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Physics

Drake
Editor



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of Atomic, Molecular,
and Optical Physics

Gordon W. F. Drake (Ed.)

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Contents

List of Tables	XLVII
List of Abbreviations	LV
1 Units and Constants	
<i>William E. Baylis, Gordon W. F. Drake</i>	1
1.1 Electromagnetic Units.....	1
1.2 Atomic Units.....	5
1.3 Mathematical Constants.....	5
References.....	6
Part A Mathematical Methods	
2 Angular Momentum Theory	
<i>James D. Louck</i>	9
2.1 Orbital Angular Momentum.....	12
2.2 Abstract Angular Momentum.....	16
2.3 Representation Functions.....	18
2.4 Group and Lie Algebra Actions.....	25
2.5 Differential Operator Realizations of Angular Momentum.....	28
2.6 The Symmetric Rotor and Representation Functions.....	29
2.7 Wigner–Clebsch–Gordan and $3-j$ Coefficients.....	31
2.8 Tensor Operator Algebra.....	37
2.9 Racah Coefficients.....	43
2.10 The $9-j$ Coefficients.....	47
2.11 Tensor Spherical Harmonics.....	52
2.12 Coupling and Recoupling Theory and $3n-j$ Coefficients.....	54
2.13 Supplement on Combinatorial Foundations.....	60
2.14 Tables.....	69
References.....	72
3 Group Theory for Atomic Shells	
<i>Brian R. Judd</i>	75
3.1 Generators.....	75
3.2 Classification of Lie Algebras.....	76
3.3 Irreducible Representations.....	77
3.4 Branching Rules.....	78
3.5 Kronecker Products.....	79
3.6 Atomic States.....	80
3.7 The Generalized Wigner–Eckart Theorem.....	82
3.8 Checks.....	83
References.....	84

4	Dynamical Groups	
	<i>Josef Paldus</i>	87
4.1	Noncompact Dynamical Groups	87
4.2	Hamiltonian Transformation and Simple Applications	90
4.3	Compact Dynamical Groups	92
	References	98
5	Perturbation Theory	
	<i>Josef Paldus</i>	101
5.1	Matrix Perturbation Theory (PT)	101
5.2	Time-Independent Perturbation Theory	103
5.3	Fermionic Many-Body Perturbation Theory (MBPT)	105
5.4	Time-Dependent Perturbation Theory	111
	References	113
6	Second Quantization	
	<i>Brian R. Judd</i>	115
6.1	Basic Properties	115
6.2	Tensors	116
6.3	Quasispin	117
6.4	Complementarity	119
6.5	Quasiparticles	120
	References	121
7	Density Matrices	
	<i>Klaus Bartschat</i>	123
7.1	Basic Formulae	123
7.2	Spin and Light Polarizations	125
7.3	Atomic Collisions	126
7.4	Irreducible Tensor Operators	127
7.5	Time Evolution of State Multipoles	129
7.6	Examples	130
7.7	Summary	133
	References	133
8	Computational Techniques	
	<i>David R. Schultz, Michael R. Strayer</i>	135
8.1	Representation of Functions	135
8.2	Differential and Integral Equations	141
8.3	Computational Linear Algebra	148
8.4	Monte Carlo Methods	149
	References	151
9	Hydrogenic Wave Functions	
	<i>Robert N. Hill</i>	153
9.1	Schrödinger Equation	153
9.2	Dirac Equation	157

9.3	The Coulomb Green's Function	159
9.4	Special Functions	162
	References.....	170

Part B Atoms

10 Atomic Spectroscopy

	<i>William C. Martin, Wolfgang L. Wiese</i>	175
10.1	Frequency, Wavenumber, Wavelength.....	176
10.2	Atomic States, Shells, and Configurations	176
10.3	Hydrogen and Hydrogen-Like Ions	176
10.4	Alkalis and Alkali-Like Spectra	177
10.5	Helium and Helium-Like Ions; <i>LS</i> Coupling	177
10.6	Hierarchy of Atomic Structure in <i>LS</i> Coupling	177
10.7	Allowed Terms or Levels for Equivalent Electrons.....	178
10.8	Notations for Different Coupling Schemes	179
10.9	Eigenvector Composition of Levels	181
10.10	Ground Levels and Ionization Energies for the Neutral Atoms	182
10.11	Zeeman Effect	183
10.12	Term Series, Quantum Defects, and Spectral-Line Series	184
10.13	Sequences	185
10.14	Spectral Wavelength Ranges, Dispersion of Air	185
10.15	Wavelength (Frequency) Standards	186
10.16	Spectral Lines: Selection Rules, Intensities, Transition Probabilities, <i>f</i> Values, and Line Strengths	186
10.17	Atomic Lifetimes.....	194
10.18	Regularities and Scaling	194
10.19	Spectral Line Shapes, Widths, and Shifts.....	195
10.20	Spectral Continuum Radiation.....	196
10.21	Sources of Spectroscopic Data	197
	References.....	197

11 High Precision Calculations for Helium

	<i>Gordon W. F. Drake</i>	199
11.1	The Three-Body Schrödinger Equation.....	199
11.2	Computational Methods	200
11.3	Variational Eigenvalues	205
11.4	Total Energies	208
11.5	Radiative Transitions	215
11.6	Future Perspectives	218
	References.....	218

12 Atomic Multipoles

	<i>William E. Baylis</i>	221
12.1	Polarization and Multipoles	222
12.2	The Density Matrix in Liouville Space	222

12.3	Diagonal Representation: State Populations	224
12.4	Interaction with Light.....	224
12.5	Extensions	225
	References.....	226
13	Atoms in Strong Fields	
	<i>S. Pedro Goldman, Mark M. Cassar</i>	227
13.1	Electron in a Uniform Magnetic Field	227
13.2	Atoms in Uniform Magnetic Fields	228
13.3	Atoms in Very Strong Magnetic Fields	230
13.4	Atoms in Electric Fields	231
13.5	Recent Developments	233
	References.....	234
14	Rydberg Atoms	
	<i>Thomas F. Gallagher</i>	235
14.1	Wave Functions and Quantum Defect Theory.....	235
14.2	Optical Excitation and Radiative Lifetimes	237
14.3	Electric Fields	238
14.4	Magnetic Fields	241
14.5	Microwave Fields.....	242
14.6	Collisions	243
14.7	Autoionizing Rydberg States	244
	References.....	245
15	Rydberg Atoms in Strong Static Fields	
	<i>Thomas Bartsch, Turgay Uzer</i>	247
15.1	Scaled-Energy Spectroscopy.....	248
15.2	Closed-Orbit Theory	248
15.3	Classical and Quantum Chaos	249
15.4	Nuclear-Mass Effects	251
	References.....	251
16	Hyperfine Structure	
	<i>Guy T. Emery</i>	253
16.1	Splittings and Intensities.....	254
16.2	Isotope Shifts	256
16.3	Hyperfine Structure	258
	References.....	259
17	Precision Oscillator Strength and Lifetime Measurements	
	<i>Lorenzo J. Curtis</i>	261
17.1	Oscillator Strengths	262
17.2	Lifetimes.....	264
	References.....	268

18 Spectroscopy of Ions Using Fast Beams and Ion Traps	
<i>Eric H. Pinnington, Elmar Träbert</i>	269
18.1 Spectroscopy Using Fast Ion Beams	269
18.2 Spectroscopy Using Ion Traps	272
References.....	277
19 Line Shapes and Radiation Transfer	
<i>Alan Gallagher</i>	279
19.1 Collisional Line Shapes	279
19.2 Radiation Trapping.....	287
References.....	292
20 Thomas–Fermi and Other Density–Functional Theories	
<i>John D. Morgan III</i>	295
20.1 Thomas–Fermi Theory and Its Extensions	296
20.2 Nonrelativistic Energies of Heavy Atoms	300
20.3 General Density Functional Theory	301
20.4 Recent Developments	303
References.....	304
21 Atomic Structure: Multiconfiguration Hartree–Fock Theories	
<i>Charlotte F. Fischer</i>	307
21.1 Hamiltonians: Schrödinger and Breit–Pauli	307
21.2 Wave Functions: LS and LSJ Coupling	308
21.3 Variational Principle	309
21.4 Hartree–Fock Theory.....	309
21.5 Multiconfiguration Hartree–Fock Theory	313
21.6 Configuration Interaction Methods.....	316
21.7 Atomic Properties	318
21.8 Summary	322
References.....	322
22 Relativistic Atomic Structure	
<i>Ian P. Grant</i>	325
22.1 Mathematical Preliminaries	326
22.2 Dirac's Equation	328
22.3 QED: Relativistic Atomic and Molecular Structure	329
22.4 Many–Body Theory For Atoms	334
22.5 Spherical Symmetry	337
22.6 Numerical Approximation of Central Field Dirac Equations.....	344
22.7 Many–Body Calculations	350
22.8 Recent Developments	354
References.....	355
23 Many–Body Theory of Atomic Structure and Processes	
<i>Miron Ya. Amusia</i>	359
23.1 Diagrammatic Technique	360

23.2	Calculation of Atomic Properties.....	365
23.3	Concluding Remarks	375
	References.....	376
24	Photoionization of Atoms	
	<i>Anthony F. Starace</i>	379
24.1	General Considerations.....	379
24.2	An Independent Electron Model	382
24.3	Particle–Hole Interaction Effects	384
24.4	Theoretical Methods for Photoionization	386
24.5	Recent Developments	387
24.6	Future Directions.....	388
	References.....	388
25	Autoionization	
	<i>Aaron Temkin, Anand K. Bhatia</i>	391
25.1	Introduction	391
25.2	The Projection Operator Formalism	392
25.3	Forms of P and Q	393
25.4	Width, Shift, and Shape Parameter	394
25.5	Other Computational Methods	396
25.6	Related Topics.....	398
	References.....	399
26	Green's Functions of Field Theory	
	<i>Gordon Feldman, Thomas Fulton</i>	401
26.1	The Two–Point Green's Function	402
26.2	The Four–Point Green's Function.....	405
26.3	Radiative Transitions	406
26.4	Radiative Corrections	408
	References.....	411
27	Quantum Electrodynamics	
	<i>Jonathan R. Sapirstein</i>	413
27.1	Covariant Perturbation Theory.....	413
27.2	Renormalization Theory and Gauge Choices	414
27.3	Tests of QED in Lepton Scattering	416
27.4	Electron and Muon g Factors.....	416
27.5	Recoil Corrections	418
27.6	Fine Structure	420
27.7	Hyperfine Structure	421
27.8	Orthopositronium Decay Rate.....	422
27.9	Precision Tests of QED in Neutral Helium	423
27.10	QED in Highly Charged One–Electron Ions.....	424
27.11	QED in Highly Charged Many–Electron Ions	425
	References.....	427

28 Tests of Fundamental Physics	
<i>Peter J. Mohr, Barry N. Taylor</i>	429
28.1 Electron g-Factor Anomaly	429
28.2 Electron g-Factor in $^{12}\text{C}^{5+}$ and $^{16}\text{O}^{7+}$	432
28.3 Hydrogen and Deuterium Atoms	437
References	445
29 Parity Nonconserving Effects in Atoms	
<i>Jonathan R. Sapirstein</i>	449
29.1 The Standard Model	450
29.2 PNC in Cesium	451
29.3 Many-Body Perturbation Theory	451
29.4 PNC Calculations	452
29.5 Recent Developments	453
29.6 Comparison with Experiment	453
References	454
30 Atomic Clocks and Constraints on Variations of Fundamental Constants	
<i>Savely G. Karshenboim, Victor Flambaum, Ekkehard Peik</i>	455
30.1 Atomic Clocks and Frequency Standards	456
30.2 Atomic Spectra and their Dependence on the Fundamental Constants	459
30.3 Laboratory Constraints on Time the Variations of the Fundamental Constants	460
30.4 Summary	462
References	462
Part C Molecules	
31 Molecular Structure	
<i>David R. Yarkony</i>	467
31.1 Concepts	468
31.2 Characterization of Potential Energy Surfaces	470
31.3 Intersurface Interactions: Perturbations	476
31.4 Nuclear Motion	480
31.5 Reaction Mechanisms: A Spin-Forbidden Chemical Reaction	484
31.6 Recent Developments	486
References	486
32 Molecular Symmetry and Dynamics	
<i>William G. Harter</i>	491
32.1 Dynamics and Spectra of Molecular Rotors	491
32.2 Rotational Energy Surfaces and Semiclassical Rotational Dynamics	494
32.3 Symmetry of Molecular Rotors	498

32.4	Tetrahedral–Octahedral Rotational Dynamics and Spectra	499
32.5	High Resolution Rovibrational Structure	503
32.6	Composite Rotors and Multiple RES.....	507
	References.....	512
33	Radiative Transition Probabilities	
	<i>David L. Huestis</i>	515
33.1	Overview.....	515
33.2	Molecular Wave Functions in the Rotating Frame	516
33.3	The Energy–Intensity Model.....	518
33.4	Selection Rules.....	521
33.5	Absorption Cross Sections and Radiative Lifetimes.....	524
33.6	Vibrational Band Strengths	525
33.7	Rotational Branch Strengths	526
33.8	Forbidden Transitions.....	530
33.9	Recent Developments	531
	References.....	532
34	Molecular Photodissociation	
	<i>Abigail J. Dobbyn, David H. Mordaunt, Reinhard Schinke</i>	535
34.1	Observables	537
34.2	Experimental Techniques.....	539
34.3	Theoretical Techniques	540
34.4	Concepts in Dissociation	541
34.5	Recent Developments	543
34.6	Summary	544
	References.....	545
35	Time–Resolved Molecular Dynamics	
	<i>Volker Engel</i>	547
35.1	Pump–Probe Experiments	548
35.2	Theoretical Description	548
35.3	Applications.....	550
35.4	Recent Developments	551
	References.....	552
36	Nonreactive Scattering	
	<i>David R. Flower</i>	555
36.1	Definitions.....	555
36.2	Semiclassical Method.....	556
36.3	Quantal Method	556
36.4	Symmetries and Conservation Laws	557
36.5	Coordinate Systems	557
36.6	Scattering Equations.....	558
36.7	Matrix Elements	558
	References.....	560

