Normal and anomalous Zeeman effect

Related topics
Quantization of energy levels, Bohr’s atomic model, vector model of atomic states, orbital angular moment, electron spin, Bohr’s magneton, interference of electromagnetic waves, Fabry-Perot interferometer.

Principle
The “Zeeman effect” is the energy shift of atomic states caused by an magnetic field. This shift is due to the coupling of the electron orbital angular momentum to the external magnetic field. The normal Zeeman effect occurs when there is no spin magnetic moment – states with zero spin are necessary. In singulett systems the spins of the electrons cancel each other i.e. add up to zero. The energy shift of the atomic states in an outer magnetic field can be observed by the wavelength shift of the radiation emitted in atomic transitions between these states. Generally there is not only a magnetic moment of the orbit of an electron state, but also a magnetic moment of the electron spin. This leads to a more complicated behaviour of the atomic states in an outer magnetic field. This is called anomalous Zeeman Effect and can be observed in atomic transitions where non-singulett states are involved.

Equipment

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*For classical version of the Zeeman Effect (P2511001), alternative to CDC-Camera incl. measurement software:

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screen, with aperture and scale</td>
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Fig.1a: Experimental set-up
Normal and anomalous Zeeman effect

Tasks
1a. Normal Zeeman effect: Transversal and longitudinal observation of the splitting of the red 643.847 nm Cd-line in the magnetic field showing the normal Zeeman effect.
1b. Anomalous Zeeman effect: Transversal and longitudinal observation of the splitting of the green 508.588 nm Cd-line in the magnetic field showing the anomalous Zeeman effect.

2. Observation of the effect of polarization filter and polarization filter combined with $\lambda/4$ plate for the splitted green and red lines in transversal and longitudinal direction.

3. Measurement of the frequency shift with help of the CCD camera and the supplied measurement software or with the screen with scale and the sliding device in the classical version for both of the above mentioned spectral lines.

Set-up and Procedure

The electromagnet is put on the rotating table for heavy loads and mounted with the two pole-pieces with holes so that a gap large enough for the Cd-lamp (9-11 mm) remains. The pole-pieces have to be tightened well! The Cd-lamp is inserted into the gap without touching the pole-pieces and connected to the power supply for spectral lamps. The coils of the electromagnet are connected in parallel and via an ammeter connected to the variable power supply of up to 20 VDC,12 A. A capacitor of 22 000 μF is in parallel to the power output to smoothen the DC-voltage.

The optical bench for investigation of the line splitting carries the following elements (their approximate position in cm in brackets):

- (80) CDC-Camera
- (73) $L_2 = +50$ mm
- (68) Screen with scale (only in classical version)
- (45) Analyser
- (39) $L_2 = +300$ mm
- (33) Fabry-Perot Étalon
- (25) $L_1 = +50$ mm
- (20) Iris diaphragm
- (20) Drilled pole-pieces
- (0) Cd-spectral lamp on rotating table

Initial adjustment and observation of the longitudinal Zeeman effect is done without the iris diaphragm. During observation of the transverse Zeeman effect the iris diaphragm is illuminated by the Cd-lamp and acts as the light source. The lens $L_1$ and a lens of $f = 100$ mm, incorporated in the étalon, create a nearly parallel light beam which the Fabry-Perot étalon needs for producing a proper interference pattern. For the observation of the normal Zeeman effect the red colour filter is to be inserted in the holder of the étalon. For the observation of the anomalous Zeeman effect the red colour filter is to be removed from the étalon and the 508 nm interference filter is to be attached onto the holder of the +300 mm lens $L_2$ beneath the lens (so that there are less disturbing reflections between Fabry Perot interferometer and interference filter).

The étalon produces an interference pattern of rings which can be observed through the telescope formed by $L_2$ and $L_3$. The ring diameters can be measured using the CCD-camera and the software supplied with it. In the classical version the interference pattern is produced within the plane of the screen with a scale mounted on a slide mount which can laterally be displaced with a precision of 1/100th mm. The measurement here can be done by displacing the slash representing the “0” of the scale.

