer, programmed to control the solenoid and gun-pulsing circuits, the lamp oscillator circuit, the output keypunch, and the data storage. The interface network properly gates and registers the count rate for lamp-on and lamp-off, gating out light pulses received when the electron gun is on.

The timing aspects of the experiment are shown in Fig. 5. A crystal controlled oscillator supplies the channel advance pulses, which the PDP-8 uses as a reference to determine the proper sequence of events. Channel 0 corresponds to the duration of the electron gun pulse and the creation of a pulse of metastable atoms. Time t=0 is at the center of channel 0. The focusing solenoid is pulsed on a few milliseconds before channel 0 and is turned off at the end of the gun pulse. To improve the lamp's stability while data counts are being collected, the lamp is turned on or off at the beginning of a 16 msec waiting period. This period is the time the PDP-8 needs for adding data collected in buffer registers to that already stored from previous sweeps. Data counts are collected at both detectors simultaneously with a total number of about 10^7 metastable atoms

counted during a two-hour run; most runs were for two hours, though several twelve-hour runs were taken. The longer runs allowed sufficient counts to accumulate in the tail of the distribution so that longer flight times could be included in the analysis.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

As displayed by the interface oscilloscope, an example of the data collected and stored by the PDP-8 computer during a run is shown in Fig. 6; the first two time-of-flight distributions correspond respectively to detector 1 and detector 2 with the quench lamp off, while the last two correspond to those with the lamp on. Essentially, metastable atom pulses from both detectors are counted simultaneously for equally wide time-sequenced channels. The display of Fig. 6 has 200, 80 µsec-wide channels for each time-of-flight distribution and represents the sum of 10^5 separate data collection cycles during a total time of about two hours; the vertical scale is about 10^5 counts/cm.

After being punched onto cards, the four time-of-flight distributions are analyzed to determine the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ metastable state lifetime. The first step in the analysis is to obtain the distribution of the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ atoms by subtracting for each detector the data distribution for quench lamp on from that with the lamp off. Since the background counts at each detector are the same for lamp on as for lamp off, this subtraction of the two original distributions has an added dividend — the elimination of any background from the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ distribution.

Next, the analysis program matches, for equal velocity intervals, the data from detector 1 with that from detector 2.

Allowing the channel width at detector 1 to determine the velocity interval, a five point Lagrange interpolation method is used to

obtain the integral of the distribution at detector 2 for the same velocity interval. The result of this integration is illustrated for a twelve-hour run in Fig. 7, where the time-of-flight distributions for the 2^1S_0 metastable atoms are plotted for both detectors.

Now that each distribution point for both detectors corresponds to 2^1S_0 atoms with the same velocity, the ratio of detector 2 data to detector 1 data is taken. A straight line is then least-squares fitted to the natural logarithm of this ratio since, according to Eq. (10), ℓn R versus time-of-flight t is a straight line. The mean life τ of the 2^1S_0 metastable state is obtained from the slope = $-1/\tau$ of this fitted line. Figure 8 is a plot of R(t) on a logarithmic scale versus time-of-flight t; the straight line is fit only between data points that have a number of counts at least 10% of the number in the peak.

For each run, the quench lamp on data, consisting almost entirely of $2^3\mathrm{S}_1$ metastable atoms, is also analyzed. Before the time-of-flight distributions are analyzed, however, a constant background is subtracted from each; for detector 1, this background is estimated from the counts collected in the last ten channels on the long tail of the distribution, while for detector 2 the beginning channels, before any metastable atoms arrive, furnish the background information.

Since the 2^3S_1 state lifetime is expected to be essentially infinite compared to the flight times in our apparatus, a determination of the effective lifetime for this state serves as a very sensitive

test of possible systematic errors in the data analysis. Also, an experimental estimate of about 1 sec is obtained as a lower limit for the $2^3\mathrm{S}_1$ state lifetime.

VII. RESULTS

A. Systematic Effects

During the course of the experiment, numerous parameters were varied in an attempt to discover any possible source of systematic error. Since an earlier version¹³ of the apparatus had been limited both by insufficient drift region vacuum and by inadequate buffer chambers, the present version was constructed with emphasis on the vacuum system. As a consequence, a factor of ten increase in either the drift region pressure or in the beam flow rate over normal operating conditions produced no detectable change in the measured value of the lifetime to within the statistical accuracy of the experiment.