37 Gas Phase Reactions	
<i>Eric Herbst</i>	561
37.1 Normal Bimolecular Reactions	563
37.2 Association Reactions	570
37.3 Concluding Remarks	572
References.....	573
38 Gas Phase Ionic Reactions	
<i>Nigel G. Adams</i>	575
38.1 Overview.....	575
38.2 Reaction Energetics	576
38.3 Chemical Kinetics	578
38.4 Reaction Processes	578
38.5 Electron Attachment.....	582
38.6 Recombination.....	583
References.....	585
39 Clusters	
<i>Mary L. Mandich</i>	589
39.1 Metal Clusters.....	590
39.2 Carbon Clusters	593
39.3 Ionic Clusters.....	596
39.4 Semiconductor Clusters.....	597
39.5 Noble Gas Clusters	599
39.6 Molecular Clusters	602
39.7 Recent Developments	603
References.....	604
40 Infrared Spectroscopy	
<i>Henry Buijs</i>	607
40.1 Intensities of Infrared Radiation	607
40.2 Sources for IR Absorption Spectroscopy	608
40.3 Source, Spectrometer, Sample and Detector Relationship	608
40.4 Simplified Principle of FTIR Spectroscopy	608
40.5 Optical Aspects of FTIR Technology.....	611
40.6 The Scanning Michelson Interferometer.....	612
40.7 Recent Developments	613
40.8 Conclusion	613
References.....	613
41 Laser Spectroscopy in the Submillimeter and Far-Infrared Regions	
<i>Kenneth M. Evenson[†], John M. Brown</i>	615
41.1 Experimental Techniques using Coherent SM-FIR Radiation	616
41.2 Submillimeter and FIR Astronomy	620
41.3 Upper Atmospheric Studies	620
References.....	621

4.2 Spectroscopic Techniques: Lasers	
<i>Paul Engelking</i>	623
4.2.1 Laser Basics	623
4.2.2 Laser Designs	625
4.2.3 Interaction of Laser Light with Matter	628
4.2.4 Recent Developments	630
References	631
4.3 Spectroscopic Techniques: Cavity-Enhanced Methods	
<i>Barbara A. Paldus, Alexander A. Kachanov</i>	633
4.3.1 Limitations of Traditional Absorption Spectrometers	633
4.3.2 Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy	634
4.3.3 Cavity Enhanced Spectroscopy	636
4.3.4 Extensions to Solids and Liquids	639
References	640
4.4 Spectroscopic Techniques: Ultraviolet	
<i>Glenn Stark, Peter L. Smith</i>	641
4.4.1 Light Sources	642
4.4.2 VUV Lasers	645
4.4.3 Spectrometers	647
4.4.4 Detectors	648
4.4.5 Optical Materials	651
References	652
 Part D Scattering Theory	
4.5 Elastic Scattering: Classical, Quantal, and Semiclassical	
<i>M. Raymond Flannery</i>	659
4.5.1 Classical Scattering Formulae	659
4.5.2 Quantal Scattering Formulae	664
4.5.3 Semiclassical Scattering Formulae	675
4.5.4 Elastic Scattering in Reactive Systems	683
4.5.5 Results for Model Potentials	684
References	689
4.6 Orientation and Alignment in Atomic and Molecular Collisions	
<i>Nils Andersen</i>	693
4.6.1 Collisions Involving Unpolarized Beams	694
4.6.2 Collisions Involving Spin-Polarized Beams	699
4.6.3 Example	702
4.6.4 Recent Developments	703
4.6.5 Summary	703
References	703

47 Electron–Atom, Electron–Ion, and Electron–Molecule Collisions	
<i>Philip Burke</i>	705
47.1 Electron–Atom and Electron–Ion Collisions	705
47.2 Electron–Molecule Collisions	720
47.3 Electron–Atom Collisions in a Laser Field	723
References	727
48 Positron Collisions	
<i>Robert P. McEachran, Allan Stauffer</i>	731
48.1 Scattering Channels	731
48.2 Theoretical Methods	733
48.3 Particular Applications	735
48.4 Binding of Positrons to Atoms	737
48.5 Reviews	738
References	738
49 Adiabatic and Diabatic Collision Processes at Low Energies	
<i>Evgueni E. Nikitin</i>	741
49.1 Basic Definitions	741
49.2 Two–State Approximation	743
49.3 Single–Passage Transition Probabilities: Analytical Models	746
49.4 Double–Passage Transition Probabilities and Cross Sections	749
49.5 Multiple–Passage Transition Probabilities	751
References	752
50 Ion–Atom and Atom–Atom Collisions	
<i>A. Lewis Ford, John F. Reading</i>	753
50.1 Treatment of Heavy Particle Motion	754
50.2 Independent–Particle Models Versus Many–Electron Treatments	755
50.3 Analytical Approximations Versus Numerical Calculations	756
50.4 Description of the Ionization Continuum	758
References	759
51 Ion–Atom Charge Transfer Reactions at Low Energies	
<i>Muriel Gargaud, Ronald McCarroll</i>	761
51.1 Molecular Structure Calculations	762
51.2 Dynamics of the Collision	765
51.3 Radial and Rotational Coupling Matrix Elements	766
51.4 Total Electron Capture Cross Sections	767
51.5 Landau–Zener Approximation	769
51.6 Differential Cross Sections	769
51.7 Orientation Effects	770
51.8 New Developments	772
References	772

52 Continuum Distorted Wave and Wannier Methods	
<i>Derrick Crothers, Fiona McCausland, John Glass, Jim F. McCann, Francesca O'Rourke, Ruth T. Pedlow</i>	775
52.1 Continuum Distorted Wave Method	775
52.2 Wannier Method	781
References.....	786
53 Ionization in High Energy Ion–Atom Collisions	
<i>Joseph H. Macek, Steven T. Manson</i>	789
53.1 Born Approximation	789
53.2 Prominent Features	792
53.3 Recent Developments	796
References.....	796
54 Electron–Ion and Ion–Ion Recombination	
<i>M. Raymond Flannery</i>	799
54.1 Recombination Processes.....	800
54.2 Collisional–Radiative Recombination.....	801
54.3 Macroscopic Methods	803
54.4 Dissociative Recombination	807
54.5 Mutual Neutralization.....	810
54.6 One–Way Microscopic Equilibrium Current, Flux, and Pair–Distributions.....	811
54.7 Microscopic Methods for Termolecular Ion–Ion Recombination.....	812
54.8 Radiative Recombination.....	817
54.9 Useful Quantities	824
References.....	824
55 Dielectronic Recombination	
<i>Michael S. Pindzola, Donald C. Griffin, Nigel R. Badnell</i>	829
55.1 Theoretical Formulation.....	830
55.2 Comparisons with Experiment.....	831
55.3 Radiative–Dielectronic Recombination Interference	832
55.4 Dielectronic Recombination in Plasmas	833
References.....	833
56 Rydberg Collisions: Binary Encounter, Born and Impulse Approximations	
<i>Edmund J. Mansky</i>	835
56.1 Rydberg Collision Processes.....	836
56.2 General Properties of Rydberg States	836
56.3 Correspondence Principles	839
56.4 Distribution Functions	840
56.5 Classical Theory	841
56.6 Working Formulae for Rydberg Collisions	842
56.7 Impulse Approximation	845

56.8	Binary Encounter Approximation	852
56.9	Born Approximation	856
	References.....	860
57	Mass Transfer at High Energies: Thomas Peak	
	<i>James H. McGuire, Jack C. Straton, Takeshi Ishihara</i>	863
57.1	The Classical Thomas Process	863
57.2	Quantum Description	864
57.3	Off-Energy-Shell Effects.....	866
57.4	Dispersion Relations	866
57.5	Destructive Interference of Amplitudes	867
57.6	Recent Developments	867
	References.....	868
58	Classical Trajectory and Monte Carlo Techniques	
	<i>Ronald E. Olson</i>	869
58.1	Theoretical Background	869
58.2	Region of Validity.....	871
58.3	Applications	871
58.4	Conclusions.....	874
	References.....	874
59	Collisional Broadening of Spectral Lines	
	<i>Gillian Peach</i>	875
59.1	Impact Approximation	875
59.2	Isolated Lines.....	876
59.3	Overlapping Lines.....	880
59.4	Quantum-Mechanical Theory	882
59.5	One-Perturber Approximation.....	885
59.6	Unified Theories and Conclusions	888
	References.....	888
Part E Scattering Experiments		
60	Photodetachment	
	<i>David J. Pegg</i>	891
60.1	Negative Ions	891
60.2	Photodetachment	892
60.3	Experimental Procedures	893
60.4	Results.....	895
	References.....	898
61	Photon-Atom Interactions: Low Energy	
	<i>Denise Caldwell, Manfred O. Krause</i>	901
61.1	Theoretical Concepts.....	901
61.2	Experimental Methods.....	907

61.3	Additional Considerations	911
	References.....	912
62	Photon–Atom Interactions: Intermediate Energies	
	<i>Bernd Crasemann</i>	915
62.1	Overview.....	915
62.2	Elastic Photon–Atom Scattering.....	916
62.3	Inelastic Photon–Atom Interactions.....	918
62.4	Atomic Response to Inelastic Photon–Atom Interactions.....	919
62.5	Threshold Phenomena.....	923
	References.....	925
63	Electron–Atom and Electron–Molecule Collisions	
	<i>Sandor Trajmar, William J. McConkey, Isik Kanik</i>	929
63.1	Basic Concepts	929
63.2	Collision Processes.....	933
63.3	Coincidence and Superelastic Measurements	936
63.4	Experiments with Polarized Electrons	938
63.5	Electron Collisions with Excited Species	939
63.6	Electron Collisions in Traps.....	939
63.7	Future Developments	940
	References.....	940
64	Ion–Atom Scattering Experiments: Low Energy	
	<i>Ronald Phaneuf</i>	943
64.1	Low Energy Ion–Atom Collision Processes	943
64.2	Experimental Methods for Total Cross Section Measurements	945
64.3	Methods for State and Angular Selective Measurements	947
	References.....	948
65	Ion–Atom Collisions – High Energy	
	<i>Lew Cocke, Michael Schulz</i>	951
65.1	Basic One–Electron Processes	951
65.2	Multi–Electron Processes.....	957
65.3	Electron Spectra in Ion–Atom Collisions.....	959
65.4	Quasi–Free Electron Processes in Ion–Atom Collisions.....	961
65.5	Some Exotic Processes	962
	References.....	963
66	Reactive Scattering	
	<i>Arthur G. Suits, Yuan T. Lee</i>	967
66.1	Experimental Methods.....	967
66.2	Experimental Configurations.....	971
66.3	Elastic and Inelastic Scattering.....	976
66.4	Reactive Scattering.....	978
66.5	Recent Developments	980
	References.....	980

67 Ion–Molecule Reactions

<i>James M. Farrar</i>	983
67.1 Instrumentation.....	985
67.2 Kinematic Analysis.....	985
67.3 Scattering Cross Sections.....	987
67.4 New Directions: Complexity and Imaging.....	991
References.....	992

Part F Quantum Optics**68 Light–Matter Interaction**

<i>Pierre Meystre</i>	997
68.1 Multipole Expansion.....	997
68.2 Lorentz Atom.....	999
68.3 Two–Level Atoms.....	1000
68.4 Relaxation Mechanisms.....	1003
68.5 Rate Equation Approximation.....	1005
68.6 Light Scattering.....	1006
References.....	1007

69 Absorption and Gain Spectra

<i>Stig Stenholm</i>	1009
69.1 Index of Refraction.....	1009
69.2 Density Matrix Treatment of the Two–Level Atom.....	1010
69.3 Line Broadening.....	1011
69.4 The Rate Equation Limit.....	1013
69.5 Two–Level Doppler–Free Spectroscopy.....	1015
69.6 Three–Level Spectroscopy.....	1016
69.7 Special Effects in Three–Level Systems.....	1018
69.8 Summary of the Literature.....	1020
References.....	1020

70 Laser Principles

<i>Peter W. Milonni</i>	1023
70.1 Gain, Threshold, and Matter–Field Coupling.....	1023
70.2 Continuous Wave, Single–Mode Operation.....	1025
70.3 Laser Resonators.....	1028
70.4 Photon Statistics.....	1030
70.5 Multi–Mode and Pulsed Operation.....	1031
70.6 Instabilities and Chaos.....	1033
70.7 Recent Developments.....	1033
References.....	1034

71 Types of Lasers

<i>Richard C. Powell</i>	1035
71.1 Gas Lasers.....	1036
71.2 Solid State Lasers.....	1039

71.3	Semiconductor Lasers	1043
71.4	Liquid Lasers	1044
71.5	Other Types of Lasers	1045
71.6	Recent Developments	1046
	References.....	1048
72	Nonlinear Optics	
	<i>Alexander L. Gaeta, Robert W. Boyd</i>	1051
72.1	Nonlinear Susceptibility	1051
72.2	Wave Equation in Nonlinear Optics.....	1054
72.3	Second-Order Processes	1056
72.4	Third-Order Processes	1057
72.5	Stimulated Light Scattering.....	1059
72.6	Other Nonlinear Optical Processes	1061
	References.....	1062
73	Coherent Transients	
	<i>Joseph H. Eberly, Carlos R. Stroud Jr.</i>	1065
73.1	Optical Bloch Equations	1065
73.2	Numerical Estimates of Parameters	1066
73.3	Homogeneous Relaxation	1066
73.4	Inhomogeneous Relaxation	1068
73.5	Resonant Pulse Propagation	1069
73.6	Multi-Level Generalizations	1071
73.7	Disentanglement and "Sudden Death" of Coherent Transients	1074
	References.....	1076
74	Multiphoton and Strong-Field Processes	
	<i>Kenneth C. Kulander, Maciej Lewenstein</i>	1077
74.1	Weak Field Multiphoton Processes.....	1078
74.2	Strong-Field Multiphoton Processes	1080
74.3	Strong-Field Computational Techniques.....	1086
	References.....	1088
75	Cooling and Trapping	
	<i>Juha Javanainen</i>	1091
75.1	Notation	1091
75.2	Control of Atomic Motion by Light	1092
75.3	Magnetic Trap for Atoms	1099
75.4	Trapping and Cooling of Charged Particles	1099
75.5	Applications of Cooling and Trapping	1103
	References.....	1105
76	Quantum Degenerate Gases	
	<i>Juha Javanainen</i>	1107
76.1	Elements of Quantum Field Theory	1107
76.2	Basic Properties of Degenerate Gases	1110

76.3 Experimental 1115
 76.4 BEC Superfluid 1117
 76.5 Current Active Topics 1119
 References 1123

77 De Broglie Optics

Carsten Henkel, Martin Wilkens 1125
 77.1 Overview 1125
 77.2 Hamiltonian of de Broglie Optics 1126
 77.3 Principles of de Broglie Optics 1129
 77.4 Refraction and Reflection 1131
 77.5 Diffraction 1133
 77.6 Interference 1135
 77.7 Coherence of Scalar Matter Waves 1137
 References 1139