![Fig.1b: Set-up for the classical version of the experiment.](image)

![Fig.2: Arrangement of the optical components.](image)
Initial adjustment: The rotating table is adjusted so that the centres of the holes in the pole-pieces lie about 28 cm above the table. The optical bench with all elements (except iris diaphragm and CCD-camera) mounted, is then moved closer to the electromagnet so that one of the outlet holes of the pole-pieces coincides with the previous position of the iris diaphragm. $L_1$ is then adjusted so that the outlet hole is within its focal plane. All other optical elements of Fig. 2 are subsequently readjusted with respect to their height.

The current of the coils is set to 5 A (increase in light intensity can be observed through the eye). The splitting of the étalon (to the right or to the left) and by displacement of $L_2$ (vertically and horizontally) and of $L_3$.

Finally the CCD-camera is focused so that far away things are clear and mounted to the optical bench and adjusted in horizontal and vertical position as well as in tilt until a clear picture of the ring pattern is visible on the computer screen. For installation and use of the camera and software please refer to the manual supplied with the camera.

In the classical version the screen with scale is shifted in a way that the slash representing the „0“ of the scale is clearly seen coinciding, for instance, with the centre of the fairly bright inner ring. The scale itself must be able to move horizontally along the diameter of the ring pattern. (Set-up see Fig. 1b.)

Hint: best results are achieved when the experiment is carried out in a darkened room.

The electromagnet is now turned by 90° and the iris diaphragm is inserted for transversal observation.

Remark: For later evaluations the calibration curve of the magnetic flux density versus the coil current has to be recorded previously. This can be done if a teslameter is available. Otherwise the results of Fig. 3 can be used. The curve of Fig. 3 was recorded by measuring the flux density in the centre of the gap in the absence of the Cd-lamp. For the evaluations these centre-values were increased by 3.5 % to account for the non-uniform flux distribution within the gap.

Theory

As early as 1862, Faraday investigated whether the spectrum of coloured flames changes under the influence of a magnetic field, but without success. It was not until 1885 that Fizeau from Belgium was able to demonstrate an effect, but it was forgotten and only rediscovered 11 years later by the Dutchman Zeeman, who studied it together with Lorentz.

Here the effect is demonstrated with the light of a Cadmium lamp and the help of a Fabry-Perot interferometer for resolving a small part of the spectrum preselected by a color filter or an interference filter so only the light of a single atomic transition line is observed. Without field the magnetic sub-levels have the same energy but with field the degeneration of the levels with different $m_j$ is cancelled and the line is split.

Cadmium has the electron structure (Kr) 4d$^{10}$ 5s$^2$, i.e. the outer shell taking part in optical transitions is composed by the two 5s$^2$ electrons that represent a completed electron shell. $((Kr) = 1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6)$. This is similar to the outer electron structure of Helium but also of Mercury. A scheme of the energy levels of Cd is shown in Fig. 4. In a completed shell in its ground state the electron spins always compensate each other - they are anti-parallel. If the total electron spin is zero, also the magnetic moment connected to electron spin is zero. Atomic states with zero total spin are called singulet states. So in transitions between different singulet states the magnetic moment of spin does not play a role, as is the case with the non-zeeman effect. Electric dipole radiation as in common optical transitions does not change the electron spin except in heavy atoms with $jj$-coupling, so transitions are normally between different states in the same multiplicity system. But Fig. 4 shows there is some $jj$-coupling in Cadmium.

The transition used to demonstrate the normal Zeeman effect is $3^3D_2 \rightarrow 2^1P_1$ with 643.847 nm and the transition used to demonstrate the anomalous Zeeman effect is $2^3S_1 \rightarrow 2^3P_2$ with 508.588 nm.

In a term like $2^3S_1$, the first number "3" denotes the main quantum number of the radiating electron with respect to the atom's ground state (that is counted as "1"), here this is really the 6$^\text{th}$ s-shell since 5s$^2$ is the ground state. (This is why the 2$^1P_1$ - states are below the 2$^1S_0$ - states, $2^3P_2$ denotes the 5$^\text{th}$ p-shell since Krypton has 4p$^5$). The upper "3" denotes the multiplicity, that is $2s+1$ with $s$ here the spin quantum number. The lower "1" denotes the quantum number $j$ of the total angular momentum, i.e. $j = l+s$ for the normal transition $2^1S_0 \rightarrow 2^1P_1$ is a transition within the singulet system so the spin magnetic moments have no effect. But in the transition $2^3S_1 \rightarrow 2^3P_2$ triplet states are involved and the spin magnetic moment does not vanish in all sub-states.