As pointed out in Section IV, the result for the mean life is expected to be independent of the initial velocity distribution. To examine this assertion, the source was operated with both liquid nitrogen and liquid helium cooling, although the close proximity of the source slit to the hot filament of the electron gun limited the actual source temperature to a value somewhat higher than that of the liquid coolant. Again no systematic effect on the lifetime result was observed. Unfortunately, operation of the source at room temperature did not furnish additional information because the statistical fit to the decay plot was poor; the higher beam velocity did not allow a time of flight sufficient for a significant amount of radiative decay to occur.

Another assertion of Section IV subject to experimental verification is that the fraction of 2^1S_0 atoms quenched by the lamp does not affect the lifetime measurement. When a neutral density screen was used to reduce the lamp intensity so that only about 50% of the 2^1S_0 atoms were quenched, the measured lifetime was the same, to within the statistical error, as for the fully quenched beam. Moreover, reducing the quench lamp intensity also changes the 2^1S_0 time-of-flight distribution; the quenching fraction f(v) appearing in Eq. (9) is velocity dependent, since the slower 2^1S_0 atoms, requiring more time to traverse the quench region, are preferentially quenched. Thus, lack of a systematic lamp intensity effect lends additional support to the conclusion that the lifetime measurement is independent of the initial velocity distribution.

Other parameters, such as source to electron gun distance, electron gun voltage, detector voltages, and channel width, were also varied with no effect. The extremely small solid angle subtended by the detectors excludes any significant contribution to the count rate from uv photons originating from either the quench region or from radiative decay. In addition, the retarding influence of gravity can be shown to be negligible for the experimental time of flight of even the slowest atoms.

However, one systematic effect, related to the source position and electron beam orientation, was found which could give at least a factor of two variation in the measured lifetime. Before this effect was discovered, the original configuration in the source region was a pinhole source and an electron beam perpendicular to the

atomic beam; but with this particular arrangement, a 0.25 cm movement of the source hole perpendicular to the atomic beam direction would produce this large systematic effect. The explanation is contained in Eq. (4); it is absolutely essential that each position on the detector surface see the same velocity distribution. This condition is not necessarily true with a perpendicular electron beam, since different positions on the detector surface observe the electron bombardment region at different metastable atom recoil angles. In fact, one of the earliest experiments²⁰ on a metastable atom discusses the modification of the original velocity distribution following electron excitation to the metastable state. And, in agreement with this earlier work, the metastable velocity distribution in the present experiment, being well approximated by a v⁶ dependence, is much faster than the distribution usually expected for effusion from a slit source.²¹

An attempt to assure that each position on the detector surface sees the same velocity distribution resulted in the final arrangement — a slit source and an electron beam antiparallel to the atomic beam. Although this configuration almost eliminates any systematic source position effect, the remaining uncertainty is a major contribution to the final error of the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ lifetime measurement.

Finally, it is interesting to point out that, with the source hole on axis, the original source-electron gun configuration gave the same measured lifetime as the final arrangement.

B. Errors

Compared to two other sources of error, the statistical error is sufficiently small that it does not contribute to the final error. The first significant error arises from the systematic source position effect already discussed. We shall take the size of this error to be equal to the change in the measured lifetime when the source slit is moved a distance equal to the slit length. The slit length is 0.5 cm, and a 0.5 cm movement parallel to its length and perpendicular to the atomic beam direction changes the lifetime by 1.2 msec. Therefore the systematic source position error is ±0.6 msec.

The other major source of error occurs because the electron bombardment region extends for 1 cm along the atomic beam direction. This leads to an uncertainty in the velocity interval over which the detector 2 distribution is integrated, since the finite bombardment region results in an uncertainty in the effective distance to the two detectors. Taking one-half the bombardment length as the total distance error, a ± 0.25 cm change of the distances used in the data analysis program gives a subsequent error in the 2^1S_0 lifetime of ± 0.4 msec. Combining this distance error with the systematic source position error yields a final error of ± 1.0 msec.

