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Strong Field Multiphoton Inversion of a Three-Level System Using Shaped Ultrafast Laser Pulses

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We demonstrate strong-field population inversion in a three-level system with single and multiphoton coupling between levels using a single shaped ultrafast laser pulse. Our interpretation of the pulse shape dependence illustrates the difference between sequential population transfer and adiabatic rapid passage in three-level systems with multiphoton coupling between levels.

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There is significant interest in controlling atomic and molecular dynamics using shaped laser pulses [1–7]. An important aspect of this is selectively populating a particular target state with high efficiency. Many techniques have been developed that make use of strong-field coupling to atomic or molecular states via single-photon (dipole allowed) transitions. These include adiabatic rapid passage and variants—chirped adiabatic rapid passage [8,9] and stimulated raman adiabatic passage (STIRAP) [10]. While these approaches are powerful and effective, there is also interest in extending them to multiphoton coupling between atomic and molecular levels [11–14]. In order to achieve efficient population transfer beyond the limits of single-photon excitation, one must consider nonlinear coupling between states, multiple interfering pathways and dynamic Stark shifts (DSS), which make resonance conditions time dependent and substantially modify the phase advance of the bare states during the atom- or moleculefield interaction. A dramatic example of this is the transition from stimulated absorption to stimulated emission well before half a Rabi cycle is complete in strong-field two-photon absorption [15,16].

Here, we demonstrate a population inversion via threephoton absorption using a strong-field shaped ultrafast laser pulse. Typically, the population in an excited state is inferred based on numerical integration of the Schrödinger equation. Here we measure the excited state population through a combination of stimulated and spontaneous emission. A genetic algorithm (GA) inside a control loop is used to discover optimal pulse shapes for the population transfer [17], and we interpret the dynamics underlying the atom-field interaction via pulse shape parameter scans based on the measured optimal pulse shapes and numerical integration of the Schrödinger equation. Our interpretation of the dynamics highlights the difference between single-photon and multiphoton coupled adiabatic rapid passage. The experiments are carried out in atomic sodium [15,18–20], where 7p is the target state. The 3sground state is two-photon resonant with the 4s state at 777 nm, and the 4s-7p transition is resonant at 781 nm.

Our laser system produces ≈ 1 mJ 30 fs pulses, tunable from 772 nm to 784 nm. They are shaped in an acousto-

optic modulator based pulse shaper and directed into a heat pipe oven containing sodium vapor with an argon buffer gas at approximately $270 \,^{\circ}$ C. Both fluorescence and stimulated emission are collected from the excited atoms. Fluorescence from the center of the heat pipe oven was collected at 90° with respect to the beam propagation direction with an f2 lens and imaged onto a photomultiplier tube. We image a spatially filtered focus into the heat pipe oven to avoid intensity averaging [21].

Atoms initially excited to the 7p state undergo inelastic collisions with argon atoms in the heat pipe oven on time scales much faster than the 7p natural lifetime. We therefore measured fluorescence from the 7s-3p, 6d-3p, 4d-3p, 6s-3p, and 5s-3p transitions. Comparing the sum of these fluorescence channels from the 7p state with fluorescence on the 3p-3s line, which is produced from both 7p and 4satoms, allowed us to determine the fraction of excited atoms that were initially excited to the 7p state. Measurements of superfluorescence on the 3p-3s transition for a pulse that excites the 4s state allowed us to determine the fraction of atoms excited above the ground state (4s and 7p), since earlier work demonstrated a sharp threshold in the 4s state population (0.66) for superfluorescence to occur [22]. Combining these two measurements therefore allowed us to determine the population of the 7p state (before collisions) without having to rely on knowledge of the density of atoms in the focus, the solid angle subtended by the detector, or our absolute detection efficiency. The details are given in a separate publication [23].

In order to discover an optimal pulse shape for populating the 7p state, we used the 7s-3p and 6d-3p fluorescence [24] as a feedback signal for our GA. The fluorescence for a shaped and an unshaped pulse is shown in Fig. 1 and illustrates an order of magnitude gain in the population transfer with pulse shaping. The inset shows the Wigner distribution for an optimally shaped pulse discovered by our GA. Table I summarizes our measurements of the 7p population for an optimized laser pulse.