The selection rule for optical transitions is $\Delta l = 0, \pm 1$ and the radiation belonging to transitions with $\Delta m_l = 0$ are called $\pi$-lines and the ones with $\Delta m_l = \pm 1$ are called $\sigma$-lines. With the magnetic field turned on in the absence of the analyser three lines can be seen simultaneously in the normal Zeeman effect.
in transversal observation. In the case of the anomalous Zeeman effect three groups of three lines appear. Inserting the analyser in the normal Zeeman effect two \( \sigma \)-lines can be observed if the analyser is in the vertical position, while only the \( \pi \)-line appears if the analyser is turned into its horizontal position (transversal Zeeman effect). In the anomalous Zeeman effect there are two groups of three \( \sigma \)-lines in vertical polarization and one group of three \( \pi \)-lines in horizontal polarization. Turning the electromagnet by 90° the light coming from the spectral lamp parallel to the direction of the field (longitudinal) can also be studied through the holes in the pole-pieces. It can be shown that this light is circular polarized light (longitudinal Zeeman effect). Fig. 5 summarizes the facts.

A \( \lambda/4 \)-plate is generally used to convert linear into elliptical polarized light. In this experiment the \( \lambda/4 \)-plate is used in the opposite way. With the \( \lambda/4 \)-plate inserted before the analyser, the light of the longitudinal Zeeman effect is investigated. If the optical axis of the \( \lambda/4 \)-plate coincides with the vertical, it is observed that some rings disappear if the analyser is at an angle of +45° with the vertical while other rings disappear for a position of –45°. That means that the light of the longitudinal Zeeman effect is polarized in a circular (opposed way). The \( \pi \)-lines are longitudinally not observable.

In the normal Zeeman effect with the transition \( 3^1D_2 \rightarrow 2^1P_1 \) with 643.847 nm the electron spins cancel each other in both the initial and final state and the energy of an atomic state in a magnetic field depends only on the magnetic moments of the electron orbit.

The magnetic moment of the orbital angular momentum \( \vec{I} \) is

\[
\vec{\mu}_I = -\frac{e}{2m_e} \vec{I} = -g_I \mu_B \frac{\vec{I}}{\hbar} \quad (\star)
\]

with Bohr’s magneton

\[
\mu_B = \frac{e\hbar}{2m_e} = 9.274 \times 10^{-24} \text{ Am}^2
\]

and the gyromagnetic factor of orbital angular momentum \( g_I = 1 \).

In the vector model of the atom the energy shifts can be calculated. It is assumed, that angular moments and magnetic moments can be handled as vectors. Angular moment and the magnetic moment connected with it are antiparallel because of the negative electron charge. The amount of the orbital magnetic moment of the orbital angular momentum \( \vec{I} \), with quantum number \( l \) such that

\[
|\vec{I}| = \hbar \sqrt{l(l+1)}, \text{ is: } \mu_I = \mu_B \sqrt{l(l+1)}
\]

In case of LS-coupling (Russell-Saunders coupling, spin-orbit coupling) for many electron systems is the amount of the total angular momentum

\[
|\vec{J}| = |\vec{L} + \vec{S}| = \hbar \sqrt{J(J+1)} \quad \text{with } \vec{S} = \sum \vec{s}_i
\]

the sum of the spins of the single electrons and

\[
\vec{L} = \sum \vec{\ell}_i
\]

the sum of the orbital angular moments of the single electrons. Here it is

\[
\vec{S} = 0.
\]

So

\[
|\vec{J}| = |\vec{L}| = \hbar \sqrt{L(L+1)}.
\]
The amount of the component of the corresponding magnetic moment $\vec{\mu}$ in direction of $\vec{J}$ is:

$$|\langle \vec{p} \rangle| = |\vec{p}| = \mu_B \sqrt{L(L + 1)} = g_J \mu_B \sqrt{J(J + 1)}$$

with $g_J = 1$.

Observable is only the projection of the magnetic moment on $\vec{J}$

$$\langle \vec{p} \rangle = -g_J \mu_B \frac{J}{h}$$

with its quantization with respect to $z$-axis

$$\langle \vec{p} \rangle = -m_J g_J \mu_B$$

with the magnetic quantization number $m_J$ with $m_J = J$, $J-1$, $\ldots$, $-J$.