78 Quantized Field Effects

Matthias Freyberger, Karl Vogel, Wolfgang P. Schleich, Robert F. O’Connell 1141
 78.1 Field Quantization 1142
 78.2 Field States 1142
 78.3 Quantum Coherence Theory 1146
 78.4 Photodetection Theory 1147
 78.5 Quasi-Probability Distributions 1148
 78.6 Reservoir Theory 1151
 78.7 Master Equation 1152
 78.8 Solution of the Master Equation 1154
 78.9 Quantum Regression Hypothesis 1156
 78.10 Quantum Noise Operators 1157
 78.11 Quantum Monte Carlo Formalism 1159
 78.12 Spontaneous Emission in Free Space 1159
 78.13 Resonance Fluorescence 1160
 78.14 Recent Developments 1162
 References 1163

79 Entangled Atoms and Fields: Cavity QED

Dieter Meschede, Axel Schenzle 1167
 79.1 Atoms and Fields 1167
 79.2 Weak Coupling in Cavity QED 1169
 79.3 Strong Coupling in Cavity QED 1173
 79.4 Strong Coupling in Experiments 1174
 79.5 Microscopic Masers and Lasers 1175
 79.6 Micromasers 1178
 79.7 Quantum Theory of Measurement 1180
 79.8 Applications of Cavity QED 1181
 References 1182

80 Quantum Optical Tests of the Foundations of Physics	
<i>Aephraim M. Steinberg, Paul G. Kwiat, Raymond Y. Chiao</i>	1185
80.1 The Photon Hypothesis	1186
80.2 Quantum Properties of Light	1186
80.3 Nonclassical Interference	1188
80.4 Complementarity and Coherence	1191
80.5 Measurements in Quantum Mechanics	1193
80.6 The EPR Paradox and Bell's Inequalities	1195
80.7 Quantum Information	1200
80.8 The Single-Photon Tunneling Time	1202
80.9 Gravity and Quantum Optics	1206
References	1207
81 Quantum Information	
<i>Peter L. Knight, Stefan Scheel</i>	1215
81.1 Quantifying Information	1216
81.2 Simple Quantum Protocols	1218
81.3 Unitary Transformations	1221
81.4 Quantum Algorithms	1222
81.5 Error Correction	1223
81.6 The DiVincenzo Checklist	1224
81.7 Physical Implementations	1225
81.8 Outlook	1227
References	1228
Part G Applications	
82 Applications of Atomic and Molecular Physics to Astrophysics	
<i>Alexander Dalgarno, Stephen Lepp</i>	1235
82.1 Photoionized Gas	1235
82.2 Collisionally Ionized Gas	1237
82.3 Diffuse Molecular Clouds	1238
82.4 Dark Molecular Clouds	1239
82.5 Circumstellar Shells and Stellar Atmospheres	1241
82.6 Supernova Ejecta	1242
82.7 Shocked Gas	1243
82.8 The Early Universe	1244
82.9 Recent Developments	1244
82.10 Other Reading	1245
References	1245
83 Comets	
<i>Paul D. Feldman</i>	1247
83.1 Observations	1247
83.2 Excitation Mechanisms	1250
83.3 Cometary Models	1254
83.4 Summary	1256
References	1257

84 Aeronomy

<i>Jane L. Fox</i>	1259
84.1 Basic Structure of Atmospheres	1259
84.2 Density Distributions of Neutral Species	1264
84.3 Interaction of Solar Radiation with the Atmosphere	1265
84.4 Ionospheres	1271
84.5 Neutral, Ion and Electron Temperatures	1281
84.6 Luminosity	1284
84.7 Planetary Escape	1287
References	1290

**85 Applications of Atomic and Molecular Physics
to Global Change**

<i>Kate P. Kirby, Kelly Chance</i>	1293
85.1 Overview	1293
85.2 Atmospheric Models and Data Needs	1294
85.3 Tropospheric Warming/Upper Atmosphere Cooling	1295
85.4 Stratospheric Ozone	1298
85.5 Atmospheric Measurements	1300
References	1301

86 Atoms in Dense Plasmas

<i>Jon C. Weisheit, Michael S. Murillo</i>	1303
86.1 The Dense Plasma Environment	1305
86.2 Atomic Models and Ionization Balance	1308
86.3 Elementary Processes	1311
86.4 Simulations	1313
References	1316

87 Conduction of Electricity in Gases

<i>Alan Garscadden</i>	1319
87.1 Electron Scattering and Transport Phenomena	1320
87.2 Glow Discharge Phenomena	1327
87.3 Atomic and Molecular Processes	1328
87.4 Electrical Discharge in Gases: Applications	1330
87.5 Conclusions	1333
References	1333

88 Applications to Combustion

<i>David R. Crosley</i>	1335
88.1 Combustion Chemistry	1336
88.2 Laser Combustion Diagnostics	1337
88.3 Recent Developments	1342
References	1342

89 Surface Physics	
<i>Erik T. Jensen</i>	1343
89.1 Low Energy Electrons and Surface Science.....	1343
89.2 Electron–Atom Interactions	1344
89.3 Photon–Atom Interactions.....	1346
89.4 Atom–Surface Interactions.....	1351
89.5 Recent Developments	1352
References.....	1353
90 Interface with Nuclear Physics	
<i>John D. Morgan III, James S. Cohen</i>	1355
90.1 Nuclear Size Effects in Atoms.....	1356
90.2 Electronic Structure Effects in Nuclear Physics	1358
90.3 Muon–Catalyzed Fusion	1359
References.....	1369
91 Charged–Particle–Matter Interactions	
<i>Hans Bichsel</i>	1373
91.1 Experimental Aspects	1374
91.2 Theory of Cross Sections	1376
91.3 Moments of the Cross Section.....	1378
91.4 Energy Loss Straggling	1381
91.5 Multiple Scattering and Nuclear Reactions	1384
91.6 Monte Carlo Calculations.....	1384
91.7 Detector Conversion Factors	1385
References.....	1385
92 Radiation Physics	
<i>Mitio Inokuti</i>	1389
92.1 General Overview	1389
92.2 Radiation Absorption and its Consequences.....	1390
92.3 Electron Transport and Degradation	1392
92.4 Connections with Related Fields of Research.....	1397
92.5 Supplement	1397
References.....	1398
Acknowledgements	1401
About the Authors	1405
Detailed Contents	1425
Subject Index	1471

List of Tables

1 Units and Constants

Table 1.1	Table of physical constants. Uncertainties are given in parentheses	2
Table 1.2	The correlation coefficients of a selected group of constants based on the 2002 CODATA	3
Table 1.3	Conversion factors for various physical quantities	4
Table 1.4	Physical quantities in atomic units with $\hbar = e = m_e = 4\pi\epsilon_0 = 1$, and $\alpha^{-1} = 137.035\,999\,11(46)$	5
Table 1.5	Values of e , π , Euler's constant γ , and the Riemann zeta function $\zeta(n)$	6

Part A Mathematical Methods

2 Angular Momentum Theory

Table 2.1	The solid and spherical harmonics \mathcal{Y}_{lm} , and the tensor harmonics \mathcal{T}_{μ}^k (labeled by $k=l$ and $\mu=m$) for $l=0, 1, 2, 3$, and 4	69
Table 2.2	The $3-j$ coefficients for all M 's = 0, or $J_3 = 0, \frac{1}{2}$	69
Table 2.3	The $3-j$ coefficients for $J_3 = 1, \frac{3}{2}, 2$	70
Table 2.4	The $6-j$ coefficients for $d = 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, 2$, with $s = a + b + c$	71

3 Group Theory for Atomic Shells

Table 3.1	Generators of the Lie groups for the atomic l shell	77
Table 3.2	Dimensions D of the irreducible representations ([irre]IR's) of various Lie groups	78
Table 3.3	Eigenvalues of Casimir's operator C for groups used in the atomic l shell	79
Table 3.4	The states of the d shell	81

Part B Atoms

10 Atomic Spectroscopy

Table 10.1	Atomic structural hierarchy in LS coupling and names for the groups of all transitions between structural entities	178
Table 10.2	Allowed J values for l_j^N equivalent electrons (jj) coupling	178
Table 10.3	Ground levels and ionization energies for the neutral atoms ..	182
Table 10.4	Selection rules for discrete transitions	187
Table 10.5	Wavelengths λ , upper energy levels E_k , statistical weights g_i and g_k of lower and upper levels, and transition probabilities A_{ki} for persistent spectral lines of neutral atoms	187

Table 10.6	Conversion relations between S and A_{ki} for forbidden transitions.....	192
Table 10.7	Relative strengths for lines of multiplets in LS coupling.....	193
Table 10.8	Some transitions of the main spectral series of hydrogen.....	195
Table 10.9	Values of Stark-broadening parameter $\alpha_{1/2}$ of the H_β line of hydrogen (4861 \AA) for various temperatures and electron densities.....	196
11 High Precision Calculations for Helium		
Table 11.1	Formulas for the radial integrals $I_0(a, b, c; \alpha, \beta) = \langle r_1^a r_2^b r_{12}^c e^{-\alpha r_1 - \beta r_2} \rangle_{\text{rad}}$ and $I_0^{\text{log}}(a, b, c; \alpha, \beta) = \langle r_1^a r_2^b r_{12}^c \ln r_{12} e^{-\alpha r_1 - \beta r_2} \rangle_{\text{rad}}$	203
Table 11.2	Nonrelativistic eigenvalue coefficients ε_0 and ε_1 for helium....	205
Table 11.3	Eigenvalue coefficients ε_2 for helium.....	207
Table 11.4	Values of the reduced electron mass ratio μ/M	207
Table 11.5	Nonrelativistic eigenvalues $E = \varepsilon_0 + (\mu/M)\varepsilon_1 + (\mu/M)^2\varepsilon_2$ for helium-like ions.....	207
Table 11.6	Expectation values of various operators for He-like ions for the case $M = \infty$	208
Table 11.7	Total ionization energies for ^4He , calculated with $R_M = 3\,289\,391\,006.715 \text{ MHz}$	210
Table 11.8	QED corrections to the ionization energy included in Table 11.7 for the S- and P-states of helium.....	211
Table 11.9	Quantum defects for the total energies of helium with the ΔW_n term subtracted (11.54).....	212
Table 11.10	Formulas for the hydrogenic expectation value $\langle r^{-j} \rangle \equiv \langle n l r^{-j} n l \rangle$	214
Table 11.11	Oscillator strengths for helium.....	216
Table 11.12	Singlet-triplet mixing angles for helium.....	217
13 Atoms in Strong Fields		
Table 13.1	Relativistic ground state binding energy $-E_{\text{gs}}/Z^2$ and finite nuclear size correction $\delta E_{\text{nuc}}/Z^2$ of hydrogenic atoms for various magnetic fields B	230
Table 13.2	Relativistic binding energy $-E_{2S, -1/2}$ for the $2S_{1/2}$ ($m_j = -\frac{1}{2}$) and $-E_{2P, -1/2}$ for the $2P_{1/2}$ ($m_j = -\frac{1}{2}$) excited states of hydrogen in an intense magnetic field B	231
Table 13.3	Relativistic corrections $\delta E = (E - E_{\text{NR}})/ E_{\text{R}} $ to the nonrelativistic energies E_{NR} for the ground state and $n = 2$ excited states of hydrogen in an intense magnetic field B	231
Table 13.4	Relativistic dipole polarizabilities for the ground state of hydrogenic atoms.....	233
17 Precision Oscillator Strength and Lifetime Measurements		
Table 17.1	Measured $np \ ^2P_j$ lifetimes.....	266

21 Atomic Structure: Multiconfiguration Hartree–Fock Theories

Table 21.1	The effective quantum number and quantum defect parameters of the $2snd$ Rydberg series in Be	312
Table 21.2	Observed and Hartree–Fock ionization potentials for the ground states of neutral atoms, in eV	313
Table 21.3	Comparison of theoretical and experimental energies for Be $1s^2 2s^2 \ ^1S$ in hartrees	317
Table 21.4	Specific mass shift parameter and electron density at the nucleus as a function of the active set	319
Table 21.5	MCHF Hyperfine constants for the $1s^2 2s 2p \ ^1P$ state of B II	320
Table 21.6	Convergence of transition data for the $1s^2 2s^2 2p^2 P^o \rightarrow 1s^2 2s 2p^2 \ ^2D$ transition in Boron with increasing active set	322

22 Relativistic Atomic Structure

Table 22.1	Relativistic angular density functions	339
Table 22.2	Nonrelativistic angular density functions	339
Table 22.3	Spectroscopic labels and angular quantum numbers	340
Table 22.4	Radial moments $\langle \rho^s \rangle$	342
Table 22.5	j^N configurational states in the seniority scheme	351

25 Autoionization

Table 25.1	Test of sum rule (25.15) for the lowest $\text{He}^- (1s 2s^2 \ ^2S)$ autodetachment state ([25.4])	393
Table 25.2	Comparison of methods for calculating the energy of the lowest $\text{He}^- (1s 2s^2 \ ^2S)$ autodetachment state	393
Table 25.3	Energies \mathcal{E}_s of the $\text{He}(2s 2p \ ^1P^o)$ autoionization states below $\text{He}^+ (n = 2)$ threshold from the variational calculations of <i>O'Malley</i> and <i>Geltman</i> [25.13]	394
Table 25.4	Comparison of high precision calculations with experiment for the resonance parameters of the $\text{He}(^1P^o)$ resonances below the $n = 2$ threshold	396
Table 25.5	Comparison of resonance parameters obtained from different methods for calculating $^1D^e$ states in H^-	397
Table 25.6	Resonance energies \mathcal{E}_F (Ry) and widths (eV) for 1P states of He below $n = 2$ threshold (-1 Ry) of He^+	398

27 Quantum Electrodynamics

Table 27.1	Contributions to of C_2 in Yennie gauge	417
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28 Tests of Fundamental Physics

Table 28.1	Theoretical contributions and total for the g -factor of the electron in hydrogenic carbon 12 based on the 2002 recommended values of the constants	433
------------	---	-----

