

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ Review: The Non-Degenerated Case

- Perturbation theory is a very powerful tool used to solve problems in theoretical physics. It is used to find approximative solutions in cases where an exact solution is not possible.

- Assume that we know the exact solution of the original problem

$$\hat{H}_0 |n\rangle = \epsilon_n |n\rangle.$$

- Let's assume the new Hamiltonian operator is given by

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{V}.$$

 **perturbing potential!**

- This means we are looking for the solution of

$$\hat{H} |\psi_n\rangle = E_n |\psi_n\rangle.$$

- We assume that the perturbing potential \hat{V} is small.

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➤ Review: The Non-Degenerated Case

- We often approximate

$$E_n \approx \epsilon_n + \langle n | \hat{V} | n \rangle + \sum_{m \neq n} \frac{|\langle n | \hat{V} | m \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_n - \epsilon_m}$$

} **Second-order perturbation theory!**

$$|\psi_n\rangle \approx |n\rangle + \sum_{m \neq n} \frac{\langle m | \hat{V} | n \rangle}{\epsilon_n - \epsilon_m} |m\rangle.$$

} **First-order perturbation theory!**

- This means we go up to second-order in the energy and up to first order in the states.
- Note: everything we have done so far is only valid if

$$\epsilon_n \neq \epsilon_m \quad \text{for} \quad n \neq m.$$

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➤ Degenerate Perturbation Theory

- Assume that $N \geq 2$ states have the same (unperturbed) ϵ so that

$$\hat{H}_0 |\alpha\rangle = \epsilon |\alpha\rangle, \quad \alpha = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

- The $|\alpha\rangle$ are the degenerate states and ϵ the corresponding energies.
- In the following we are only interested in first-order corrections.

- What we have used before is

$$|\psi_n\rangle = |n\rangle + |\psi_n^{(1)}\rangle = |n\rangle + \lambda \sum_{m \neq n} a_{nm}^{(1)} |m\rangle$$

and

$$E_n = \epsilon_n + \lambda E_n^{(1)}.$$

- Furthermore

$$a_{nm}^{(1)} = \frac{\langle m | \hat{V} | n \rangle}{\epsilon_n - \epsilon_m} \quad \text{for } n \neq m.$$

this does not work anymore!



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➤ Degenerate Perturbation Theory

- Let's do the following

$$|\psi\rangle = \underbrace{\sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} |\alpha\rangle}_{\text{all states with same energy contribute}} + \lambda \underbrace{\sum_{\alpha=1}^N a_{\alpha}^{(1)} |\alpha\rangle + \sum_{m \neq \alpha} a_m^{(1)} |m\rangle}_{\text{as before, but we split the sum}}.$$

all states with same energy contribute

as before, but we split the sum

This notation means sum over all non-degenerate states

- For energy we use

$$E = \epsilon + \lambda E^{(1)}.$$

- Schrödinger's equation is

$$(\hat{H}_0 + \lambda \hat{V}) |\psi\rangle = E |\psi\rangle.$$

- Therein we now use our two expansions and keep terms in lowest and first order in λ .

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➤ Degenerate Perturbation Theory

- We find

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (\hat{H}_0 + \lambda \hat{V}) \left[\sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} |\alpha\rangle + \lambda \sum_{\alpha=1}^N a_{\alpha}^{(1)} |\alpha\rangle + \lambda \sum_{m \neq \alpha} a_m^{(1)} |m\rangle \right] \\
 &= (\epsilon + \lambda E^{(1)}) \left[\sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} |\alpha\rangle + \lambda \sum_{\alpha=1}^N a_{\alpha}^{(1)} |\alpha\rangle + \lambda \sum_{m \neq \alpha} a_m^{(1)} |m\rangle \right].
 \end{aligned}$$

- Up to first order this becomes

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \cancel{\sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} \hat{H}_0 |\alpha\rangle} + \lambda \sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} \hat{V} |\alpha\rangle + \lambda \cancel{\sum_{\alpha=1}^N a_{\alpha}^{(1)} \hat{H}_0 |\alpha\rangle} + \lambda \sum_{m \neq \alpha} a_m^{(1)} \hat{H}_0 |m\rangle \\
 &= \cancel{\epsilon \sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} |\alpha\rangle} + \lambda \epsilon \sum_{m \neq \alpha} a_m^{(1)} |m\rangle + \lambda \cancel{\epsilon \sum_{\alpha=1}^N a_{\alpha}^{(1)} |\alpha\rangle} + \lambda E^{(1)} \sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} |\alpha\rangle.
 \end{aligned}$$

use eigenvalue equation

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➤ Degenerate Perturbation Theory