The interaction energy with the outer magnetic field $B_0$ along the $z$-axis is then

$$V = -m_J g_J \mu_B B_0.$$

Here the used transition for the normal Zeeman effect is $3 \text{D}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{P}_1$.

So in the initial state is $L = 2$, $S = 0$ and $J = 2$. $m_J$ may have the values $m_J = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2$. The gyromagnetic factor is $g_J = 1$ and the energy difference between two neighboring sub-states of the initial state is then $\Delta E = -1 \mu_B B_0$.

In the final state is $L = 1$, $S = 0$ and $J = 1$. $m_J$ may have the values $m_J = -1, 0, 1$. The gyromagnetic factor is $g_J = 1$ and the energy difference between two neighbouring sub-states of the final state is then $\Delta E = -1 \mu_B B_0$, too, i.e. for transitions with the same $\Delta m_J$ between initial and final state the energy shift is for initial and final state the same – so they have altogether the same frequency.

Fig. 6 shows the resulting transition diagram.

For electrical dipole the selection rule states $\Delta m_J = 1, 0, -1$.

The energy shift of a transition between initial state with $m_{J_i}$ and $g_{J_i}$ and final state with $m_{J_f}$ and $g_{J_f}$ is then

$$V = \pm \frac{m_{J_i} g_i - m_{J_f} g_f}{2} \mu_B B_0.$$

and here the $(m_{J_i} g_i - m_{J_f} g_f)$-values are simply equal to $\Delta m_J$. So in case of LS-coupling in the normal Zeeman effect three equidistant lines are expected in this transition with a distance in frequency or wave number proportional to the magnetic field strength. The polarization of the transitions with $\Delta m_J = 0$ in transversal observation is parallel to the magnetic field (here horizontal) and of the other transitions the polarization is perpendicular to that.

The anomalous Zeeman effect is the more general case where the electron spins do not cancel each other and the energy of an atomic state in a magnetic field depends on both the magnetic moments of electron orbit and electron spin.

The magnetic moment of the orbital angular momentum $\vec{T}$ is as above (see (*)) and the magnetic moment of the spin $\vec{s}$ is

$$\vec{p} = -\frac{e}{2m_e} \vec{s} = -g_s \mu_B \frac{\vec{s}}{h}$$

with the gyromagnetic factor of orbital angular momentum $g_s = 2.0023$.

Additional to the orbital magnetic moment of the orbital angular momentum $\vec{T}$ the amount of the spin magnetic moment of the spin $\vec{s}$, with quantum number $s$ such that

$$|\vec{s}| = h \sqrt{s(s + 1)},$$

has to be taken into account:

$$\mu_s = -g_s \mu_B \sqrt{s(s + 1)}.$$

In case of LS-coupling (Russel-Saunders coupling, spin-orbit coupling) for many electron systems the amount of the total angular momentum is

$$|\vec{J}| = |\vec{L} + \vec{s}| = \hbar \sqrt{J(J + 1)}$$

with $\vec{s} = \sum \vec{S}_i$ the sum of the spins of the single electrons and

$$\vec{J} = \sum \vec{J}_i$$

the sum of the orbit angular moments of the single electrons.

In the vector model it is assumed, that angular moments and both spin and orbital magnetic moments can be handled as vectors. So the cosine rule applies for the sum of two vectors with an angle between them. The amount of the component of the corresponding magnetic moment $\mu_J$ in direction of $\vec{J}$ is with the approximation $g_s \approx 2:

$$|\langle \vec{p} \rangle| = |\langle \vec{p} \rangle| \cos (\vec{L}, \vec{J}) + |\langle \vec{s} \rangle| \cos (\vec{S}, \vec{J})$$

$$= \mu_B \left( \sqrt{L(L + 1)} \cos (\vec{L}, \vec{J}) + 2 \sqrt{S(S + 1)} \cos (\vec{S}, \vec{J}) \right).$$