Table 28.2	Theoretical contributions and total for the g -factor of the electron in hydrogenic oxygen 16 based on the 2002 recommended values of the constants.....	433
Table 28.3	Relevant Bethe logarithms $\ln k_0(n, l)$	439
Table 28.4	Values of the function $G_{SE}(\alpha)$	440
Table 28.5	Values of the function $G_{VP}^{(1)}(\alpha)$	441
Table 28.6	Values of N	442
Table 28.7	Values of b_L and B_{60}	442
Table 28.8	Measured transition frequencies ν in hydrogen.....	445
30 Atomic Clocks and Constraints on Variations of Fundamental Constants		
Table 30.1	Limits on possible time variation of frequencies of different transitions in SI units.....	459
Table 30.2	Magnetic moments and relativistic corrections for atoms involved in microwave standards	460
Table 30.3	Limits on possible time variation of the frequencies of different transitions and their sensitivity to variations in α due to relativistic corrections	460
Table 30.4	Model-independent laboratory constraints on the possible time variations of natural constants	461
Table 30.5	Model-dependent laboratory constraints on possible time variations of fundamental constants	462
Part C Molecules		
32 Molecular Symmetry and Dynamics		
Table 32.1	Tunneling energy eigensolutions	497
Table 32.2	Character table for symmetry group C_2	498
Table 32.3	Character table for symmetry group D_2	498
Table 32.4	Character table for symmetry group O	500
Table 32.5	Eigenvectors and eigenvalues of the tunneling matrix for the (A_1, E, T_1) cluster with $K = 28$	503
Table 32.6	Spin $-\frac{1}{2}$ basis states for SiF_4 rotating about a C_4 symmetry axis.....	506
38 Gas Phase Ionic Reactions		
Table 38.1	Examples illustrating the range of ionic reactions that can occur in the gas phase	576
42 Spectroscopic Techniques: Lasers		
Table 42.1	Fixed frequency lasers	627
Table 42.2	Approximate tuning ranges for tunable lasers.....	627
44 Spectroscopic Techniques: Ultraviolet		
Table 44.1	Representative third-order frequency conversion schemes for generation of tunable coherent VUV light	647

Part D Scattering Theory

45 Elastic Scattering: Classical, Quantal, and Semiclassical

Table 45.1	Model interaction potentials	685
------------	------------------------------------	-----

46 Orientation and Alignment in Atomic and Molecular Collisions

Table 46.1	Summary of cases of increasing complexity, and the orientation and alignment parameters necessary for unpolarized beams	698
Table 46.2	Summary of cases of increasing complexity for spin-polarized beams	702

49 Adiabatic and Diabatic Collision Processes at Low Energies

Table 49.1	Selection rules for the coupling between diabatic and adiabatic states of a diatomic quasimolecule ($w = g, u; \sigma = +, -$)	745
Table 49.2	Selection rules for dynamic coupling between adiabatic states of a system of three atoms	746

56 Rydberg Collisions: Binary Encounter, Born and Impulse Approximations

Table 56.1	General n -dependence of characteristic properties of Rydberg states	837
Table 56.2	Coefficients $C(n_i \ell_i \rightarrow n_f \ell_f)$ in the Born capture cross section formula (56.284)	860
Table 56.3	Functions $F(n_i \ell_i \rightarrow n_f \ell_f; x)$ in the Born capture cross section formula (56.284)	860

Part E Scattering Experiments

62 Photon-Atom Interactions: Intermediate Energies

Table 62.1	Nomenclature for vacancy states	920
------------	---------------------------------------	-----

66 Reactive Scattering

Table 66.1	Collision numbers for coupling between different modes	968
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Part F Quantum Optics

71 Types of Lasers

Table 71.1	Categories of lasers	1035
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75 Cooling and Trapping

Table 75.1	Laser cooling parameters for the lowest $S_{1/2} - P_{3/2}$ transition of hydrogen and most alkalis (the D_2 line)	1092
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81 Quantum Information

Table 81.1	BB84 protocol for secret key distribution	1219
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Part G Applications

82 Applications of Atomic and Molecular Physics to Astrophysics

Table 82.1	Molecules observed in interstellar clouds	1240
------------	---	------

84 Aeronomy

Table 84.1	Homopause characteristics of planets and satellites	1260
Table 84.2	Molecular weights and fractional composition of dry air in the terrestrial atmosphere	1261
Table 84.3	Composition of the lower atmospheres of Mars and Venus	1262
Table 84.4	Composition of the lower atmospheres of Jupiter and Saturn	1263
Table 84.5	Composition of the lower atmospheres of Uranus and Neptune	1263
Table 84.6	Composition of the lower atmosphere of Titan	1263
Table 84.7	Composition of the atmosphere of Triton	1263
Table 84.8	Number densities of species at the surface of Mercury	1264
Table 84.9	Ionization potentials (I_p) of common atmospheric species	1273
Table 84.10	Exobase properties of the planets	1289

86 Atoms in Dense Plasmas

Table 86.1	Some plasma quantities that depend on its ionization balance	1308
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88 Applications to Combustion

Table 88.1	Combustion chemistry intermediates detectable by laser-induced fluorescence	1339
------------	--	------

90 Interface with Nuclear Physics

Table 90.1	Resonant (quasiresonant if negative) collision energies ϵ_{res} (in meV) calculated using (90.35)	1365
Table 90.2	Comparison of sticking values	1368

91 Charged-Particle-Matter Interactions

Table 91.1	The coefficient $\tau(\beta) = M_0\beta^2/(NZk_R)$ for pions with $M_\pi = 139.567 \text{ MeV}/c^2$, calculated in the FVP approximation	1378
Table 91.2	Calculated most probable energy loss Δ_{mp} of pions with $Z_1 = \pm 1$ and kinetic energy \mathcal{T} passing through a distance x of argon gas (at 760 Torr, 293 K, $\rho = 1.66 \text{ g}/\text{dm}^3$)	1381
Table 91.3	Calculated values of Γ (fwhm) of the straggling function $F(\Delta)$ (see Table 91.2)	1382

92 Radiation Physics

Table 92.1	The mean number N_j of initial species produced in molecular hydrogen upon complete degradation of an incident electron at 10 keV, and the energy absorbed E_{abs}	1391
Table 92.2	Condensed matter effects.....	1396

List of Abbreviations

2P/2H	two-particle/two-hole	CETS	cavity enhanced transmission spectroscopy
A		CFCP	free-free molecular Franck-Condon
AA	average atom	CG	Clebsch-Gordan
ACT	activated complex theory	CH	Clauser-Horne
ADDS	angular distribution by Doppler spectroscopy	CI	configuration interaction
ADO	average dipole orientation	CIS	constant ionic state
AES	Auger electron spectroscopy	CL	constant log
AI	adiabatic ionization	CM	center-of-mass
AL	absorption loss	CMA	cylindrical mirror analyzer
ALS	advanced light source	COA	classical oscillator approximation
AMO	atomic, molecular, and optical	CODATA	Committee on Data for Science and Technology
ANDC	arbitrarily normalized decay curve	COIL	chemical-oxygen-iodine
AO	atomic orbital	COLTRIMS	cold-target recoil-ion momentum spectroscopy
AOM	acoustooptic modulator	CP	central potential
AS	active space	CPA	chirped-pulsed-amplification
ASD	atomic spectra database	CQC	classical-quantal coupling
ASF	atomic state functions	CRDS	cavity ring-down spectroscopy
ATI	above threshold ionization	CSDA	continuous slowing down approximation
AU	absorbance units	CSF	configurational state functions
B		CTF	common translation factor
BEA	binary encounter approximation	CTMC	classical trajectory Monte Carlo
BEC	Bose-Einstein condensate (or condensation)	CW	continuous wave
BF	body-fixed	CW-CRDS	continuous-Wave Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy
BI	Bell's inequality	CX	charge exchange
BL	Bethe log	CXO	Chandra X-ray Observatory
BO	Born-Oppenheimer	D	
BS	Bethe-Salpeter	DB	detailed balance
BW	Brillouin-Wigner	DCS	differential cross sections
C		DDCS	doubly differential cross sections
CARS	coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering	DF	Dirac-Fock
CAS	complete active space	DFB	distributed feedback
CASPT	complete active space perturbation theory	DFS	decoherence free subspace
CAUGA	Clifford algebra unitary group approach	DFT	discrete Fourier transform
CC	coupled cluster	DFWM	degenerate four wave mixing
CCA	coupled cluster approximation	DLR	dielectronic recombination
CCC	convergent close coupling	DODS	different orbitals for different spins
CCD	coupled cluster doubles	DR	dielectronic recombination
CCO	coupled-channels optical	DSPB	distorted wave strong potential Born approximation
CDW	continuum distorted wave	E	
CEAS	cavity enhanced absorption spectroscopy	EA	excitation-autoionization
CES	cavity enhanced spectroscopy	EBIT	electron beam ion traps
CES	constant energy surface	EBS	eikonal Born series

ECP effective core potential
 ECS exterior complex scaling
 EEDF electron energy distribution functions
 EOM equation of motion
 EPR Einstein–Podolsky–Rosen
 ESM elastic scattering model
 ESR experimental storage ring
 EUV extreme ultraviolet
 EW-CRDS evanescent-wave CRDS
 EXAFS extended X-ray absorption fine structure

F

FBA first Born approximation
 FCPC full-core plus correlation
 FEL free-electron lasers
 FFT fast Fourier transform
 FID free induction decay
 FIR far-infrared
 FM frequency modulation
 FOTOS first-order theory for oscillator strengths
 FS fine-structure
 FT Fourier transform
 FTIR Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy
 FTMS Fourier transform mass spectrometry
 FTS Fourier transform spectroscopy
 FUSE far ultraviolet spectroscopic explorer
 FUV far ultraviolet
 FVP Fermi virtual photon
 FWHM full width at half maximum

G

GBT generalized Brillouin’s Theorem
 GFA Green’s function approach
 GGA generalized gradient approximation
 GHZ Greenberger, Horne, Zeilinger
 GI gauge invariant
 GIB guided ion beam
 GOME global ozone monitoring experiment
 GOS generalized oscillator strength
 GPE Gross–Pitaevskii equation
 GRPAE generalized random phase approximation with exchange

H

HEDP high energy-density physics
 HF Hartree–Fock equations
 HF Hellman–Feynman
 HG harmonic generation
 HOM Hong–Ou–Mandel
 HREELS high resolution electron energy loss spectroscopy
 HRTOF H-atom Rydberg time-of-flight
 HUM Hylleraas–Undheim–MacDonald theorem

I

IC intermediate coupling
 ICF inertial confinement fusion
 ICOS integrated cavity output spectroscopy
 ICSLS international conference on spectral line shapes
 IERM intermediate energy *R*-matrix
 IPCC intergovernmental panel on climate change
 IPES inverse photoemission spectroscopy
 IPIR independent-processes and isolated-resonance
 IPM independent particle model
 IPP impact parameter picture
 IR irreducible representations
 IR infrared
 IRI international reference ionosphere
 IRREP irreducible representation
 ISO infrared space observatory

J

JB Jeffrey–Born

K

KS Kohn–Sham
 KTA potassium titanyl arsenate
 KTP potassium titanyl phosphate

L

LieA Lie algebras
 LA linear algebraic
 L-CETS locked cavity enhanced transmission spectroscopy
 LDA local density approximation
 LEED low energy electron diffraction
 LER laser electric resonance
 LG Lie groups
 LHC left-hand circular
 LHV local hidden variable
 LIF laser-induced-fluorescence
 LIGO laser interferometer gravitational-wave observatory
 LISA laser interferometer space antenna
 LL Landau–Lifshitz
 LM Levenberg–Marquardt
 LMR laser magnetic resonance
 LPT laser photodetachment threshold
 LRL Laplace–Runge–Lenz
 LTE local thermodynamic equilibrium
 LYP Lee, Yang, and Parr
 LZ Landau–Zener

M

MBE	molecular beam epitaxy
MCP	microchannel plate
MDAL	minimum detectable absorption loss
MBPT	many-body perturbation theory
MCDHF	multiconfigurational Dirac–Hartree–Fock
MCHF	multiconfiguration Hartree–Fock
MCSCF	multiconfigurational self-consistent field
MEMS	microelectromechanical systems
MFP	mean free path
MIGO	matter–wave interferometric gravitational-wave observatory
MIM	metal-insulator-metal
MKSA	meters, kilograms, seconds, and amperes
MM	Massey–Mohr
MMCDF	multichannel multiconfiguration Dirac–Fock
MO	molecular orbital
MOPA	master oscillator power amplifier
MOT	magneto-optical trap
MOX	molecular orbital X-radiation
MP2	second order Møller–Plesset perturbation theory
MP3	third order Møller–Plesset perturbation theory
MPI	multiphoton ionization
MQDT	multichannel quantum defect theory
MR	multireference
MR-SDCI	multireference singles/doubles configuration interaction
MUV	middle ultraviolet

N

NAR	nonadiabatic region
NEP	noise-equivalent power
NEXAFS	near-edge X-ray absorption fine structure
NDIR	non-dispersive infrared
NFS	nonfine-structure
NICE-OHMS	noise-immune, cavity-enhanced optical heterodyne molecular spectroscopy
NIM	normal incidence monochromator
NIST	National Institute of Standards and Technology
NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance systems
NNS	nearest-neighbor energy level spacings
NR	nonrelativistic
NRQED	NR quantum electrodynamics

O

OA0-2	orbiting astronomical observatory
OB	ordinary Bremsstrahlung
OBE	optical Bloch equations
OBK	Oppenheimer–Brinkman–Kramers

OCP	one-component plasma
OHCE	one-and-a-half centered expansion
OMI	ozone monitoring instrument
OPO	optical parametric oscillator

P

P-CRDS	pulsed-cavity ringdown spectroscopy
PADDS	angular distribution by Doppler spectroscopy
PAH	polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon
PBS	polarizing beam splitters
PCDW	projectile continuum distorted wave approximation
PDM	phase diffusion model
PEC	potential energy curves
PES	photoelectron spectroscopy
PES	potential energy surface
PH/HP	particle–hole/hole–particle
PI	photoionization
PID	particle identification
PIMC	path-integral Monte Carlo
PMT	photomultiplier tubes
PNC	parity nonconservation
PPT	positive partial transposes
PR	polarization radiation
PSD	position sensitive detectors
PSS	perturbed stationary state
PT	perturbation theory
PWBA	plane wave Born approximation
PZT	piezo-electric transducer

Q

QCD	quantum chromodynamics
QED	quantum electrodynamics
QIP	quantum information processing
QKD	quantum key distribution
QMC	quantum Monte Carlo
QND	quantum nondemolition
QS	quasistatic
QSS	quasi-steady state

R

RATIP	relativistic atomic transition and ionization properties
RDC	ring-down cavity
READI	resonant excitation auto-double ionization
REC	radiative electron capture
REDA	resonant excitation double autoionization
REMPI	resonance-enhanced multiphoton ionization
RES	rotational energy surface
RHC	right-hand circular
RHIC	relativistic heavy ion collider

RIMS	recoil-ion momentum spectroscopy
RMI	relativistic mass increase
RMPS	<i>R</i> -matrix with pseudostates
RNA	Raman–Nath approximation
RPA	random-phase approximation
RPA	retarding potential analyzer
RPAE	random phase approximation with exchange
RR	radiative recombination
RRKM	Rampsberger–Rice–Karplus–Marcus
RSE	radial Schrödinger equation
RSPT	Rayleigh–Schrödinger perturbation theory
RT	Ramsauer–Townsend
RTE	resonant transfer and excitation
RWA	rotating wave approximation