C. $2^{1}S_{0}$ Lifetime

Although over 200 runs were taken during the investigation of systematic effects, the final result for the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ lifetime is based on 23 two-hour runs and also on 3 twelve-hour runs for He^4 , and on

13 four-hour runs for ${\rm He}^3$. The lifetime result is essentially the same for both ${\rm He}^3$ and ${\rm He}^4$. The weighted average of these runs is 19.7 msec, with a statistical error of ± 0.1 msec. However, a consideration of the two major systematic errors in this experiment gives a final result of 19.7 \pm 1.0 msec as the mean life of the $2^1{\rm S}_0$ metastable state of helium.

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Figure Captions

- Fig. 1. Lowest helium energy levels. The 2^1S_0 metastable state is produced by electron bombardment of the 1^1S_0 ground state. Quenching of the 2^1S_0 state occurs by resonant absorption to the 2^1P_1 state, which decays preferentially to the ground state.
- Fig. 2. Apparatus outline. Ground state atoms effuse from the source (1) and are excited to the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ and $2^3\mathrm{S}_1$ metastable states by electron bombardment (2). The $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ state can be quenched by the discharge lamp (3), and the metastable atoms are detected (4) at both ends of the time-of-flight region.
- Fig. 3. Source assembly. The helium gas effusing from the slit can be cooled by either liquid nitrogen or liquid helium.
- Fig. 4. Data collection and storage. The PDP-8 computer stores metastable atom counts from both detectors in channels whose width is determined by the time base oscillator. The PDP-8 also controls the electron gun and solenoid pulses, and gates the lamp on-off at the appropriate times.
- Fig. 5. Timing scheme. Channel advance pulses from a crystal controlled oscillator determine the channel width and furnish the PDP-8 computer with synchronizing pulses for control of the electron gun, solenoid, and quench lamp. The solenoid current is pulsed on for a few milliseconds before channel 0, which is the electron gun on time. The lamp is switched on-off for alternate data collection cycles.
- Fig. 6. Interface oscilloscope display. The first half of the display, consisting of 200, 80 µsec-wide channels for each detector,

corresponds to the quench lamp off, while the second 400 channels are with the lamp on. The decrease in peak height represents the $2^1\mathrm{S}_0$ metastable atoms that are quenched by the discharge lamp. The vertical scale is about 10^5 counts/cm.

- Fig. 7. Time-of-flight distributions. Appropriate data analysis yields the time-of-flight distributions for the 2^1S_0 metastable atoms. The channel numbers are for detector 1; the data for detector 2 has been averaged over velocity intervals whose width is determined by the channel width at detector 1.
- Fig. 8. $2^1 S_0$ decay plot. The ratio of detector 2 to detector 1 $2^1 S_0$ metastable atom distributions versus the time-of-flight between detectors is a straight line on a logarithmic plot. The mean life τ of the $2^1 S_0$ state is obtained from the slope = -1/ τ of the least-squares fitted straight line; the fit only includes points which have counts equal to at least 10% of the number in the peak of the distribution.