- After using the eigenvalue equation and cancelling the λ , we find

$$\sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} \hat{V} |\alpha\rangle + \sum_{m \neq \alpha} a_m^{(1)} \epsilon_m |m\rangle = \epsilon \sum_{m \neq \alpha} a_m^{(1)} |m\rangle + E^{(1)} \sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} |\alpha\rangle.$$

- We now multiply this from the left with one of the degenerate states, namely $\langle\beta|$.
- Note, we have

$$\langle\beta|m\rangle = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad m \neq \beta.$$

- We get

$$\sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} \langle\beta|\hat{V}|\alpha\rangle = E^{(1)} \sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} \langle\beta|\alpha\rangle = E^{(1)} c_{\beta}.$$

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➤ Degenerate Perturbation Theory

- We found

$$\sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} \langle \beta | \hat{V} | \alpha \rangle = E^{(1)} \sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha} \langle \beta | \alpha \rangle = E^{(1)} c_{\beta}.$$

- We can write this as the a matrix equation of the form

$$Vc = E^{(1)}c.$$

 matrix of the potential operator

- From this we obtain the eigenvectors c and eigenvalues $E^{(1)}$.
- We find the corrections

$$E_{\gamma} \approx \epsilon + E_{\gamma}^{(1)} \quad \text{and} \quad |\psi_{\gamma}\rangle \approx \sum_{\alpha=1}^N c_{\alpha}^{(\gamma)} |\alpha\rangle.$$

eigenvalue with number γ

 α -component of eigenvector with number γ

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➤ A Simple Example

- We consider a case where the quantum system has only two unperturbed states so that

$$\hat{H}_0|1\rangle = \epsilon_1|1\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{H}_0|2\rangle = \epsilon_2|2\rangle.$$

- We now add a perturbing potential so that the new Hamiltonian is $\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{V}$.

- The corresponding Schrödinger equation can be written as

$$(\hat{H}_0 + \hat{V})|\psi_n\rangle = E_n|\psi_n\rangle.$$

- In the following we only determine the (perturbed) energy eigenvalues E_n and don't care about the states.

- The perturbed states can be expanded via

$$|\psi_n\rangle = \alpha|1\rangle + \beta|2\rangle.$$

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➤ A Simple Example

- Therewith, Schrödinger's equation can be written as

$$(\hat{H}_0 + \hat{V})(\alpha|1\rangle + \beta|2\rangle) = E_n(\alpha|1\rangle + \beta|2\rangle).$$

- Multiplying this from the left by $\langle 1|$ yields

$$\alpha\epsilon_1 + \alpha\langle 1|\hat{V}|1\rangle + \beta\langle 1|\hat{V}|2\rangle = E\alpha.$$

- Furthermore, we can multiply the equation above from the left with $\langle 2|$ to obtain

$$\beta\epsilon_2 + \alpha\langle 2|\hat{V}|1\rangle + \beta\langle 2|\hat{V}|2\rangle = E\beta.$$

- To continue we use the notation

$$V_{nm} = \langle n|\hat{V}|m\rangle.$$

← matrix elements of the perturbing potential operator

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➤ A Simple Example

- Furthermore, our two equations can be written as the following matrix equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_1 - E + V_{11} & V_{12} \\ V_{12}^* & \epsilon_2 - E + V_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

- Furthermore, we consider a potential so that $V_{11}=V_{22}=0$.
- Non-trivial solutions are obtained if the determinant of the above matrix is zero. Therefore, we find

$$(\epsilon_1 - E)(\epsilon_2 - E) - |V_{12}|^2 = 0.$$

- This can easily be written as

$$E^2 - E(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2) + \epsilon_1\epsilon_2 - |V_{12}|^2 = 0.$$