S

SA-MCSCF	state averaged multiconfiguration self-consistent field
SACM	statistical adiabatic channel model
SBS	stimulated Brillouin scattering
SCA	semiclassical approximation
SCF	self-consistent field
SCIAMACHY	scanning imaging absorption spectrometer for atmospheric chartography
SD	spin-dependent
SD	single and double
SDS	singly differential cross section
SDTQ	single, double, triple, quadruple
SE	Schrödinger equation
SEP	stimulated emission pump
SEPE	simultaneous electron photon excitation
SEXAFS	surface extended X-ray absorption fine structure
SF	space-fixed
SI	spin-independent
SIAM	Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics
SM	submillimeter
SM-FIR	submillimeter far-infrared
SMS	specific mass shift
SOHO	solar and heliospheric observatory
SP	stationary phase
SPA	stationary phase approximations
SQL	standard quantum limit
SQUID	superconducting quantum interference detector
SR	synchrotron radiation
SRS	stimulated Raman scattering
SS	strong-short

STIRAP	stimulated Raman adiabatic passage
STO	Slater type orbital
STP	standard temperature and pressure

T

TCDW	target continuum distorted wave
TDCS	triple differential cross section
TDHF	time-dependent Hartree–Fock
TDS	thermal desorption spectroscopy
TDSE	time dependent Schrödinger equation
TEA	transverse-excitation-atmospheric-pressure
TF	toroidal field
TOF	time-of-flight
TOP	time orbiting potential
TPA	two-photon absorption
TSR	test storage ring
TuFIR	tunable far-infrared

U

UGA	unitary group approach
UHF	unrestricted Hartree–Fock
UPS	ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy
UV	ultraviolet
UV-VIS	ultraviolet-visible

V

VASP	Vienna ab-initio simulation package
VCSEL	vertical-cavity surface-emitting laser
VECSEL	vertical external cavity surface-emitting laser
VES	vibrational energy surfaces
VUV	vacuum ultraviolet

W

WCG	Wigner–Clebsch–Gordan
WDM	warm dense matter
WKB	Wentzel, Kramers, Brillouin
WL	weak-long
WMAP	Wilkinson microwave anisotropy probe
WPMD	wavepacket molecular dynamics

X

XPS	X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy
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Y

YAG	Yttrium Aluminum Garnet
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Nonlinear Optics

72. Nonlinear Optics

Nonlinear optics is concerned with the propagation of intense beams of light through a material system. The optical properties of the medium can be modified by the intense light beam, leading to new processes that would not occur in a material that responded linearly to an applied optical field. These processes can lead to the modification of the spectral, spatial, or polarization properties of the light beam, or the creation of new frequency components. More complete accounts of nonlinear optics including the origin of optical nonlinearities can be found in references [72.1–4].

Both the Gaussian and MKS system of units are commonly used in nonlinear optics. Thus, we have chosen to express the equations in this chapter in both the Gaussian and MKS systems. Each equation can be interpreted in the MKS system as written or in the Gaussian system by omitting the prefactors (e.g., $1/4\pi\epsilon_0$) that appear in square brackets at the beginning of the expression on the right-hand-side of the equation.

72.1	Nonlinear Susceptibility	1051
72.1.1	Tensor Properties	1052
72.1.2	Nonlinear Refractive Index	1052
72.1.3	Quantum Mechanical Expression for $\chi^{(n)}$	1052
72.1.4	The Hyperpolarizability	1053
72.2	Wave Equation in Nonlinear Optics	1054
72.2.1	Coupled-Amplitude Equations	1054

72.1 Nonlinear Susceptibility

In linear optics it is customary to describe the response of a material in terms of a macroscopic polarization $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$ (i. e., dipole moment per unit volume) which is linearly related to the applied electric field $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}$ through the linear susceptibility $\chi^{(1)}$. In order to extend the relationship between $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}$ into the nonlinear regime, the polarization is expanded in a power series of the electric field strength. We express this relationship mathematically by first decomposing the field and the polarization into their

72.2.2	Phase Matching	1054
72.2.3	Manley–Rowe Relations	1055
72.2.4	Pulse Propagation	1055
72.3	Second-Order Processes	1056
72.3.1	Sum Frequency Generation	1056
72.3.2	Second Harmonic Generation	1056
72.3.3	Difference Frequency Generation	1056
72.3.4	Parametric Amplification and Oscillation	1056
72.3.5	Focused Beams	1056
72.4	Third-Order Processes	1057
72.4.1	Third-Harmonic Generation	1057
72.4.2	Self-Phase and Cross-Phase Modulation	1057
72.4.3	Four-Wave Mixing	1058
72.4.4	Self-Focusing and Self-Trapping	1058
72.4.5	Saturable Absorption	1058
72.4.6	Two-Photon Absorption	1058
72.4.7	Nonlinear Ellipse Rotation	1059
72.5	Stimulated Light Scattering	1059
72.5.1	Stimulated Raman Scattering	1059
72.5.2	Stimulated Brillouin Scattering	1060
72.6	Other Nonlinear Optical Processes	1061
72.6.1	High-Order Harmonic Generation	1061
72.6.2	Electro-Optic Effect	1061
72.6.3	Photorefractive Effect	1061
72.6.4	Ultrafast and Intense-Field Nonlinear Optics	1062
	References	1062

frequency components such that

$$\tilde{\mathbf{E}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_l \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) e^{-i\omega_l t}, \quad (72.1)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{P}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_l \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) e^{-i\omega_l t}, \quad (72.2)$$

where the summations are performed over both positive and negative frequencies. The reality of $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$ is then

assured by requiring that $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) = \mathbf{E}^*(\mathbf{r}, -\omega_l)$ and $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) = \mathbf{P}^*(\mathbf{r}, -\omega_l)$. In this case the general expression for the Cartesian component i of the polarization at frequency ω_σ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_i(\omega_\sigma) = [\varepsilon_0] & \left[\sum_j \chi_{ij}^{(1)}(\omega_\sigma) E_j(\omega_\sigma) \right. \\
 & + \sum_{jk} \sum_{(mn)} \chi_{ijk}^{(2)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n) \\
 & \times E_j(\omega_m) E_k(\omega_n) \\
 & + \sum_{jkl} \sum_{(mno)} \chi_{ijkl}^{(3)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n, \omega_o) E_j(\omega_m) \\
 & \times E_k(\omega_n) E_l(\omega_o) \\
 & \left. + \dots \right], \quad (72.3)
 \end{aligned}$$

where $ijkl$ refer to field components, and the notation (mn) , for example, indicates that the summation over n and m should be performed such that $\omega_\sigma = \omega_m + \omega_n$ is held constant. Inspection of (72.3) shows that the $\chi^{(n)}$ can be required to satisfy intrinsic permutation symmetry, i. e., the Cartesian components and the corresponding frequency components [e.g., (j, ω_j) but not (i, ω_σ)] associated with the applied fields may be permuted without changing the value of the susceptibility. For example, for the second-order susceptibility,

$$\chi_{ijk}^{(2)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n) = \chi_{ikj}^{(2)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_n, \omega_m). \quad (72.4)$$

If the medium is lossless at all the field frequencies taking part in the nonlinear interaction, then the condition of full permutation symmetry is necessarily valid. This condition states that the pair of indices associated with the Cartesian component and the frequency of the nonlinear polarization [i. e., (i, ω_σ)] may be permuted along with the pairs associated with the applied field components. For example, for the second-order susceptibility, this condition implies that

$$\chi_{ijk}^{(2)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n) = \chi_{kji}^{(2)}(-\omega_n; \omega_m, -\omega_\sigma). \quad (72.5)$$

If full permutation symmetry holds, and in addition all the frequencies of interest are well below any of the transition frequencies of the medium, the $\chi^{(n)}$ are invariant upon free permutation of all the Cartesian indices. This condition is known as the Kleinman symmetry condition.

72.1.1 Tensor Properties

The spatial symmetry properties of a material can be used to predict the tensor nature of the nonlinear susceptibility. For example, for a material that possesses inversion symmetry, all the elements of the even-ordered susceptibilities must vanish (i. e., $\chi^{(n)} = 0$ for n even). The number of independent elements of the nonlinear susceptibility for many materials can be substantially fewer than the total number of elements. For example, in general $\chi^{(3)}$ consists of 81 elements, but for the case of isotropic media such as gases, liquids, and glasses, only 21 elements are nonvanishing and only three of these are independent. The nonvanishing elements consist of the following types: $\chi_{ijij}^{(3)}$, $\chi_{ijji}^{(3)}$, and $\chi_{ijji}^{(3)}$, where $i \neq j$. In addition, it can be shown that

$$\chi_{iiii}^{(3)} = \chi_{ijij}^{(3)} + \chi_{ijji}^{(3)} + \chi_{ijji}^{(3)}. \quad (72.6)$$

72.1.2 Nonlinear Refractive Index

For many materials, the refractive index n is intensity-dependent such that

$$n = n_0 + n_2 I, \quad (72.7)$$

where n_0 is the linear refractive index, n_2 is the nonlinear refractive index coefficient, and $I = [4\pi\varepsilon_0]n_0c|E|^2/2\pi$ is the intensity of the optical field. For the case of a single, linearly polarized light beam traveling in an isotropic medium or along a crystal axis of a cubic material, n_2 is related to $\chi^{(3)}$ by

$$n_2 = \left(\frac{1}{16\pi^2\varepsilon_0} \right) \frac{12\pi^2}{n_0^2 c} \chi_{iiii}^{(3)}(\omega; \omega, \omega, \omega, -\omega). \quad (72.8)$$

For the common situation in which n_2 is measured in units of cm^2/W and $\chi^{(3)}$ is measured in Gaussian units, the relation becomes

$$n_2 \left(\frac{\text{cm}^2}{\text{W}} \right) = \frac{12\pi^2 \times 10^7}{n_0^2 c} \chi_{iiii}^{(3)}(\omega; \omega, \omega, \omega, -\omega). \quad (72.9)$$

There are various physical mechanisms that can give rise to a nonlinear refractive index. For the case of induced molecular orientation in CS_2 , $n_2 = 3 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^2/\text{W}$. If the contribution to the nonlinear refractive index is electronic in nature (e.g., glass), then $n_2 \approx 2 \times 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^2/\text{W}$.

72.1.3 Quantum Mechanical Expression for $\chi^{(n)}$

The general quantum mechanical perturbation expression for the $\chi^{(n)}$ in the nonresonant limit is (Under conditions of resonant excitation, relaxation phenomena must be included in the treatment, and the density matrix formalism must be used [72.4]. The resulting equation for the nonlinear susceptibility is then more complicated)

$$\begin{aligned} & \chi_{i_0 \dots i_n}^{(n)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_1, \dots, \omega_n) \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{\varepsilon_0} \right] \frac{N}{\hbar^n} \mathcal{P}_F \sum_{g a_1 \dots a_n} \rho_0(g) \\ & \quad \times \frac{1}{(\omega_{a_1 g} - \omega_1 - \dots - \omega_n)} \\ & \quad \times \frac{\mu_{g a_1}^{i_0} \mu_{a_1 a_2}^{i_1} \dots \mu_{a_{n-1} a_n}^{i_{n-1}} \mu_{a_n g}^{i_n}}{(\omega_{a_2 g} - \omega_2 - \dots - \omega_n) \dots (\omega_{a_n g} - \omega_n)} \end{aligned} \quad (72.10)$$

where $\omega_\sigma = \omega_1 + \dots + \omega_n$, N is the density of atoms or molecules that compose the material, $\rho_0(g)$ is the probability that the atomic or molecular population is initially in the state g in thermal equilibrium, $\mu_{a_1 a_2}^{i_1}$ is the i_1 th Cartesian component of the $(a_1 a_2)$ dipole matrix element, $\omega_{a_1 g}$ is the transition frequency between the states a_1 and g , and \mathcal{P}_F is the full permutation operator which is defined such that the expression that follows it is to be summed over all permutations of the pairs $(i_0, \omega_\sigma), (i_1, \omega_1) \dots (i_n, \omega_n)$ and divided by the number of permutations of the input frequencies. Thus the full expression for $\chi^{(2)}$ consists of six terms and that for $\chi^{(3)}$ consists of 24 terms.

In the limit in which the frequencies of all the fields are much smaller than any resonance frequency of the medium, the value of $\chi^{(n)}$ can be estimated to be

$$\chi^{(n)} \cong \left[\frac{1}{\varepsilon_0} \right] \left(\frac{2\mu}{\hbar\omega_0} \right)^n N\mu, \quad (72.11)$$

where μ is a typical value for the dipole moment and ω_0 is a typical value of the transition frequency between the ground state and the lowest-lying excited state. For the case of $\chi^{(3)}$ in Gaussian units, the predicted value is $\chi^{(3)} = 3 \times 10^{-14}$, which is consistent with the measured values of many materials (e.g., glass) in which the nonresonant electronic nonlinearity is the dominant contribution.

