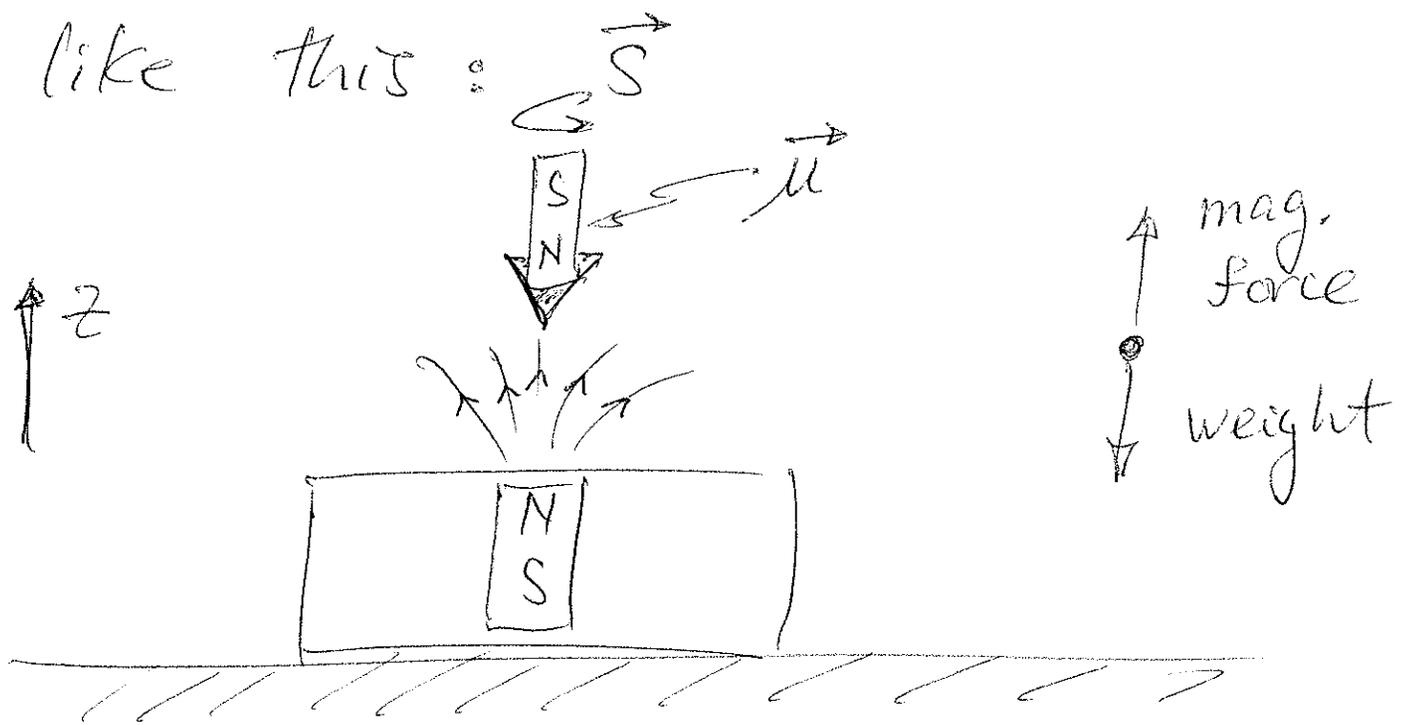


Applications of adiabatic invariance

- Levitron
- spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particle in magnetic trap

The parameter, under whose variation some action variable I is adiabatically invariant, may actually be a dynamical (i.e. not external) variable of a larger system. A nice example of this is the levitating magnetic top, "Levitron".

Suppose we rapidly spin a top, whose axis is magnetized, in the field of a fixed magnet



Suppose the spin \vec{S} of the top is so large it keeps a fixed orientation in space (the torque required to change the axis would be too great). Let the fixed axis of the top be the z -axis, the direction of the gravitational ~~field~~ force. In this "fixed axis limit", the potential energy of top depends only on its position:

$$\begin{aligned} V(\vec{r}) &= mgz - \vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}(\vec{r}) \\ &= mgz - \mu B_z(\vec{r}) \end{aligned}$$

This form of potential energy cannot explain the stability of the Levitron (Earnshaw's thm.). To see this, we express \vec{B} as the gradient of a magneto-static potential Φ_B which (outside the source) satisfies the Laplace equation:

$$\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \Phi_B, \quad \nabla^2 \Phi_B = 0$$

From these we obtain

$$B_z = \frac{\partial \Phi_B}{\partial z}, \quad \nabla^2 B_z = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (\nabla^2 \Phi_B) = 0.$$

And since the gravitational potential energy also satisfies the Laplace equation,

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla^2 V &= \nabla^2(mgz) - \mu \nabla^2 B_z \\ &= 0 + 0 = 0.\end{aligned}$$

The curvature of V , at a point of equilibrium, therefore cannot be positive (stable) in all three dimensions — at least one of the dimensions must be unstable.