with

$$g_i = 1 + \frac{J(J + 1) + S(S + 1) - L(L + 1)}{2J(J + 1)}.$$

Fig. 6: Energy shift of the atomic states
Normal and anomalous Zeeman effect

Observable is only the projection of the magnetic moment on $\vec{J}$

$$(\vec{H}_0)_\perp = -g_J \mu_B \frac{\vec{J}}{\hbar}$$

with its quantization with respect to $z$-axis

$$(\vec{H}_0)_\parallel = -m_J g_S \mu_B$$

with the magnetic quantization number $m_J$ with $m_J = J$, $J-1$, ..., $-J$

The interaction energy with the outer magnetic field $B_0$ along the $z$-axis is then

$$V_{m_J} = -m_J g_S \mu_B B_0.$$  

Here for the **anomalous Zeeman effect** the used transition is $2^3S_1 \rightarrow 2^3P_2$.

So in the initial state is $L = 0$, $S = 1/2 + 1/2 = 1$ and $J = 1 + 0 = 1$. $m_J$ may have the values $m_J = -1$, $0$, $1$. The gyromagnetic factor is

$$g_S = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{(1+1)-(0+1)}{1(1+1)} = 2$$

and the energy difference between neighbouring sub-states of the initial state is then

$$\Delta E = -2 \mu_B B_0.$$  

In the final state is $L = 1$, $S = 1$ and $J = 2$. $m_J$ may have the values $m_J = -2$, $-1$, $0$, $1$, $2$. The magnetic factor is

$$g_S = 1 + \frac{2}{2} \frac{(2+1)-(1+1)}{2(2+1)} = \frac{3}{2}$$

and the energy difference between neighboured sub-states of the final state is then

$$\Delta E = - \frac{3}{2} \mu_B B_0.$$  

Fig. 7 shows the resulting transition diagram.

For electrical dipole transitions the selection rule states $\Delta m_J = 1, 0, -1$.

The energy shift of a transition between initial state with $m_{J_i}$ and $g_{J_i}$ and final state with $m_{J_f}$ and $g_{J_f}$ is then

$$V_{m_{J_i} g_{J_i} m_{J_f} g_{J_f}} = (m_{J_i} g_{J_i} - m_{J_f} g_{J_f}) \mu_B B_0$$

The following table shows the energy shifts of the transitions:

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<thead>
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<th>No.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta m_J$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$m_{J_i} g_{J_i} m_{J_f} g_{J_f}$</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-3/2</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-1/2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So in case of LS-coupling in the anomalous Zeeman effect nine equidistant lines are expected in this transition instead of three without spin magnetism. The polarization of the transitions with $\Delta m_J = 0$ in transversal observation is parallel to the magnetic field (here horizontal) and the polarization of the other transitions is perpendicular to the magnetic field.

At observing the $\nu$-lines of the transversal Zeeman effect it is easy to see that the amount of splitting increases with increasing magnetic field strength. For a quantitative measurement of this splitting in terms of number of wavelengths, a Fabry-Perot interferometer is used, the functioning of which has to be explained:

The Fabry-Perot étalon has a resolution of approximately 400000. That means that a wavelength change of less then 0.002 nm can still be detected.

The étalon consists of a quartz glass plate of 3 mm thickness coated on both sides with a partially reflecting layer (90 % reflection, 10 % transmission). Let us consider the two partially transmitting surfaces (1) and (2) in Fig.8 seperated by a distance $t$. An incoming ray forming an angle with the plate normal will be split into the rays AB, CD, EF, etc. the path difference between the wave fronts of two adjacent rays (e.g. AB and CD) is

$$\delta = \mu \cdot (BC + CK)$$

where BK is defined normal to CD and $\mu$ is the refractive index of quartz at 509 nm, $\mu = 1.4519$. At 644 nm is $\mu = 1.4560$. With

$$BC \cdot \cos \theta = t$$

and

![Fig. 8: Reflected and transmitted rays at the parallel surfaces (1) and (2) of the étalon. The étalon spacing is $t = 3$ mm.](image-url)
we obtain
\[ \delta = \mu \cdot BCK = \mu \cdot BC(1 + \cos 2\theta) = 2\mu \cdot BC \cos^2 \theta = 2\mu \cdot t \cdot \cos \theta \]
and for a constructive interference it is:
\[ n\lambda = 2\mu \cdot t \cdot \cos \theta \]
where \( n \) is an integer and \( \lambda \) the light’s wavelength. Equation (1) is the basic interferometer equation. Let the parallel rays \( B, D, F \), etc. be brought to a focus by the use of a lens of focal length \( f \) as shown in Fig. 9.