72.1.4 The Hyperpolarizability

The nonlinear susceptibility relates the macroscopic polarization \mathbf{P} to the electric field strength \mathbf{E} . A related

microscopic quantity is the hyperpolarizability, which relates the dipole moment \mathbf{p} induced in a given atom or molecule to the electric field \mathbf{E}^{loc} (the Lorentz local field) that acts on that atom or molecule. The relationship between \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{E}^{loc} is

$$\begin{aligned} & p_i(\omega_\sigma) \\ &= [\varepsilon_0] \left[\sum_j \alpha_{ij}(\omega_\sigma) E_j^{\text{loc}}(\omega_\sigma) \right. \\ & \quad + \sum_{jk} \sum_{(mn)} \beta_{ijk}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n) E_j^{\text{loc}}(\omega_m) E_k^{\text{loc}}(\omega_n) \\ & \quad + \sum_{jkl} \sum_{(mno)} \gamma_{ijkl}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n, \omega_o) \\ & \quad \left. \times E_j^{\text{loc}}(\omega_m) E_k^{\text{loc}}(\omega_n) E_l^{\text{loc}}(\omega_o) + \dots \right], \end{aligned} \quad (72.12)$$

where α_{ij} is the linear polarizability, β_{ijk} is the first hyperpolarizability, and γ_{ijkl} is the second hyperpolarizability. The nonlinear susceptibilities and hyperpolarizabilities are related by the number density of molecules N and by local-field factors, which account for the fact that the field \mathbf{E}^{loc} that acts on a typical molecule is not in general equal to the macroscopic field \mathbf{E} . Under many circumstances, it is adequate to relate \mathbf{E}^{loc} to \mathbf{E} through use of the Lorentz approximation

$$\mathbf{E}^{\text{loc}}(\omega) = \mathbf{E}(\omega) + \left[\frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \right] \frac{4\pi}{3} \mathbf{P}(\omega). \quad (72.13)$$

To a good approximation, one often needs to include only the linear contribution to $\mathbf{P}(\omega)$, and thus the local electric field becomes

$$\mathbf{E}^{\text{loc}}(\omega) = \mathcal{L}(\omega) \mathbf{E}(\omega), \quad (72.14)$$

where $\mathcal{L}(\omega) = \{[\varepsilon_0^{-1}] \varepsilon(\omega) + 2\}/3$ is the local field correction factor and $\varepsilon(\omega)$ is the linear dielectric constant. Since $\mathbf{P}(\omega) = N\mathbf{p}(\omega)$, (72.3) and (72.12) through (72.14) relate the $\chi^{(n)}$ to the hyperpolarizabilities through

$$\chi_{ij}^{(1)}(\omega_\sigma) = \mathcal{L}(\omega_\sigma) N \alpha_{ij}(\omega_\sigma), \quad (72.15)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_{ijk}^{(2)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n) &= \mathcal{L}(\omega_\sigma) \mathcal{L}(\omega_m) \mathcal{L}(\omega_n) \\ & \quad \times N \beta_{ijk}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n), \end{aligned} \quad (72.16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_{ijkl}^{(3)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n, \omega_o) &= \mathcal{L}(\omega_\sigma) \mathcal{L}(\omega_m) \mathcal{L}(\omega_n) \mathcal{L}(\omega_o) \\ & \quad \times N \gamma_{ijkl}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n, \omega_o). \end{aligned} \quad (72.17)$$

For simplicity, the analysis above ignores the vector character of the interacting fields in calculating $\mathcal{L}(\omega)$. A generalization that does include these effects is given in [72.5].

72.2 Wave Equation in Nonlinear Optics

72.2.1 Coupled-Amplitude Equations

The propagation of light waves through a nonlinear medium is described by the wave equation

$$\nabla^2 \tilde{\mathbf{E}} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{\mathbf{E}}}{\partial t^2} = \left[\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right] \frac{4\pi}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{\mathbf{P}}}{\partial t^2}. \quad (72.18)$$

For the case in which $\tilde{\mathbf{E}}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$ are given by (72.1), the field amplitudes associated with each frequency component can be decomposed into their plane wave components such that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) &= \sum_l \mathbf{A}_n(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) e^{i\mathbf{k}_n \cdot \mathbf{r}}, \\ \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) &= \sum_l \mathbf{P}_n(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) e^{i\mathbf{k}_n \cdot \mathbf{r}}, \end{aligned} \quad (72.19)$$

where $k_n = n(\omega_l)\omega_l/c$ is the magnitude of the wavevector \mathbf{k}_n . The amplitudes \mathbf{A}_n and \mathbf{P}_n are next decomposed into vector components whose linear optical properties are such that the polarization associated with them does not change as the field propagates through the material. For example, for a uniaxial crystal these eigenpolarizations could correspond to the ordinary and extraordinary components. In order to describe the propagation and the nonlinear coupling of these eigenpolarizations, the vector field amplitudes are expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}_n(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) &= \hat{\mathbf{u}}_{ln} A_n(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l), \\ \mathbf{P}_n(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l) &= \hat{\mathbf{u}}_{ln} \mathcal{P}_n(\mathbf{r}, \omega_l), \end{aligned} \quad (72.20)$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{ln}$ is the unit vector associated with the eigenpolarization of the spatial mode n at frequency ω_l . If the fields are assumed to travel along the z -direction, and the slowly-varying amplitude approximation $\partial^2 A_n / \partial z^2 \ll 2k_n \partial A_n / \partial z$ is made, the change in the amplitude of the field as it propagates through the nonlinear medium with no linear absorption is described by the differential equation

$$\frac{dA_n(\omega_l)}{dz} = \pm \left[\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right] \frac{i2\pi\omega_l}{n(\omega_l)c} \mathcal{P}_n^{\text{NL}}(\omega_l), \quad (72.21)$$

where $\mathcal{P}_n^{\text{NL}}$ is the nonlinear contribution to the polarization amplitude \mathcal{P}_n , $n(\omega_l)$ is the linear refractive index at frequency ω_l , and the plus (minus) sign indicates propagation in the positive (negative) z -direction. Sections 72.3 and 72.4 give expressions for the $\mathcal{P}_n^{\text{NL}}$ for various second- and third-order nonlinear optical

processes. Equation (72.21) is used to determine the set of coupled-amplitude equations describing a particular nonlinear process. For example, for the case of sum-frequency generation, the two fields of frequency ω_1 and ω_2 are combined through second-order nonlinear interaction to create a third wave at frequency $\omega_3 = \omega_1 + \omega_2$. Assuming full permutation symmetry, the amplitudes of the nonlinear polarization for each of the waves are

$$\mathcal{P}^{\text{NL}}(z, \omega_1) = [\epsilon_0] 2\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)} A(z, \omega_3) A^*(z, \omega_2) e^{-i\Delta k z}, \quad (72.22)$$

$$\mathcal{P}^{\text{NL}}(z, \omega_2) = [\epsilon_0] 2\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)} A(z, \omega_3) A^*(z, \omega_1) e^{-i\Delta k z}, \quad (72.23)$$

$$\mathcal{P}^{\text{NL}}(z, \omega_3) = [\epsilon_0] 2\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)} A(z, \omega_1) A(z, \omega_2) e^{i\Delta k z}, \quad (72.24)$$

where $\Delta k = k_1 + k_2 - k_3$ is the wavevector mismatch (see Sect. 72.2.2) and $\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)}$ is given by

$$\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)} = \sum_{ijk} \chi_{ijk}^{(2)} (\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1^*)_i (\hat{\mathbf{u}}_2)_j (\hat{\mathbf{u}}_3)_k, \quad (72.25)$$

where $(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_l)_i = \hat{\mathbf{u}}_l \cdot \hat{\mathbf{i}}$. For simplicity, the subscripts on each of the field amplitudes have been dropped, since only one spatial mode at each frequency contributed. The resulting coupled amplitude equations are

$$\frac{dA(\omega_1)}{dz} = \left[\frac{1}{4\pi} \right] \frac{i4\pi\omega_1 \chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)}}{n(\omega_1)c} A(\omega_3) A^*(\omega_2) e^{-i\Delta k z}, \quad (72.26)$$

$$\frac{dA(\omega_2)}{dz} = \left[\frac{1}{4\pi} \right] \frac{i4\pi\omega_2 \chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)}}{n(\omega_2)c} A(\omega_3) A^*(\omega_1) e^{-i\Delta k z}, \quad (72.27)$$

$$\frac{dA(\omega_3)}{dz} = \left[\frac{1}{4\pi} \right] \frac{i4\pi\omega_3 \chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)}}{n(\omega_3)c} A(\omega_1) A(\omega_2) e^{i\Delta k z}. \quad (72.28)$$

72.2.2 Phase Matching

For many nonlinear optical processes (e.g., harmonic generation) it is important to minimize the wave vector mismatch in order to maximize the efficiency. For example, if the field amplitudes $A(\omega_1)$ and $A(\omega_2)$ are constant, the solution to (72.28) yields for the output

intensity

$$I(L, \omega_3) = \left[\frac{1}{64\pi^3 \varepsilon_0} \right] \times \frac{32\pi^3 \left[\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)} \right]^2 \omega_3^2 I(\omega_1) I(\omega_2) L^2}{n(\omega_1) n(\omega_2) n(\omega_3) c^3} \times \text{sinc}^2(\Delta k L / 2), \quad (72.29)$$

in terms of $\text{sinc } x = (\sin x)/x$, where $I(L, \omega_3) = (4\pi\varepsilon_0)n(\omega_3)c|A(L, \omega_3)|^2/2\pi$, and $I(\omega_1)$ and $I(\omega_2)$ are the corresponding input intensities. Clearly, the effect of the wavevector mismatch is to reduce the efficiency of the generation of the sum frequency wave. The maximum propagation distance over which efficient nonlinear coupling can occur is given by the coherence length

$$L_c = \frac{2}{\Delta k}. \quad (72.30)$$

As a result of the dispersion in the linear refractive index that occurs in all materials, achieving phase matching over typical interaction lengths (e.g., 5 mm) is nontrivial. For the case in which the nonlinear material is birefringent, it is sometimes possible to achieve phase matching by insuring that the interacting waves possess some suitable combination of ordinary and extraordinary polarization. Other techniques for achieving phase matching include quasiphase matching [72.5] and the use of the mode dispersion in waveguides [72.6].

However, the phase matching condition is automatically satisfied for certain nonlinear optical processes, such as two-photon absorption (see Sect. 72.4.6) and Stokes amplification in stimulated Raman scattering (see Sect. 72.5.1). One can tell when the phase matching condition is automatically satisfied by examining the frequencies that appear in the expression for the nonlinear susceptibility. For a nonlinear susceptibility of the sort $\chi^{(3)}(\omega_1; \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4)$ the wave vector mismatch is given in general by $\Delta \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k}_2 + \mathbf{k}_3 + \mathbf{k}_4 - \mathbf{k}_1$. Thus, for the example of Stokes amplification in stimulated Raman scattering, the nonlinear susceptibility is given by $\chi^{(3)}(\omega_1; \omega_1, \omega_0, -\omega_0)$ where $\omega_0(\omega_1)$ is the frequency of the pump (Stokes) wave, and consequently the wave vector mismatch vanishes identically.

72.2.3 Manley–Rowe Relations

Under conditions of full permutation symmetry, there is no flow of power from the electromagnetic fields to the medium, and thus the total power flow of the fields is conserved. The flow of energy among the fields can

be described by the Manley–Rowe relations. For example, for the case of sum-frequency generation, one can deduce from (72.26, 27, 28) that

$$\frac{d}{dz} \left[\frac{I(\omega_1)}{\omega_1} \right] = \frac{d}{dz} \left[\frac{I(\omega_2)}{\omega_2} \right] = -\frac{d}{dz} \left[\frac{I(\omega_3)}{\omega_3} \right]. \quad (72.31)$$

The expressions in square brackets are proportional to the flux of photons per unit area per unit time, and imply that the creation of a photon at ω_3 must be accompanied by the annihilation of photons at both ω_1 and ω_2 . Similar relations can be formulated for other nonlinear optical processes that are governed by a nonlinear susceptibility that satisfies full permutation symmetry. Since this behavior occurs at the photon level, nonlinear optical processes can lead to the generation of light fields that have esoteric quantum statistical properties (Chapt. 78 and Chapt. 80).

A nonlinear optical process that satisfies the Manley–Rowe relations is called a parametric process. Conversely, a process for which field energy is not conserved, and thus Manley–Rowe relations cannot be formulated, is said to be nonparametric. Thus, parametric processes are described by purely real $\chi^{(n)}$, whereas nonparametric processes are described by complex $\chi^{(n)}$.

72.2.4 Pulse Propagation

If the optical field consists of ultrashort (<100 ps) pulses, it is more convenient to work with the temporally varying amplitude, rather than with the individual frequency components. Thus, for a linearly polarized plane wave pulse propagating along the z -axis, the field is decomposed into the product of a slowly varying amplitude $A(z, t)$ and a rapidly varying oscillatory term such that

$$\tilde{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = A(z, t) e^{i(k_0 z - \omega_0 t)} + \text{c.c.}, \quad (72.32)$$

where $k_0 = n_0 \omega_0 / c$. For a pulse propagating in a material with an intensity-dependent refractive index, the propagation can be described by the nonlinear Schrödinger equation

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial z} + \frac{i\beta_2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial \tau^2} = i\gamma |A|^2 A, \quad (72.33)$$

where $\beta_2 = (d^2 k / d\omega^2)|_{\omega=\omega_0}$ is the group velocity dispersion parameter, $\tau = t - z/v_g$ is the local time for the pulse, $v_g = [(dk/d\omega)|_{\omega=\omega_0}]^{-1}$ is the group velocity, and $\gamma = [4\pi\varepsilon_0]n_2 n_0 \omega_0 / 2\pi$ is the nonlinear refractive index parameter.

72.3 Second-Order Processes

Second-order nonlinear optical processes occur as a consequence of the second term in expression (72.3), i.e., processes whose strength is described by $\chi^{(2)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n)$. These processes entail the generation of a field at frequency $\omega_\sigma = \omega_m + \omega_n$ in response to applied fields at (positive and/or negative) frequencies ω_m and ω_n . Several examples of such processes are described in this Section.

72.3.1 Sum Frequency Generation

Sum frequency generation produces an output field at frequency $\omega_3 = \omega_1 + \omega_2$ for ω_1 and ω_2 both positive. It is useful, for example, for the generation of tunable radiation in the uv if ω_1 and/or ω_2 are obtained from tunable lasers in the visible range. Sum frequency generation is described in detail in Sects. 72.2.1–72.2.3.

72.3.2 Second Harmonic Generation

Second harmonic generation is routinely used to convert the output of a laser to a higher frequency. It is described by $\chi^{(2)}(2\omega; \omega, \omega)$. Let η be the power conversion efficiency from frequency ω to 2ω . Assuming that phase matching is perfect, and the pump wave at frequency ω is undepleted by the interaction, a derivation analogous to that for (72.29) yields

$$\eta = \tanh^2(z/l), \quad (72.34)$$

where the characteristic conversion length l is given by

$$l = [4\pi] \frac{c\sqrt{n(\omega)n(2\omega)}}{4\pi\omega\chi^{(2)}|A_1(0)|}. \quad (72.35)$$

Note that the conversion efficiency asymptotically approaches unity. In practice, conversion efficiencies exceeding 80% can be achieved.

72.3.3 Difference Frequency Generation

Difference frequency generation can be used to create light in the infrared and far infrared by generating the difference frequency $\omega_2 = \omega_3 - \omega_1$ (where ω_3 and ω_1 are positive and $\omega_3 > \omega_1$) of two incident lasers. Consider the case in which a strong (undepleted) pump wave at frequency ω_3 and a weak (signal) wave at ω_1 are incident on a nonlinear medium described by $\chi^{(2)}(\omega_2; \omega_3, -\omega_1) = \chi^{(2)}(\omega_1; \omega_3, -\omega_2)$. The amplitude $A(\omega_3)$ of the strong wave can be taken as a constant,

and thus the interaction can be described by finding simultaneous solutions to (72.26) and (72.27) for $A(\omega_1)$ and $A(\omega_2)$. In the limit of perfect phase matching (i.e., $\Delta k = 0$), the solutions are

$$A(z, \omega_1) = A(0, \omega_1) \cosh \kappa z, \quad (72.36)$$

$$A(z, \omega_2) = i \sqrt{\frac{n_1\omega_2}{n_2\omega_1}} \frac{A(\omega_3)}{|A(\omega_3)|} A^*(0, \omega_1) \sinh \kappa z, \quad (72.37)$$

where

$$\kappa^2 = \left[\frac{1}{16\pi^2} \right] \frac{16\pi^2 [\chi^{(2)}]^2 \omega_1^2 \omega_2^2}{k_1 k_2 c^4} |A(\omega_3)|^2. \quad (72.38)$$

Equation (72.37) describes the spatial growth of the difference frequency signal.