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➤ A Simple Example

- This quadratic equation has the solutions

$$\begin{aligned} E &= \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2) \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2)^2 + 4|V_{12}|^2 - 4\epsilon_1\epsilon_2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2) \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)^2 + 4|V_{12}|^2}. \end{aligned}$$

- Note, we looked at a very special case but our result for the energy is exact.
- In the following we look at the non-degenerated case meaning that we assume $\epsilon_1 \neq \epsilon_2$.
- In this case we can write

$$E = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2) \pm \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)\sqrt{1 + \lambda} \quad \text{with} \quad \lambda = \frac{4|V_{12}|^2}{(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)^2}.$$

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➤ A Simple Example

- To continue we assume that λ is small and we Taylor-expand our result to find

$$\begin{aligned} E &= \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2) \pm \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)\sqrt{1 + \lambda} \\ &\approx \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2) \pm \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)\left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\lambda\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2) \pm \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)\left(1 + \frac{2|V_{12}|^2}{(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)^2}\right). \end{aligned}$$

- From this we can easily read off

$$E_1 = \epsilon_1 + \frac{|V_{12}|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2} \quad \text{and} \quad E_2 = \epsilon_2 - \frac{|V_{12}|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2}.$$

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➤ A Simple Example

- We found

$$E_1 = \epsilon_1 + \frac{|V_{12}|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2} \quad \text{and} \quad E_2 = \epsilon_2 - \frac{|V_{12}|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2}.$$

- Compare this with non-degenerated perturbation theory

$$E_n \approx \epsilon_n + \langle n | \hat{V} | n \rangle + \sum_{m \neq n} \frac{|\langle n | \hat{V} | m \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_n - \epsilon_m}.$$

- We can easily see that the two results are the same.
- What about the degenerate case where we have $\epsilon_1 = \epsilon_2$?
- We derived the exact result

$$E = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2) \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)^2 + 4|V_{12}|^2}.$$

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➤ A Simple Example

- For $\epsilon_1 = \epsilon_2$, corresponding to the degenerate case, our formula

$$E = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2) \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2)^2 + 4|V_{12}|^2}$$

simplifies to

$$E = \epsilon \pm |V_{12}|.$$

- For the degenerated case we derived in first order perturbation theory

$$Vc = E^{(1)}c.$$

- Note, here we have used the matrix V of the perturbing potential with respect to the unperturbed states.
- $E^{(1)}$ corresponds to the first order energy corrections.

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ A Simple Example

- We can write the matrix equation out and make the same assumptions concerning V as above.
- We find

$$\begin{pmatrix} -E^{(1)} & V_{12} \\ V_{12}^* & -E^{(1)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

- Setting the determinant equal to zero gives us

$$E^{(1)} = \pm |V_{12}|.$$

- Therefore, the corresponding (corrected) energy eigenvalues are

$$E = \epsilon \pm |V_{12}|$$

in agreement with the exact result derived above.

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- This is an application of perturbation theory.
- The effect is named after physicist Johannes Stark who received the Nobel Prize of Physics in 1919.
- Consider the effect of an external electric field on the energy levels of a hydrogen-like atom.
- The unperturbed Hamiltonian operator is given by

$$\hat{H}_0 = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu}\Delta - \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}.$$

← Coulomb potential in SI units.

- The perturbing potential is in our case

$$\hat{V} = eEz.$$

- Here we assumed that the electric field is constant and points into the z-direction.

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- We start our investigations by considering the ground state and use first-order perturbation theory.
- The unperturbed energy eigenvalues are

$$\epsilon_n = -\frac{1}{2}\mu c^2 \frac{Z^2 \alpha^2}{n^2} \quad \text{with} \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

- Remember

$$n = n_r + \ell + 1 \quad \text{with} \quad n_r = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad \text{and} \quad \ell = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- For $n=1$ (ground state) we have

$$n_r = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \ell = 0.$$

- This also means that $m=0$.

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- We conclude that we obtain the ground state for only one set of quantum numbers, namely

$$n = 1, \quad \ell = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad m = 0.$$

- Therefore, the ground state is not degenerate.
- In the considered case we find in first-order perturbation theory

$$E_n^{(1)} = \langle n | \hat{V} | n \rangle = \langle 100 | \hat{V} | 100 \rangle.$$

← quantum numbers are $n=1, \ell=0, m=0$.