![Fig. 9: Focusing of the light emerging from a Fabry-Perot étalon. Light entering the étalon at an angle \( \theta \) is focused onto a ring of radius \( r = f\theta \) where \( f \) is the focal length of the lens.](image)

For \( \theta \) fulfilling equation (1) bright rings will appear in the focal plane with the radius
\[ r_n = f \tan \theta_n = f \theta_n \]
for small values \( \theta_n \), e.g. rays nearly parallel to the optical axis. Since
\[ n = \frac{2\mu \cdot t}{\lambda} \cos \theta_n = n_0 \cos \theta_n = n_0 \left( 1 - 2\sin^2 \frac{\theta_n}{2} \right) \]
with
\[ n_0 = \frac{2\mu \cdot t}{\lambda} \]
we finally obtain
\[ n = n_0 \left( 1 - \frac{\theta_n^2}{2} \right) \]

or
\[ \theta_n = \sqrt{n_0 (n - n_0)} \]

If \( \theta_n \) corresponds to a bright fringe, \( n \) is an integer. However is \( n_0 \), the interference condition for the center (for \( \theta = 0 \)) generally not an integer. If \( n_1 \) is the interference order of the first ring, it is \( n_1 < n_0 \) since
\[ n_1 = n_0 \cos \theta_n \]
We then let
\[ n_1 = n_0 \cdot e; \quad 0 < e < 1 \]
where \( n_1 \) is the closest integer to \( n_0 \) (smaller than \( n_0 \)). In general is for the \( p \)th ring of the pattern, measured starting from the center, the following is valid:
\[ n_p = (n_0 \cdot e) - (n_p - 1) \]

Combining equation (4) with equations (2) and (3), we obtain for the radii of the rings, writing \( r_p \) for \( r_n \),
\[ r_p = \sqrt{\frac{2f^2}{n_0} \cdot \sqrt{(p-1) + e}} \]

We note that the difference between the squares of the radii of adjacent rings is a constant:
\[ r_{p+1}^2 - r_p^2 = \frac{2f^2}{n_0} \]
\( e \) can be determined graphically plotting \( r_p^2 \) versus \( p \) and extrapolating to \( r_p^2 = 0 \). Now, if there are two components of a spectral line (splitting of one central line into two components) with wavelengths \( \lambda_a \) and \( \lambda_b \) which are very close to one another, they will have fractional orders at the center \( e_a \) and \( e_b \):
\[ e_a = \frac{2\mu \cdot t}{\lambda_a} = -n_{1,a} = 2\mu \cdot t \cdot k_a - n_{1,a} \]
\[ e_b = \frac{2\mu \cdot t}{\lambda_b} = -n_{1,b} = 2\mu \cdot t \cdot k_b - n_{1,b} \]

where \( k_a \) and \( k_b \) are the corresponding wave numbers and \( n_{1,a}, n_{1,b} \) is the interference order of the first ring. Hence, if the rings do not overlap by a whole order so \( n_{1,a} = n_{1,b} \) and the difference in wave numbers between the two components is
\[ \Delta k = k_a - k_b = \frac{e_a - e_b}{2\mu \cdot t} \]
Using equations (5) and (6), we get
\[ \frac{r_{p+1,a}^2}{r_{p+1,a}^2 - r_p^2} - p = e_a \]

Applying equation (8) to the components \( a \) and \( b \), yields
\[ \frac{r_{p+1,a}^2}{r_{p+1,a}^2 - r_{p,a}^2} - p = e_a \]

and
\[ \frac{r_{p+1,b}^2}{r_{p+1,b}^2 - r_{p,b}^2} - p = e_b \]

