

14.1: Time-Dependent Vector Potentials

The full N-electron non-relativistic Hamiltonian H discussed earlier in this text involves the kinetic energies of the electrons and of the nuclei and the mutual Coulombic interactions among these particles

$$H = \sum_{a=1,M} - \left(\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_a} \right) \nabla_a^2 + \sum_j \left[\left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \right) \nabla_j^2 - \sum_a Z_a \frac{e^2}{r_{j,a}} \right] + \sum_{j < k} \frac{e^2}{r_{j,k}} + \sum_{a < b} Z_a Z_b \frac{e^2}{R_{a,b}}.$$

When an electromagnetic field is present, this is not the correct Hamiltonian, but it can be modified straightforwardly to obtain the proper H .

The Time-Dependent Vector $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ Potential

The only changes required to achieve the Hamiltonian that describes the same system in the presence of an electromagnetic field are to replace the momentum operators \mathbf{P}_a and \mathbf{p}_j for the nuclei and electrons, respectively, by $(\mathbf{P}_a - Z_a e/c \mathbf{A}(R_a, t))$ and $(\mathbf{p}_j - e/c \mathbf{A}(r_j, t))$. Here $Z_a e$ is the charge on the a th nucleus, $-e$ is the charge of the electron, and c is the speed of light.

The vector potential \mathbf{A} depends on time t and on the spatial location \mathbf{r} of the particle in the following manner:

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t) = 2\mathbf{A}_0 \cos(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}).$$

The circular frequency of the radiation ω (radians per second) and the wave vector \mathbf{k} (the magnitude of \mathbf{k} is $|\mathbf{k}| = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$, where λ is the wavelength of the light) control the temporal and spatial oscillations of the photons. The vector \mathbf{A}_0 characterizes the strength (through the magnitude of \mathbf{A}_0) of the field as well as the direction of the \mathbf{A} potential; the direction of propagation of the photons is given by the unit vector $\mathbf{k}/|\mathbf{k}|$. The factor of 2 in the definition of \mathbf{A} allows one to think of \mathbf{A}_0 as measuring the strength of both $e^{i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})}$ and $e^{-i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})}$ components of the $\cos(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})$ function.

The Electric $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ and Magnetic $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ Fields

The electric $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ and magnetic $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ fields of the photons are expressed in terms of the vector potential \mathbf{A} as

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} = \frac{\omega}{c} \mathbf{A}_0 \sin(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})$$

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{A}_0 2 \sin(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}).$$

The \mathbf{E} field lies parallel to the \mathbf{A}_0 vector, and the \mathbf{H} field is perpendicular to \mathbf{A}_0 ; both are perpendicular to the direction of propagation of the light $\mathbf{k}/|\mathbf{k}|$. \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{H} have the same phase because they both vary with time and spatial location as $\sin(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r})$. The relative orientations of these vectors are shown below.



Figure 14.1.1: Insert caption here!

The Resulting Hamiltonian

Replacing the nuclear and electronic momenta by the modifications shown above in the kinetic energy terms of the full electronic and nuclear-motion hamiltonian results in the following **additional** factors appearing in H :

$$H_{int} = \sum_j \left[\frac{ie\hbar}{m_e c} \mathbf{A}(r_j, t) \cdot \nabla_j + \left(\frac{e^2}{2m_e c^2} \right) |\mathbf{A}(r_j, t)|^2 \right] + \sum_a \left[\left(iZ_a \frac{e\hbar}{m_a c} \right) \mathbf{A}(R_a, t) \cdot \nabla_a + \left(\frac{Z_a^2 e^2}{2m_a c^2} \right) |\mathbf{A}(R_a, t)|^2 \right].$$

These so-called interaction perturbations H_{int} are what induces transitions among the various electronic/vibrational/rotational states of a molecule. The one-electron additive nature of H_{int} plays an important role in determining the kind of transitions that H_{int} can induce. For example, it causes the most intense electronic transitions to involve excitation of a single electron from one orbital to another (e.g., the [Slater-Condon rules](#)).

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