- In the following we evaluate this in position space

$$E_{100}^{(1)} = eE \int d^3r \, z |\Psi_{100}(\vec{r})|^2.$$

- For central potential problems such as the Coulomb potential we had

$$\Psi_{n\ell m}(\vec{r}) = R_{n\ell}(r) Y_{\ell m}(\Theta, \Phi).$$

← spherical harmonics

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- In our case we only need

$$\Psi_{100}(\vec{r}) = R_{10}(r)Y_{00}(\Theta, \Phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}}R_{10}(r).$$

- Using this in our integral yields

$$E_{100}^{(1)} = \frac{eE}{4\pi} \int d^3r \, z R_{10}^2(r) = \frac{eE}{4\pi} \int d^3r \, r \cos \Theta R_{10}^2(r).$$

- The Φ -integral gives 2π and the Θ -integral is

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} d \cos \Theta \, \cos \Theta = 0.$$

- Therefore we find

$$E_{100}^{(1)} = 0.$$

- There is no effect in first-order perturbation theory!

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- To find an effect we need to perform second-order perturbation theory.

- The corresponding energy eigenvalues are now computed via

$$E_n^{(2)} = \sum_{m \neq n} \frac{|\langle n | \hat{V} | m \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_n - \epsilon_m}.$$

- Again we consider the effect on the ground state and, thus, we need

$$E_{100}^{(2)} = \sum_{m \neq n} \frac{|\langle 100 | \hat{V} | m \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_{100} - \epsilon_m} = e^2 E^2 \sum_{m \neq n} \frac{|\langle 100 | \hat{z} | m \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_m}.$$

- This means we need to compute the matrix elements

$$\langle n \ell m | \hat{z} | 100 \rangle = \int d^3 r \, \Psi_{100}(\vec{r}) z \Psi_{n \ell m}^*(\vec{r}).$$

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- We need to evaluate

$$\langle n\ell m | \hat{z} | 100 \rangle = \int d^3r \Psi_{100}(\vec{r}) z \Psi_{n\ell m}^*(\vec{r}).$$

- Therein we use

$$\Psi_{100}(\vec{r}) = R_{10}(r) Y_{00} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}} R_{10}(r).$$

- Furthermore, we employ

$$z = r \cos \Theta = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{3}} r Y_{10}.$$

- Therewith our integral turns into

$$\langle n\ell m | \hat{z} | 100 \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \int d^3r R_{10}(r) R_{n\ell}(r) r Y_{10}(\Theta, \Phi) Y_{\ell m}^*(\Theta, \Phi).$$

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➤ The Stark Effect

- To simplify this we use the orthogonality relation for the spherical harmonics

$$\int d\Omega Y_{10}(\Theta, \Phi) Y_{\ell m}^*(\Theta, \Phi) = \delta_{\ell 1} \delta_{m 0}.$$

- Using this in our integral yields

$$\langle n\ell m | \hat{z} | 100 \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \delta_{\ell 1} \delta_{m 0} \int_0^\infty dr r^3 R_{10}(r) R_{n\ell}(r).$$

We need only $\ell=1$.



- Because of the two Kronecker deltas therein we find

$$E_{100}^{(2)} = \sum_{m \neq 1} \frac{|\langle 100 | \hat{V} | m \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_m} = \sum_{n \neq 1} \frac{|\langle 100 | \hat{V} | n10 \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_n}.$$

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- We found

$$E_{100}^{(2)} = \sum_{m \neq 1} \frac{|\langle 100 | \hat{V} | m \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_m} = \sum_{n \neq 1} \frac{|\langle 100 | \hat{V} | n10 \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_n}.$$

- Therein we have

$$\langle n10 | \hat{z} | 100 \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \int_0^\infty dr \, r^3 R_{10}(r) R_{n1}(r).$$

Consider only
contributions
with $n=2$.

- Furthermore, we use another approximation namely

$$E_{100}^{(2)} = \sum_{n \neq 1} \frac{|\langle 100 | \hat{V} | n10 \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_n} \approx \frac{|\langle 100 | \hat{V} | 210 \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2}.$$

- Note, this is an additional approximation usually **not** used in perturbation theory.