If we carefully observe the motion of the top we notice there are actually three distinct time scales:

fast : spinning of top about its axis

intermediate : precession of spin axis

slow : center-of-mass motion

The second of these, precession, is key to the top's stability. In a constant magnetic field the precessional motion of the spin \vec{S} is described the equation

$$\dot{\vec{S}} = \text{torque} = \vec{\mu} \times \vec{B}$$

where $\vec{\mu}$ is parallel to \vec{S} when the spin is very fast (compared with precession). Therefore $\dot{\vec{S}}$ is always perpendicular to \vec{S} , thus

keeping the magnitude of \vec{S} constant at some value S . We can rewrite the precession equation as

$$\dot{\vec{S}} = \left(\frac{\mu B}{S}\right) \vec{S} \times \hat{b}$$

where \hat{b} is a unit vector giving the direction of the magnetic field, and

$$\omega = \frac{\mu B}{S}$$

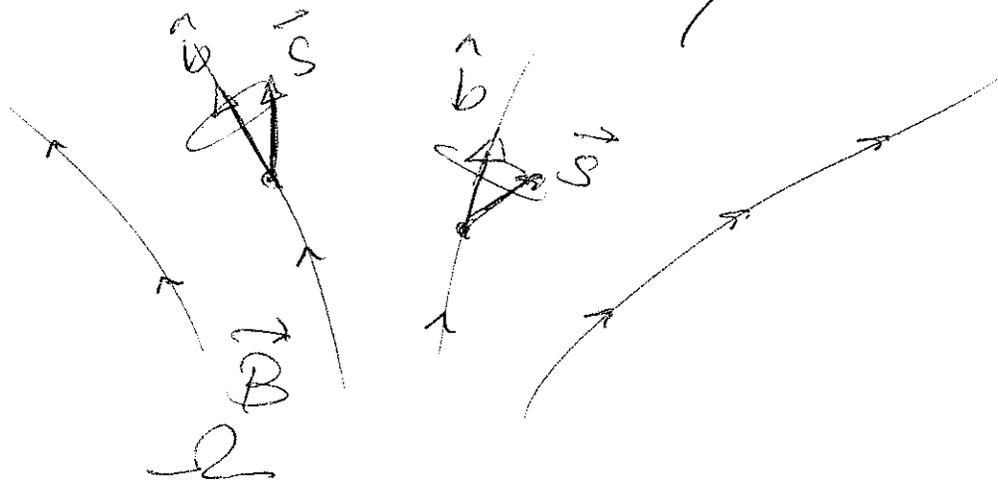
is the precession frequency. When ω is large, the spin axis precesses many times about the magnetic field axis \hat{b} , even when $\hat{b} = \hat{b}(\vec{r})$ is changing (slowly) as the top moves in

(6)

a non-uniform \vec{B} . It seems reasonable, then, that \vec{S} maintains a constant angle (or projection) with respect to \hat{b} . In fact, with a more formal analysis one can define the action variable

$$I = \vec{S} \cdot \hat{b}(\vec{r})$$

and use the fact that it is invariant when the "parameter" \vec{r} is varied slowly:



Let Ω be the characteristic frequency of center-of-mass

motion, the inverse of the time scale, T^{-1} , that describes the parameter change. On the other hand, ω is the frequency associated with the action variable I . Our previous study of adiabatic invariance showed that $\frac{I}{\hbar}$ is constant ~~is~~ ^(powers) to all orders in $\epsilon \propto \frac{\hbar}{\omega}$. What this really means is that the deviations ~~is~~ ^{from} constant I are exponentially small in $\frac{1}{\epsilon} \propto \frac{\omega}{\Omega}$; this will be negligible if the two frequency differ by as little as a factor of 20.