72.3.4 Parametric Amplification and Oscillation

For the foregoing case of a strong wave at frequency ω_3 and a weak wave with $\omega_1 < \omega_3$ incident on a second-order nonlinear optical material, the lower frequency input wave is amplified by the nonlinear interaction; this process is known as parametric amplification. Difference frequency generation is a consequence of the Manley–Rowe relations, as described above in Sect. 72.2.3. Since $\omega_3 = \omega_1 + \omega_2$, the annihilation of an ω_3 photon must be accompanied by the simultaneous creation of photons ω_1 and ω_2 .

An optical parametric oscillator can be constructed by placing the nonlinear optical material inside an optical resonator that provides feedback at ω_1 and/or ω_2 . When such a device is excited by a wave at ω_3 , it can produce output frequencies ω_1 and ω_2 that satisfy $\omega_1 + \omega_2 = \omega_3$. Optical parametric oscillators are of considerable interest as sources of broadly tunable radiation [72.7].

72.3.5 Focused Beams

For conceptual clarity, much of the discussion so far has assumed that the interacting beams are plane waves. In practice, the incident laser beams are often focused into the nonlinear material to increase the field strength within the interaction region and consequently to increase the nonlinear response. However, it is undesirable to focus too tightly, because doing so leads

to a decrease in the effective length of the interaction region. In particular, if w_0 is the radius of the laser beam at the beam waist, the beam remains focused only over a distance of the order $b = 2\pi w_0^2/\lambda$ where λ is the laser wavelength measured in the non-

linear material. For many types of nonlinear optical processes, the optimal nonlinear response occurs if the degree of focusing is adjusted so that b is several times smaller than the length L of the nonlinear optical material.

72.4 Third-Order Processes

A wide variety of nonlinear optical processes are possible as a result of the nonlinear contributions to the polarization that are third-order in the applied field. These processes are described by $\chi^{(3)}(\omega_\sigma; \omega_m, \omega_n, \omega_o)$ (72.3) and can lead not only to the generation of new field components (e.g., third-harmonic generation) but can also result in a field affecting itself as it propagates (e.g., self-phase modulation). Several examples are described in this section.

72.4.1 Third-Harmonic Generation

Assuming full-permutation symmetry, the nonlinear polarization amplitudes for the fundamental and third-harmonic beams are

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}^{\text{NL}}(z, \omega) &= [\varepsilon_0] 3\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(3)} A(z, 3\omega) [A^*(z, \omega)]^2 e^{-i\Delta k z}, \\ \mathcal{P}^{\text{NL}}(z, 3\omega) &= [\varepsilon_0] \chi_{\text{eff}}^{(3)} [A(z, \omega)]^3 e^{i\Delta k z}, \end{aligned} \quad (72.39)$$

where $\Delta k = 3k(\omega) - k(3\omega)$ and $\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(3)}$ is the effective third-order susceptibility for third-harmonic generation and is defined in a manner analogous to the $\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(2)}$ in (72.25). If the intensity of the fundamental wave is not depleted by the nonlinear interaction, the solution for the output intensity $I(L, 3\omega)$ of the third-harmonic field for a crystal of length L is

$$\begin{aligned} I(L, 3\omega) &= \left[\frac{1}{256\pi^4 \varepsilon_0^2} \right] \frac{48\pi^2 \omega^2 [\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(3)}]^2}{n(3\omega)n(\omega)^3 c^4} \\ &\times I(\omega)^3 L^2 \sinh^2[\Delta k L/2], \end{aligned} \quad (72.40)$$

where $I(\omega)$ is the input intensity of the fundamental field. As a result of the typically small value of $\chi_{\text{eff}}^{(3)}$ in crystals, it is generally more efficient to generate the third harmonic by using two $\chi^{(2)}$ crystals in which the first crystal produces second harmonic light and the second crystal combines the second harmonic and the fundamental beams via sum-frequency generation. It is also possible to use resonant enhancement of $|\chi^{(3)}|$ in gases to increase the efficiency of third-harmonic generation [72.8].

72.4.2 Self-Phase and Cross-Phase Modulation

The nonlinear refractive index leads to an intensity-dependent change in the phase of the beam as it propagates through the material. If the medium is lossless, the amplitude of a single beam at frequency ω propagating in the positive z -direction can be expressed as

$$A(z, \omega) = A(0, \omega) e^{i\phi^{\text{NL}}(z)}, \quad (72.41)$$

where the nonlinear phase shift $\phi^{\text{NL}}(z)$ is given by

$$\phi^{\text{NL}}(z) = \frac{\omega}{c} n_2 I z, \quad (72.42)$$

and $I = [4\pi\varepsilon_0] n_0 c |A(0, \omega)|^2 / 2\pi$ is the intensity of the laser beam. If two fields at different frequencies ω_1 and ω_2 are traveling along the z -axis, the two fields can affect each other's phase; this effect is known as cross-phase modulation. The nonlinear phase shift $\phi_{1,2}^{\text{NL}}(z)$ for each of the waves is given by

$$\phi_{1,2}^{\text{NL}}(z) = \frac{\omega_{1,2}}{c} n_2 (I_{1,2} + 2I_{2,1}) z. \quad (72.43)$$

For the case of a light pulse, the change in the phase of the pulse inside the medium becomes a function of time. In this case the solution to (72.33) for the time-varying amplitude $A(z, \tau)$ shows that in the absence of group-velocity dispersion (GVD) (i.e., $\beta_2 = 0$) that the solution for $A(z, \tau)$ is of the form of (72.41), except that the temporal intensity profile $I(\tau)$ replaces the steady-state intensity I in (72.42). As the pulse propagates through the medium, its frequency becomes time dependent, and the instantaneous frequency shift from the central frequency ω_0 is given by

$$\delta\omega(\tau) = -\frac{\partial\phi^{\text{NL}}(\tau)}{\partial\tau} = -\frac{\omega n_2 z}{c} \frac{\partial I}{\partial t}. \quad (72.44)$$

This time-dependent self-phase modulation leads to a broadening of the pulse spectrum and to a frequency chirp across the pulse.

If the group velocity dispersion parameter β_2 and the nonlinear refractive index coefficient n_2 are of opposite sign, the nonlinear frequency chirp can be compensated by the chirp due to group velocity dispersion, and (72.33) admits soliton solutions. For example, the fundamental soliton solution is

$$A(z, t) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{L_D}} \operatorname{sech}\left(\frac{\tau}{\tau_p}\right) e^{iz/2L_D}, \quad (72.45)$$

where τ_p is the pulse duration and $L_D = \tau_p^2/|\beta_2|$ is the dispersion length. As a result of their ability to propagate in dispersive media without changing shape, optical solitons show a great deal of promise in applications such as optical communications and optical switching. For further discussion of optical solitons see [72.9].

72.4.3 Four-Wave Mixing

Various types of four-wave mixing processes can occur among different beams. One of the most common geometries is backward four-wave mixing used in nonlinear spectroscopy and optical phase conjugation. In this interaction, two strong counterpropagating pump waves with amplitudes A_1 and A_2 and with equal frequencies $\omega_{1,2} = \omega$ are injected into a nonlinear medium. A weak wave, termed the probe wave, (with frequency ω_3 and amplitude A_3) is also incident on the medium. As a result of the nonlinear interaction among the three waves, a fourth wave with an amplitude A_4 is generated which is counterpropagating with respect to the probe wave and with frequency $\omega_4 = 2\omega - \omega_3$. For this case, the third-order nonlinear susceptibilities for the probe and conjugate waves are given by $\chi^{(3)}(\omega_{3,4}; \omega, \omega, -\omega_{4,3})$. For constant pump wave intensities and full permutation symmetry, the amplitudes of the nonlinear polarization for the probe and conjugate waves are given by

$$\mathcal{P}^{\text{NL}}(z, \omega_{3,4}) = \pm[\varepsilon_0]6\chi^{(3)}\left[(|A_1|^2 + |A_2|^2)A_{3,4} + A_1A_2A_{4,3}^* e^{i\Delta kz} \right], \quad (72.46)$$

where $\Delta k = k_1 + k_2 - k_3 - k_4$ is the phase mismatch, which is nonvanishing when $\omega_3 \neq \omega_4$. For the case of optical phase conjugation by degenerate four-wave mixing (i. e., $\omega_3 = \omega_4 = \omega$ and $A_4(L) = 0$), the phase conjugate reflectivity R_{PC} is

$$R_{\text{PC}} = \frac{|A_4(0)|^2}{|A_3(0)|^2} = \tan^2(\kappa L), \quad (72.47)$$

where $\kappa = [1/16\pi^2\varepsilon_0][24\pi^2\omega\chi^{(3)}]/(n_0c)^2\sqrt{T_1T_2}$ and $I_{1,2}$ are the intensities of the pump waves. Phase-

conjugate reflectivities greater than unity can be routinely achieved by performing four-wave mixing in atomic vapors or photorefractive media.

72.4.4 Self-Focusing and Self-Trapping

Typically a laser beam has a transverse intensity profile that is approximately Gaussian. In a medium with an intensity-dependent refractive index, the index change at the center of the beam is different from the index change at the edges of the beam. The gradient in the refractive index created by the beam can allow it to self-focus for $n_2 > 0$. For this condition to be met, the total input power of the beam must exceed the critical power P_{cr} for self-focusing which is given by

$$P_{\text{cr}} = \frac{\pi(0.61\lambda)^2}{8n_0n_2}, \quad (72.48)$$

where λ is the vacuum wavelength of the beam. For powers much greater than the critical power, the beam can break up into various filaments, each with a power approximately equal to the critical power. For a more extensive discussion of self-focusing and self-trapping see [72.10, 11].

72.4.5 Saturable Absorption

When the frequency ω of an applied laser field is sufficiently close to a resonance frequency ω_0 of the medium, an appreciable fraction of the atomic population can be placed in the excited state. This loss of population from the ground state leads to an intensity-dependent saturation of the absorption and the refractive index of the medium (see Sect. 69.2 for more detailed discussion) [72.4]. The third-order susceptibility as a result of this saturation is given by

$$\chi^{(3)} = \left[\frac{1}{\varepsilon_0} \right] \frac{|\mu|^2 T_1 T_2 \alpha_0 c}{3\pi\omega_0 \hbar^2} \frac{\delta T_2 - i}{[1 + (\delta T_2)^2]^2}, \quad (72.49)$$

where μ is the transition dipole moment, T_1 and T_2 are the longitudinal and transverse relaxation times, respectively (see Sect. 68.4.3), α_0 is the line-center weak-field intensity absorption coefficient, and $\delta = \omega - \omega_0$ is the detuning. For the $3s \leftrightarrow 3p$ transition in atomic sodium vapor at 300°C , the nonlinear refractive index $n_2 \approx 10^{-7} \text{ cm}^2/\text{W}$ for a detuning $\delta T_2 = 300$.

72.4.6 Two-Photon Absorption

When the frequency ω of a laser field is such that 2ω is close to a transition frequency of the material, it is

possible for two-photon absorption (TPA) to occur. This process leads to a contribution to the imaginary part of $\chi^{(3)}(\omega; \omega, \omega, -\omega)$. In the presence of TPA, the intensity $I(z)$ of a single, linearly polarized beam as a function of propagation distance is

$$I(z) = \frac{I(0)}{1 + \beta I(0)z}, \quad (72.50)$$

where $\beta = [1/16\pi^2\epsilon_0]24\pi^2\omega \text{Im}[\chi^{(3)}]/(n_0c)^2$ is the TPA coefficient. For wide-gap semiconductors such as ZnSe at 800 nm, $\beta \approx 10^{-8}$ cm/W.

72.4.7 Nonlinear Ellipse Rotation

The polarization ellipse of an elliptically polarized laser beam rotates but retains its ellipticity as the beam propagates through an isotropic nonlinear medium. Ellipse

rotation occurs as a result of the difference in the nonlinear index changes experienced by the left- and right-circular components of the beam, and the angle θ of rotation is

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= \frac{1}{2} \Delta n \omega z / c \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{16\pi^2\epsilon_0} \right] \frac{12\pi^2}{n_0^2 c} \chi_{xyyx}^{(3)} \\ &\quad \times (\omega; \omega, \omega, -\omega)(I_+ - I_-)z, \end{aligned} \quad (72.51)$$

where I_{\pm} are the intensities of the circularly polarized components of the beam with unit vectors $\hat{\sigma}_{\pm} = (\hat{x} \pm i\hat{y})/\sqrt{2}$. Nonlinear ellipse rotation is a sensitive technique for determining the nonlinear susceptibility element $\chi_{xyyx}^{(3)}$ for isotropic media and can be used in applications such as optical switching.

72.5 Stimulated Light Scattering

Stimulated light scattering occurs as a result of changes in the optical properties of the material that are induced by the optical field. The resulting nonlinear coupling between different field components is mediated by some excitation (e.g., acoustic phonon) of the material that results in changes in its optical properties. The nonlinearity can be described by a complex susceptibility and a nonlinear polarization that is of third order in the interacting fields. Various types of stimulated scattering can occur. Discussed below are the two processes that are most commonly observed.