By substituting these fractional orders into equation (7), we get for the difference of the wave numbers:
\[ \Delta k = \frac{1}{2\mu \cdot t} \left( \frac{r_{p+1,a}^2}{r_{p+1,a}^2 - r_p^2} - \frac{r_{p+1,b}^2}{r_{p+1,b}^2 - r_{p,b}^2} \right) \]
From equation (6) we get the difference between the squares of the radii of component \(a\):
\[
\Delta_k^{p+1,p} = r_{p+1,a}^2 - r_{p,a}^2 = \frac{2f^2}{n_{0,a}}
\]
this is equal to (within a very small part) the same difference for component \(b\):
\[
\Delta_k^{p+1,p} = r_{p+1,b}^2 - r_{p,b}^2 = \frac{2f^2}{n_{0,b}}
\]
Hence we assume
\[
\Delta_k^{p+1,p} = \Delta_k^{p+1,p}
\]
for all values of \(p\). Similarly, all values
\[
\delta_{a,b}^{p} = r_{p+1,a}^2 - r_{p+1,b}^2
\]
must be equal, regardless of \(p\) (the order of interference) and their average may be taken as may be done for the different \(\Delta\)-values. With \(\delta\) (the difference of squares of radii of different lines of the same order of interference) and \(\Delta\) (difference of squares of radii of different orders) as average values we get for the difference of the wave numbers of the components \(a\) and \(b\):
\[
\Delta k = \frac{1}{2\mu \cdot t} \cdot \frac{\delta}{\Delta}
\]  
(10)
Note: Equation (10) shows that \(\Delta k\) does not depend on the dimensions used in measuring the radii of the ring system.

Fig.10: Normal Zeeman effect: Interference pattern without polarization filter for no coil current and for 5 A coil current. On the left there is one ring per order of interference, on the right there are three rings per order of interference.

Fig.11: Anomalous Zeeman effect: Interference pattern without polarisation filter and magnified cut-out of the first completely visible two orders of interference.
Normal and anomalous Zeeman effect

Anomalous Zeeman effect: For all these pictures the coil current was set such that the different orders of interference were just still separated. This was the case with 5 A on the magnet coils. In Fig. 11 all the rings are visible but hard to count. In Fig. 12 the middle three rings are visible with \( \Delta n = 0 \). In Fig. 13 the outer and inner three rings with \( \Delta n = \pm 1 \) are visible, that’s six rings making a total of nine rings. The rings seem to be equidistant but not of the same intensity.

Measurement and Evaluation

The radii of the rings have to be measured at different magnetic flux densities. With equation (10) the corresponding difference in wave numbers \( \Delta k \) is then determined. We proceed in two steps: First we take pictures of the ring patterns at different coil currents/magnetic field strengths. Then in a second step the ring diameters in these pictures are measured.

To get a life picture from the camera go to the <File> menu and choose the entry <Capture Window>. In the capture window the settings regarding e.g. contrast, brightness and saturation of the image can be optimised via the menu you get to when choosing <Video Capture Filter> from the <Option> menu.

When satisfied with the image quality and a certain coil current (magnetic field) is established, the picture is captured by choosing <Still Image> from the <Capture> menu. At this stage it is advisable to go to the main window and write the value of the coil current and the polarization at which the picture was taken into it by using the <Text> tool. This prevents a mix-up later on.

Normal Zeeman effect:

The above procedure is repeated using different magnetic fields without polarization filter in transversal observation for coil currents such that the observed ring patterns of different orders do not overlap. Once these pictures have been collected, proceed to measure the radii of the rings choosing...
Normal and anomalous Zeeman effect

From the Measure menu. By moving the mouse across the picture, a circle is drawn. Fit this circle in size and position as good as possible to a ring of interest. You will see that radius, area and perimeter of the circle will be displayed in a little box and in a table below the picture (cf. Fig. 14). What we are mainly interested in is the square of the radius of the circle – so we can use the area data. Note that the units (μm, mm, cm) are of no importance in this experiment, that means no calibration of the camera has to be performed and the factor \( \pi = 3.14159 \ldots \) can be neglected.

All the visible rings may be evaluated, i.e. three rings per order of interference, the middle one of them with unchanged wavelength.

Proceed to draw and fit circles to as many orders of rings as are suitable in the picture, this will give you \( r_{1,a}, r_{1,b}, r_{1,c}, r_{2,a}, r_{2,b}, r_{2,c}, r_{3,a}, r_{3,b}, r_{3,c} \ldots \). Do the same with the other pictures captured. In the classical version without the CCD-camera for each field strength a set of radii of rings is determined in the following way: The slash of the scale „0“ is shifted horizontally along a diameter through the ring pattern until it coincides e.g. with the outer ring of the fourth order to the left into which the fourth ring has split. Always approach from the same side, e.g. from left to right, for correct readings. The first value is denoted. The „0“ slash is then moved from left to right, the next reading taken at the middle ring of the 4th ring system, the next at the inner ring of the 4th ring system and so on until the outer ring on the right of the 4th ring system is reached. The last reading minus the first reading divided by two then provides the radius \( r_{4,c} \) and so on. Using the slide mount, all readings are done in “mm” with a precision of 1/100th of a mm.