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- We derived before

$$\langle n10 | \hat{z} | 100 \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \int_0^\infty dr \, r^3 R_{10}(r) R_{n1}(r).$$

- We now compute

$$\langle 210 | \hat{z} | 100 \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \int_0^\infty dr \, r^3 R_{10}(r) R_{21}(r).$$

- The two needed radial functions can be looked up:

$$R_{10}(r) = 2 \left(\frac{Z}{a_B} \right)^{3/2} e^{-Zr/a_B},$$

$$R_{21}(r) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left(\frac{Z}{2a_B} \right)^{3/2} \frac{Zr}{a_B} e^{-Zr/(2a_B)}.$$

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- Therewith our integral becomes

$$\langle 210 | \hat{z} | 100 \rangle = \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{Z}{a_B} \right)^4 \int_0^\infty dr \, r^4 e^{-3Zr/(2a_B)}.$$

- We need to evaluate an integral of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty dr \, r^n e^{-\alpha r} &= (-1)^n \frac{d^n}{d\alpha^n} \int_0^\infty dr \, e^{-\alpha r} \\ &= (-1)^n \frac{d^n}{d\alpha^n} \left[\frac{1}{-\alpha} e^{-\alpha r} \right]_0^\infty \\ &= (-1)^n \frac{d^n}{d\alpha^n} \alpha^{-1} \\ &= \frac{n!}{\alpha^{n+1}}. \end{aligned}$$

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- In our case we have $n=4$ and $\alpha=(3Z)/(2a_B)$.
- Therefore, we obtain

$$\int_0^\infty dr \, r^4 e^{-3Zr/(2a_B)} = 4! \left(\frac{3Z}{2a_B} \right)^{-5} = 24 \left(\frac{2a_B}{3Z} \right)^5.$$

- Using this in our formula for the matrix element yields

$$\langle 210 | \hat{z} | 100 \rangle = \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{Z}{a_B} \right)^4 \int_0^\infty dr \, r^4 e^{-3Zr/(2a_B)} = \frac{2^7}{3^5} \sqrt{2} \frac{a_B}{Z}.$$

- Therewith, the second-order energy corrections become

$$E_{100}^{(2)} \approx \frac{|\langle 210 | \hat{V} | 100 \rangle|^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2} = \frac{(eE)^2}{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2} \left(\frac{a_B}{Z} \right)^2 \frac{2^{15}}{3^{10}}.$$

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- We also need to consider the difference of the two unperturbed energy values.
- We found for the unperturbed energies

$$\epsilon_n = -\frac{1}{2}\mu c^2 \frac{Z^2 \alpha^2}{n^2} \quad \text{with} \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

- Using this for our case yields

$$\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2 = -\frac{1}{2}\mu c^2 Z^2 \alpha^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{4}\right) = -\frac{3}{8}\mu c^2 Z^2 \alpha^2.$$

- Therewith the second-order energy corrections become for $Z=1$

$$E_{100}^{(2)} \approx -\frac{8}{3} \frac{e^2 E^2 a_B^2}{\mu c^2 \alpha^2} \frac{2^{15}}{3^{10}}.$$

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- For the fine-structure constant we can use

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{\hbar c} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha = \frac{\hbar}{\mu c a_B}.$$

- By multiplying these two formulas with each other we can easily derive (in *SI units*)

$$\alpha^2 = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c^2 a_B \mu}.$$

- Using this in our formula to replace the fine-structure constant yields

$$E_{100}^{(2)} \approx -\frac{8}{3} \frac{e^2 E^2 a_B^2}{\mu c^2 \alpha^2} \frac{2^{15}}{3^{10}} = -\frac{2^{18}}{3^{11}} 4\pi\epsilon_0 E^2 a_B^3 \quad (\text{SI units}).$$

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory

➤ The Stark Effect

- This can be written as

$$E_{100}^{(2)} \approx -1.48 \cdot 4\pi\epsilon_0 \cdot E^2 \cdot a_B^3.$$

- This result was obtained by taking into account only the state $|210\rangle$.
- Taking into account all bound states gives

$$E_{100}^{(2)} \approx -\frac{9}{4} \cdot 4\pi\epsilon_0 \cdot E^2 \cdot a_B^3.$$

- In both cases we have

$$E_{100}^{(2)} \propto E^2.$$

- Therefore, we call this the quadratic Stark effect!