72.5.1 Stimulated Raman Scattering

In stimulated Raman scattering (SRS), the light field interacts with a vibrational mode of a molecule. The coupling between the two optical waves can become strong if the frequency difference between them is close to the frequency ω_v of the molecular vibrational mode. If the pump field at ω_0 and another field component at ω_1 are propagating in the same direction along the z -axis, the steady-state nonlinear polarization amplitudes for the two field components are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}^{\text{NL}}(z, \omega_{0,1}) &= [\epsilon_0]6\chi_{\text{R}}(\omega_{0,1}) \\ &\quad \times |A(z, \omega_{1,0})|^2 A(z, \omega_{0,1}), \end{aligned} \quad (72.52)$$

where $\chi_{\text{R}}(\omega_{0,1}) \equiv \chi^{(3)}(\omega_{0,1}; \omega_{0,1}, \omega_{1,0}, -\omega_{1,0})$, the Raman susceptibility, actually depends only on the fre-

quency difference $\Omega = \omega_0 - \omega_1$ and is given by

$$\chi_{\text{R}}(\omega_{0,1}) = \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \right] \frac{N(\partial\alpha/\partial q)_0^2}{6\mu_M} \frac{1}{\omega_v^2 - \Omega^2 \mp 2i\gamma\Omega}, \quad (72.53)$$

where the minus (plus) sign is taken for the ω_0 (ω_1) susceptibility, μ_M is the reduced nuclear mass, and $(\partial\alpha/\partial q)_0$ is a measure of the change of the polarizability of the molecule with respect to a change in the intermolecular distance q at equilibrium. If the intensity of the pump field is undepleted by the interaction with the ω_1 field and is assumed to be constant, the solution for the intensity of the ω_1 field at $z = L$ is given by

$$I(L, \omega_1) = I(0, \omega_1) e^{G_{\text{R}}}, \quad (72.54)$$

where the SRS gain parameter G_{R} is

$$\begin{aligned} G_{\text{R}} &= \left[\frac{1}{16\pi^2\epsilon_0} \right] 48\pi^2 \frac{\omega_1}{(n_1c)^2} \text{Im}[\chi_{\text{R}}(\omega_1)] I_0 L \\ &= g_{\text{R}} I_0 L, \end{aligned} \quad (72.55)$$

g_{R} is the SRS gain factor, and I_0 is the input intensity of the pump field. For $\omega_1 < \omega_0$ ($\omega_1 > \omega_0$), the ω_1 field is termed the Stokes (anti-Stokes) field, and it experiences exponential amplification (attenuation). For sufficiently large gains (typically $G_{\text{R}} \gtrsim 25$), the Stokes wave can be seeded by spontaneous Raman scattering and can grow to an appreciable fraction of the pump field. For a complete discussion of the sponta-

neous initiation of SRS see [72.12]. For the case of CS₂, $g_R = 0.024$ cm/MW.

Four-wave mixing processes that couple a Stokes wave having $\omega_1 < \omega_0$ and an anti-Stokes wave having $\omega_2 > \omega_0$, where $\omega_1 + \omega_2 = 2\omega_0$, can also occur [72.4]. In this case, additional contributions to the nonlinear polarization are present and are characterized by a Raman susceptibility of the form $\chi^{(3)}(\omega_{1,2}; \omega_0, \omega_0, -\omega_{2,1})$. The technique of coherent anti-Stokes Raman spectroscopy is based on this four-wave mixing process [72.13].

72.5.2 Stimulated Brillouin Scattering

In stimulated Brillouin scattering (SBS), the light field induces and interacts with an acoustic wave inside the medium. The resulting interaction can lead to extremely high amplification for certain field components (i. e., Stokes wave). For many optical media, SBS is the dominant nonlinear optical process for laser pulses of duration > 1 ns. The primary applications for SBS are self-pumped phase conjugation and pulse compression of high-energy laser pulses.

If an incident light wave with wave vector \mathbf{k}_0 and frequency ω_0 is scattered from an acoustic wave with wave vector \mathbf{q} and frequency Ω , the wave vector and frequency of the scattered wave are determined by conservation of momentum and energy to be $\mathbf{k}_1 = \mathbf{k}_0 \pm \mathbf{q}$ and $\omega_1 = \omega_0 \pm \Omega$, where the (+) sign applies if $\mathbf{k}_0 \cdot \mathbf{q} > 0$ and the (-) applies if $\mathbf{k}_0 \cdot \mathbf{q} < 0$. Here, Ω and \mathbf{q} are related by the dispersion relation $\Omega = v|\mathbf{q}|$ where v is the velocity of sound in the material. These Bragg scattering conditions lead to the result that the Brillouin frequency shift $\Omega_B = \omega_1 - \omega_0$ is zero for scattering in the forward direction (i. e., in the \mathbf{k}_0 direction) and reaches its maximum for scattering in the backward direction given by

$$\Omega_B = 2\omega_0 v n_0 / c, \quad (72.56)$$

where n_0 is the refractive index of the material.

The interaction between the incident wave and the scattered wave in the Brillouin-active medium can become nonlinear if the interference between the two optical fields can coherently drive an acoustic wave, either through electrostriction or through local density fluctuations resulting from the absorption of light and consequent temperature changes. The following discussion treats the more common electrostriction mechanism.

Typically, SBS occurs in the backward direction (i. e., $\mathbf{k}_0 = k_0 \hat{z}$ and $\mathbf{k}_1 = -k_1 \hat{z}$), since the spatial overlap

between the Stokes beam and the laser beam is maximized under these conditions and, as mentioned above, no SBS occurs in the forward direction. The steady-state nonlinear polarization amplitudes for backward SBS are

$$\mathcal{P}^{\text{NL}}(z, \omega_{0,1}) = [\varepsilon_0] 6\chi_B(\omega_{0,1}) \times |A(z, \omega_{1,0})|^2 A(z, \omega_{0,1}), \quad (72.57)$$

where $\chi_B(\omega_{0,1}) \equiv \chi^{(3)}(\omega_{0,1}; \omega_{0,1}, \omega_{1,0}, -\omega_{1,0})$, the Brillouin susceptibility, depends only on $\Omega = \omega_0 - \omega_1$ and is given by

$$\chi_B(\omega_{0,1}) = \left[\frac{1}{\varepsilon_0} \right] \frac{\omega_0^2 \gamma_e^2}{24\pi^2 c^2 \rho_0} \frac{1}{\Omega_B^2 - \Omega^2 \mp i\Gamma_B \Omega}, \quad (72.58)$$

where the minus (plus) sign is taken for the ω_0 (ω_1) susceptibility, γ_e is the electrostrictive constant, ρ_0 is the mean density of the material, and Γ_B is the Brillouin linewidth given by the inverse of the phonon lifetime. If the pump field is undepleted by the interaction with the ω_1 field and is assumed to be constant, the solution for the output intensity of the ω_1 field at $z = 0$ is given by

$$I(0, \omega_1) = I(L, \omega_1) e^{G_B}, \quad (72.59)$$

where the Brillouin gain coefficient G_B is given by

$$\begin{aligned} G_B &= \left[\frac{1}{16\pi^2 \varepsilon_0} \right] 48\pi^2 \frac{\omega_1}{(n_0 c)^2} \text{Im}[\chi_B(\omega_1)] I_0 L, \\ &= g_0 \frac{\Omega \Omega_B \Gamma_B^2}{[\Omega_B^2 - \Omega^2]^2 + (\Omega \Gamma_B)^2} I_0 L \\ &= g_B I_0 L, \end{aligned} \quad (72.60)$$

g_B is the SBS gain factor, I_0 is the input intensity of the pump field, and

$$g_0 = \left[\frac{1}{\varepsilon_0^2} \right] \frac{\omega_0^2 \gamma_e^2}{n_0 c^3 \rho_0 v \Gamma_B} \quad (72.61)$$

is the line-center (i. e., $\Omega = \pm \Omega_B$) SBS gain factor. For $\Omega > 0$ ($\Omega < 0$), the ω_1 field is termed the Stokes (anti-Stokes) field, and it experiences exponential amplification (attenuation). For sufficiently large gains (typically $G_B \gtrsim 25$), the Stokes wave can be seeded by spontaneous Brillouin scattering and can grow to an appreciable fraction of the pump field. For a complete discussion of the spontaneous initiation of SBS see [72.14]. For CS₂, $g_0 = 0.15$ cm/MW.

72.6 Other Nonlinear Optical Processes

72.6.1 High-Order Harmonic Generation

If full permutation symmetry applies and the fundamental field ω is not depleted by nonlinear interactions, then the intensity of the q th harmonic is given by

$$I(z, q\omega) = \left[\frac{1}{4\pi(4\pi\epsilon_0)^{(q-1)/2}} \right] \times \frac{2\pi q^2 \omega^2}{n^2(q\omega)c} \left[\frac{2\pi I(\omega)}{n(\omega)c} \right]^q \times |\chi^{(q)}(q\omega; \omega, \dots, \omega) J_q(\Delta k, z_0, z)|^2, \quad (72.62)$$

where $\Delta k = [n(\omega) - n(q\omega)]\omega/c$,

$$J_q(\Delta k, z_0, z) = \int_{z_0}^z \frac{e^{i\Delta k z'} dz'}{(1 + 2iz'/b)^{q-1}}, \quad (72.63)$$

$z = z_0$ at the input face of the nonlinear medium, and b is the confocal parameter Sect. 72.3.5 of the fundamental beam. Defining $L = z - z_0$, the integral J_q can be easily evaluated in the limits $L \ll b$ and $L \gg b$. The limit $L \ll b$ corresponds to the plane-wave limit in which case

$$|J_q(\Delta k, z_0, z)|^2 = L^2 \text{sinc}^2 \left(\frac{\Delta k L}{2} \right). \quad (72.64)$$

The limit $L \gg b$ corresponds to the tight-focusing configuration in which case

$$J_q(\Delta k, z_0, z) = \begin{cases} 0, & \Delta k \leq 0, \\ \frac{\pi b}{(q-2)!} \left(\frac{b\Delta k}{2} \right)^{q-2} e^{-b\Delta k/2}, & \Delta k > 0. \end{cases} \quad (72.65)$$

Note that in this limit, the q th harmonic light is only generated for positive phase mismatch. *Reintjes et al.* [72.15, 16] observed both the fifth and seventh harmonics in helium gas which exhibited a dependence on $I(\omega)$ which is consistent with the $I^q(\omega)$ dependence predicted by (72.62). However, more recent experiments in gas jets have demonstrated the generation of extremely high-order harmonics which do not depend on the intensity in this simple manner (see Chapt. 74 for further discussion of this nonperturbative behavior).

72.6.2 Electro-Optic Effect

The electro-optic effect corresponds to the limit in which the frequency of one of the applied fields approaches zero. The linear electro-optic effect (or Pockels effect) can be described by a second-order susceptibility of the form $\chi^{(2)}(\omega; \omega, 0)$. This effect produces a change in the refractive index for light of certain polarizations which depends linearly on the strength of the applied low-frequency field. More generally, the linear electro-optic effect induces a change in the amount of birefringence present in an optical material. This electrically controllable change in birefringence can be used to construct amplitude modulators, frequency shifters, optical shutters, and other optoelectronic devices. Materials commonly used in such devices include KDP and lithium niobate [72.17]. If the laser beam is propagating along the optic axis (i.e., z -axis) of the material of length L and the low-frequency field E_z is also applied along the optic axis, the nonlinear index change $\Delta n = n_y - n_x$ between the components of the electric field polarized along the principal axes of the crystal is given by

$$\Delta n = \left[\frac{1}{4\pi} \right] n_0^3 r_{63} E_z \quad (72.66)$$

where r_{63} is one of the electro-optic coefficients.

The quadratic electro-optic effect produces a change in refractive index that scales quadratically with the applied dc electric field. This effect can be described by a third-order susceptibility of the form $\chi^{(3)}(\omega; \omega, 0, 0)$.

72.6.3 Photorefractive Effect

The photorefractive effect leads to an optically induced change in the refractive index of a material. In certain ways this effect mimics that of the nonlinear refractive index described in Sect. 72.1.2, but it differs from the nonlinear refractive index in that the change in refractive index is independent of the overall intensity of the incident light field, and depends only on the degree of spatial modulation of the light field within the nonlinear material. In addition, the photorefractive effect can occur only in materials that exhibit a linear electro-optic effect, and contain an appreciable density of trapped electrons and/or holes that can be liberated by the application of a light field. Typical photorefractive materials include lithium niobate, barium titanate, and strontium barium niobate.

A typical photorefractive configuration might be as follows: two beams interfere within a photorefractive crystal to produce a spatially modulated intensity distribution. Bound charges are ionized with greater probability at the maxima than at the minima of the distribution and, as a result of the diffusion process, carriers tend to migrate away from regions of large light intensity. The resulting modulation of the charge distribution leads to the creation of a spatially modulated electric field that produces a spatially modulated change in refractive index as a consequence of the linear electro-optic effect. For a more extensive discussion see [72.18].

72.6.4 Ultrafast and Intense-Field Nonlinear Optics

Additional nonlinear optical processes are enabled by the use of ultrashort (< 1 ps) or ultra-intense laser pulses. For reasons of basic laser physics, ultra-intense pulses are necessarily of short duration, and thus these effects normally occur together. Ultrashort laser pulses possess a broad frequency spectrum, and therefore the dispersive properties of the optical medium play a key role in the propagation of such pulses. The three-dimensional nonlinear Schrödinger equation must be modified when treating the propagation of these ultrashort pulses by including contributions that can be ignored under other circumstances [72.19,20]. These additional terms lead to processes such as space-time coupling, self-steepening, and shock wave formation [72.21,22]. The process of self-focusing is significantly modified under short-pulse (pulse duration shorter than approximately 1 ps) excitation. For example, temporal splitting of a pulse into two components can occur; this pulse splitting lowers the peak intensity, and can lead to the arrest of the usual

collapse of a pulse undergoing self-focusing [72.23]. Moreover, optical shock formation, the creation of a discontinuity in the intensity evolution of a propagating pulse, leads to supercontinuum generation, the creation of a light pulse with an extremely broad frequency spectrum [72.24]. Shock effects and the generation of supercontinuum light can also occur in one-dimensional systems, such as a microstructure optical fiber. The relatively high peak power of the ultrashort pulses from a mode-locked laser oscillator and the tight confinement of the optical field in the small ($\approx 2 \mu\text{m}$) core of the fiber yield high intensities and strong self-phase modulation, which results in a spectral bandwidth that spans more than an octave of the central frequency of the pulse [72.25]. Such a coherent octave-spanning spectrum allows for the stabilization of the underlying frequency comb of the mode-locked oscillator, and has led to a revolution in the field of frequency metrology [72.26]. Multiphoton absorption [72.27] constitutes an important loss process that becomes important for intensities in excess of $\approx 10^{13} \text{ W/cm}^2$. In addition to introducing loss, the electrons released by this process can produce additional nonlinear effects associated with their relativistic motion in the resulting plasma [72.28,29]. For very large laser intensities (greater than approximately 10^{16} W/cm^2), the electric field strength of the laser pulse can exceed the strength of the Coulomb field that binds the electron to the atomic core, and nonperturbative effects can occur. A dramatic example is that of high-harmonic generation [72.30–32]. Harmonic orders as large as the 341-st have been observed, and simple conceptual models have been developed to explain this effect [72.33]. Under suitable conditions the harmonic orders can be suitably phased so that attosecond pulses are generated [72.34].

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