In Fig.15 for a given field strength \( \delta \) was calculated from the differences of areas of corresponding rings of different order number and subsequent averaging (e.g. difference of area between middle ring of second order and middle ring of first order) and \( \delta \) was calculated from the differences of ring areas from the regression of the measured values and \( \mu = 1.456 \), \( h = 6.63 \cdot 10^{-34} \) Js, \( c = 2.99 \cdot 10^8 \) m/s, this yields

\[
\frac{\delta}{\Delta B_0} = 0.428 \frac{1}{T}
\]

and

Anomalous Zeeman effect:

The above procedure is repeated without the red colour filter and now using the green interference filter. Capture pictures for different coil current strengths for each horizontal and vertical polarization in transversal observation for coil currents such that the observed ring patterns of different orders do not overlap so much, that the rings of interest can no longer be distinguished, i.e less than 7.5 A for vertical and less than 12 A for horizontal polarization. High currents may not be sent through the coils for a long time since they might heat up! Once these pictures have been taken, proceed to measure the radii of the rings choosing <Circle> from the <Measure> menu. For horizontal polarization the three visible inner rings per order may be evaluated. For vertical polarization the inner two
rings of the set of six rings per order may be evaluated since they are the best visible ones – the other rings are not well separated. Proceed to draw and fit circles to as many orders of rings as are suitable in the picture, this will give you squares of \( r_{1,a}, r_{1,b}, r_{2,a}, r_{2,b}, r_{3,a}, r_{3,b}, \ldots \). Do the same with the other pictures captured. In the classical version without the CCD-camera a set of radii of rings is determined for each field strength value as above for the three inner rings per order in horizontal polarization and the inner rings of the set of six rings per order that appear in vertical polarization.

In Fig. 17 in the horizontal polarization the sizes of the rings of the lines with number 3 and 6 according to Fig. 7 were evaluated. Their energy difference is

\[
\Delta V = 2 \mu_B B_0 = \frac{hc}{2 \mu} \cdot \frac{\delta}{\Delta}
\]

so

\[
\mu_B = \frac{hc}{4 \mu \cdot t \cdot B_0} \cdot \frac{\delta}{\Delta}
\]

with

\[
\frac{\delta}{\Delta B_0} = 0.892 \frac{1}{T}
\]

from the regression of the measured values and \( \mu = 1.452 \), \( h = 6.63 \cdot 10^{-34} \) Js, \( c = 2.99 \cdot 10^8 \) m/s, this yields

\[
\mu_B = 10.1 \cdot 10^{-24} \frac{J}{T}.
\]

In Fig. 17 in the vertical polarization the sizes of the rings of the lines with number 4, 5, 6 according to Fig. 7 were evaluated. Their energy difference is

\[
\Delta V = \frac{1}{2} \mu_B B_0 = \frac{hc}{2 \mu \cdot t} \cdot \frac{\delta}{\Delta}
\]

Fig.17: Measurement results for \( \frac{\delta}{\Delta} \) vs. magnetic field strength

so

\[
\mu_B = \frac{hc}{\mu \cdot t \cdot B_0} \cdot \frac{\delta}{\Delta}
\]

with

\[
\frac{\delta}{\Delta B_0} = 0.172 \frac{1}{T}
\]

from the regression of the measured values and \( \mu = 1.452 \), \( h = 6.63 \cdot 10^{-34} \) Js, \( c = 2.99 \cdot 10^8 \) m/s, this yields

\[
\mu_B = 7.82 \cdot 10^{-24} \frac{J}{T}.
\]

The average of both is \( \mu_B = 8.96 \cdot 10^{-24} \frac{J}{T} \).

The literature value is \( \mu = 9.273 \cdot 10^{-24} \frac{J}{T} \).
Normal and anomalous Zeeman effect