Let's use the invariance of

(8)

I to re-express the magnetic dipole energy:

$$\begin{aligned} -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}(\vec{r}) &= -\left(\frac{\mu}{S} \vec{S}\right) \cdot \hat{b}(\vec{r}) B(\vec{r}) \\ &= -\left(\frac{\mu}{S} I\right) B(\vec{r}) \end{aligned}$$

Here $B(\vec{r})$ is the magnitude of the magnetic field. Previously, when the top was not adiabatically precessing but fixed in direction, this potential energy depended on $B_z(\vec{r})$. However, unlike $B_z(\vec{r})$ the function $B(\vec{r})$ does not satisfy the Laplace equation and it is possible to construct magnetic fields where $B(\vec{r})$ has a local minimum and

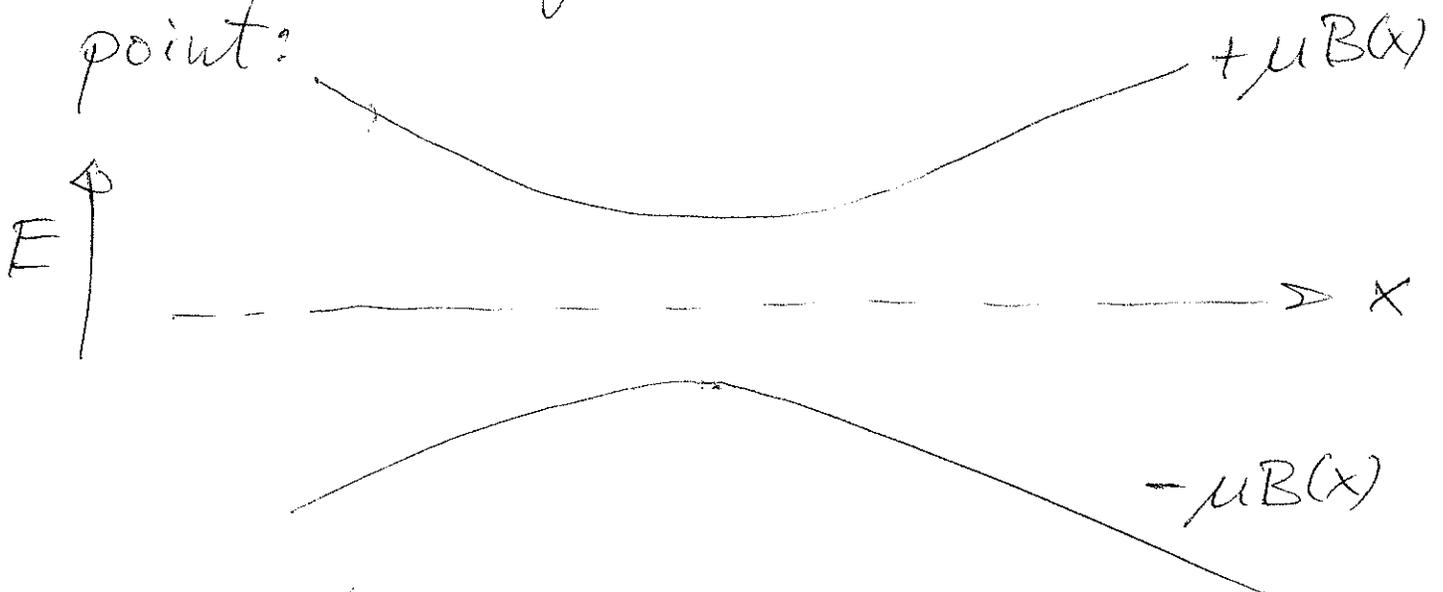
is stable in all three dimensions.

The stabilizing mechanism of the Levitron has a direct counterpart in the "magnetic traps" used ^{to} form cold gases ~~it~~. In place of the spinning top we have an atom with magnetic moment $\vec{\mu}$ parallel to its angular momentum \vec{J} , which has a fixed magnitude, say $\hbar/2$ (for spin- $1/2$). The action variable $\vec{S} \cdot \hat{b} = I$ takes two discrete values for states of definite energy, given by $I = \pm \hbar/2$.