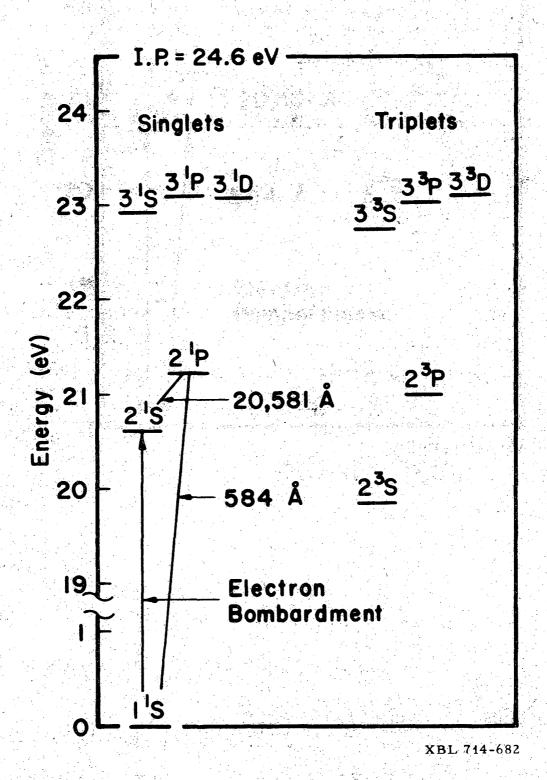


Fig. 1

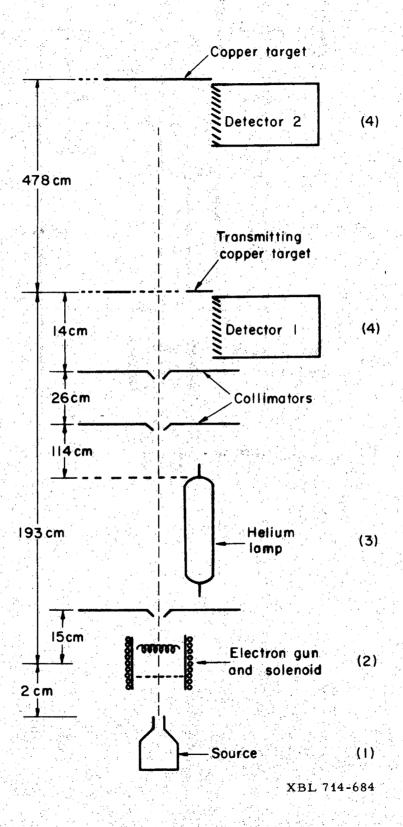
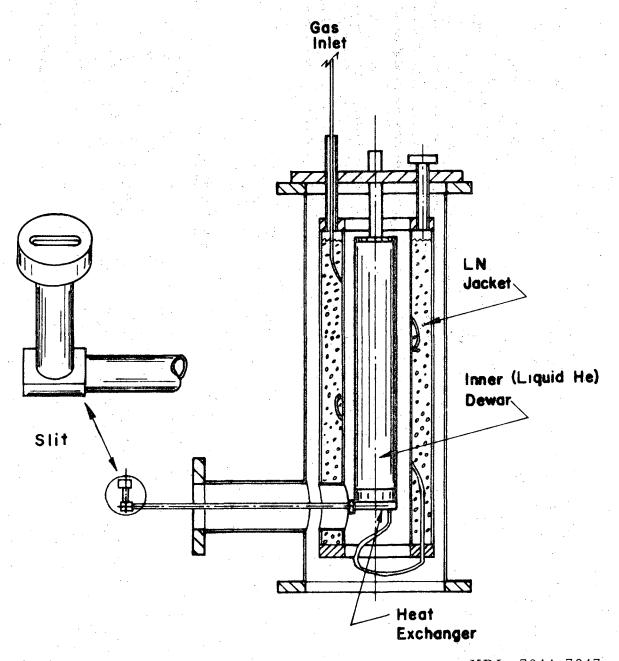