The dipole energy is then

$$\pm \mu B(\vec{r}),$$

which corresponds to two energy levels that depend on the magnitude of the magnetic field. The trap is designed so $B(\vec{r})$ increases away from the equilibrium point. The two energy levels would look ~~like~~ like this, along an x -axis that passes through the equilibrium point:



Adiabatic invariance in the context of this quantum particle

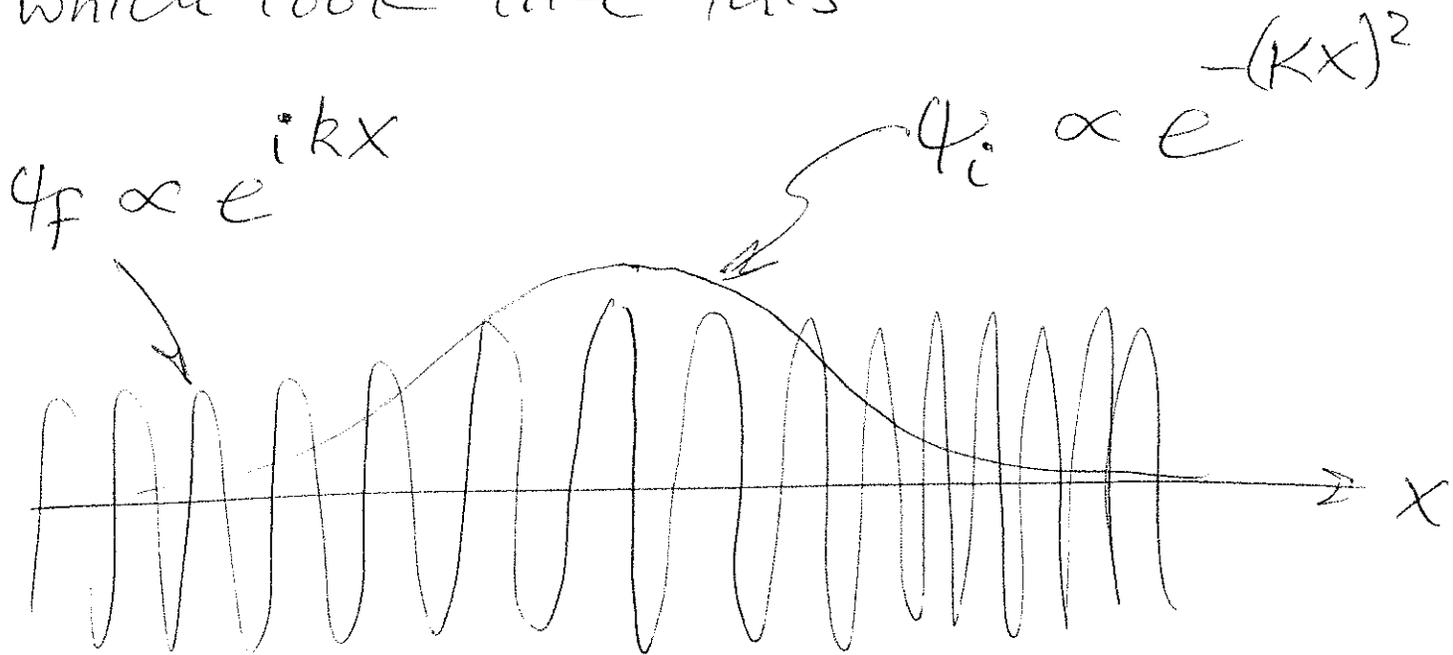
is the statement that the system stays in one of the energy levels ($E = +W_2$ or $E = -W_2$) even while its position x is changing.

We see that it is actually the upper energy level that traps the particle; particles in the lower level see a potential energy that causes x to escape to $\pm \infty$.

But even particles trapped in the upper level have a small probability of making a quantum transition to the lower level, after which they will be expelled from the trap.

A rough calculation of this

transition probability is obtained by integrating the product of initial and final wavefunctions (ignoring the x -dependence of the perturbation) which look like this



$$\left. \begin{aligned} \hbar\Omega &\sim \frac{(\hbar k)^2}{2m} \\ \hbar\omega &\sim \frac{(\hbar K)^2}{2m} \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \frac{\Omega}{\omega} = \left(\frac{K}{k}\right)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{trans. prob.}) &\propto \left| \int dx \psi_f^* \psi_i \right|^2 \\ &\propto \left| \int dx e^{-iKx} e^{-(Kx)^2 + ikx} \right|^2 \end{aligned}$$

(B)

$$= \left| \int dx e^{-\left(Kx - \frac{i}{2} \frac{k}{R}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{k}{R}\right)^2} \right|^2$$

$$\sim e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{k}{R}\right)^2} = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\omega}{\Omega}\right)^2}$$

This is exactly the "exponential-accuracy" of adiabatic invariance (i.e. no transition) we have come to expect.