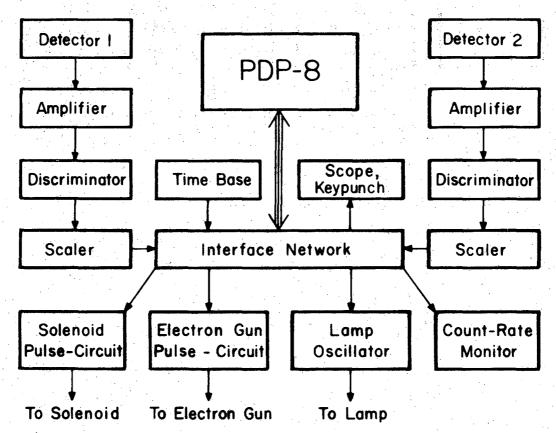
Fig. 2



XBL 7011-7017

Fig. 3

4



XBL 714-683

Fig. 4

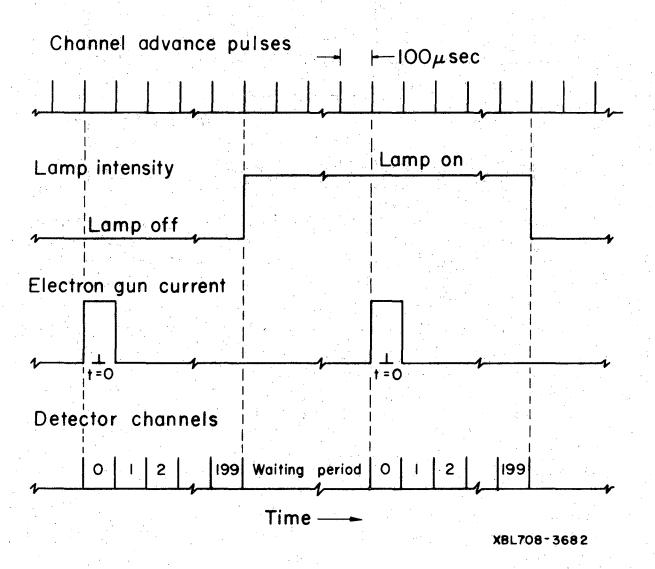
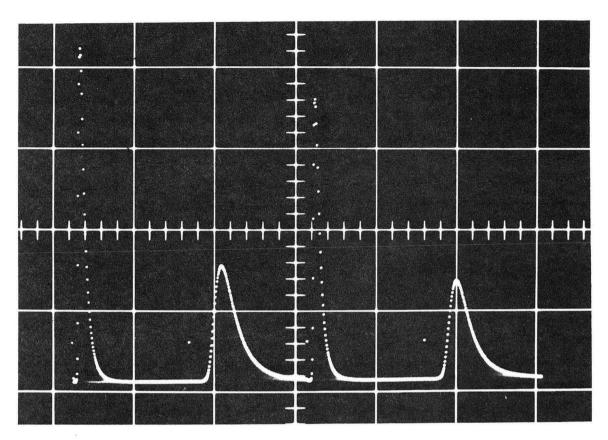


Fig. 5

1



XBB 7010-4956

Fig. 6

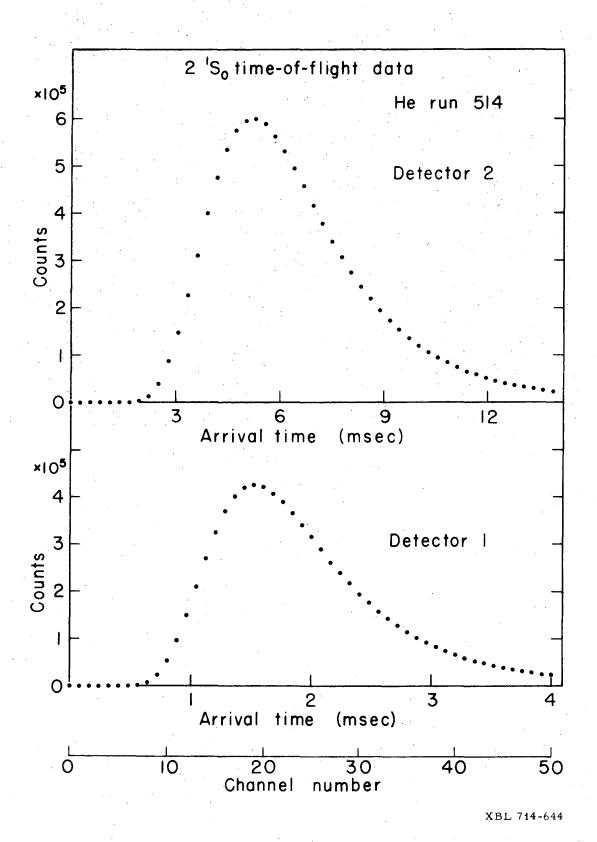


Fig. 7

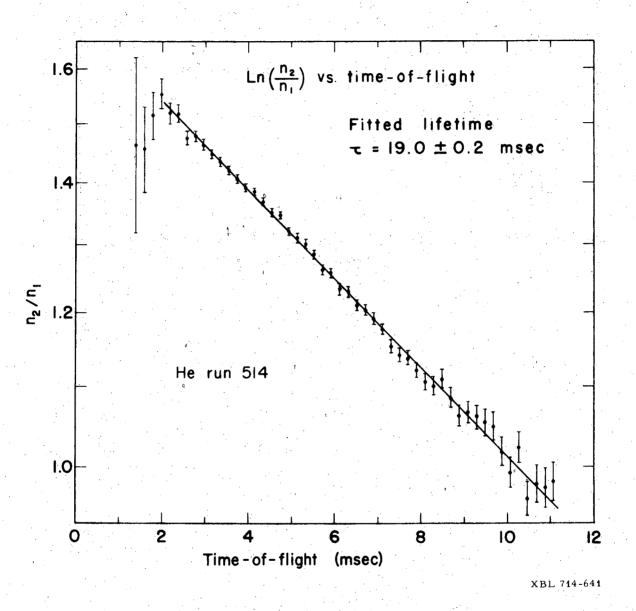


Fig. 8

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TECHNICAL INFORMATION DIVISION LAWRENCE RADIATION LABORATORY UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA 94720