The Wigner distributions for different GA runs showed varying temporal structure, but many showed clear indications of a negative linear chirp as shown in Fig. 1. This motivated the experimental and numerical study of popu-

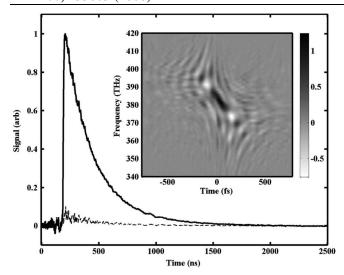


FIG. 1. The solid and dashed curves show fluorescence measurements (including light from the 7s-3p and 6d-3p transitions) for GA optimized and unshaped laser pulses; the inset shows the Wigner distribution for an optimal pulse.

lation transfer as a function of linear chirp or quadratic spectral phase. We numerically integrated the Schrödinger equation and measured the fluorescence yield as functions of intensity and chirp. Working in the rotating wave approximation and adiabatically eliminating nonresonant atomic levels [15,21,25], we can express the time-dependent atom-field Hamiltonian in the interaction picture as

$$\hat{\mathbf{H}}_{\mathbf{I}}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\omega}_g^{(s)}(t) + \boldsymbol{\Delta}(t) & \boldsymbol{\chi}^*(t) & 0\\ \boldsymbol{\chi}(t) & \boldsymbol{\omega}_e^{(s)}(t) & \boldsymbol{\chi}_{er}^*(t)\\ 0 & \boldsymbol{\chi}_{er}(t) & \boldsymbol{\omega}_r^{(s)}(t) - \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{er}(t) \end{pmatrix}. \tag{1}$$

Here $\Delta(t) = \Delta_0 - \frac{\beta t}{2(1/\tau^4 + \beta^2)}$ and $\Delta_{er}(t) = (\Delta_{er})_0 - \frac{\beta t}{4(1/\tau^4 + \beta^2)}$, Δ_0 and $(\Delta_{er})_0$ are the two and one-photon atom-field detunings, τ is the pulse duration for an unshaped pulse, β is the frequency domain chirp rate, $\omega_g^{(s)}(t)$, $\omega_e^{(s)}(t)$, and $\omega_r^{(s)}(t)$ represent the time-varying DSS of the ground, excited, and resonant (7p) states, respectively, $\chi(t)$ represents the two-photon Rabi frequency, μ_{re} is the one-photon coupling between the excited and resonant states (4s and 7p), $\varepsilon(t)$ is the electric field, and $\chi_{er}(t) = \frac{\mu_{re}}{2t} \varepsilon(t)$.

TABLE I. Measured fraction of excited atoms, fraction of atoms in the 7p state, and 7p population with corresponding standard deviation (STD). The values correspond to an average of 5 different GA trials at a fixed temperature of 270 °C and central wavelength of 778 nm.

	$ \Psi_{4s} ^2 + \Psi_{7p} ^2$	$ \Psi_{7p} ^2/(\Psi_{4s} ^2+ \Psi_{7p} ^2)$	$ \Psi_{7p} ^2$
Value	0.69	0.89	0.61
STD	0.09	0.08	0.09

The calculation results shown in Fig. 2(b) agree with the measurements in Fig. 2(a). U_0 is the minimum pulse energy for a pi pulse on the 3s-4s transition, which corresponds to $\approx 12 \,\mu\text{J}$ for a 50 fs pulse with a uniform intensity profile in our focal geometry. We note a strong asymmetry in population transfer to the 7p state, with a high yield for negative chirp and a low yield for positive chirp. The white X in Fig. 2(a) corresponds to the quadratic phase of the optimal pulse discovered by the GA. Calculations for the population transfer without the DSS show much larger population transfers for positive chirp (roughly a factor of 4 higher than with the DSS). The intuitive ordering of frequencies in the pulse, where first the atoms are driven from the 3s to the 4s state (two-photon resonant at 777 nm and Stark shifted to the higher frequency) with the blue frequency components and then from the 4s to the 7p state (resonant at 781 nm) with the red components is effective. However, in contrast to measurements of population transfer with single-photon excitation of the intermediate state [11], the counterintuitive ordering of frequencies (as in STIRAP) is not effective in our situation. This contrast motivates us to examine the underlying dynamics in more detail.

Figure 3 shows calculated populations of the 3s, 4s, and 7p states as a function of time for pulses with a fixed energy of $3U_0$ and chirp rates of -0.002 ps^2 [3(c)] and 0.002 ps^2 [3(d)]. Figures 3(a) and 3(b) show Wigner distributions for pulses with chirp rates of (a) -0.002 ps^2 and

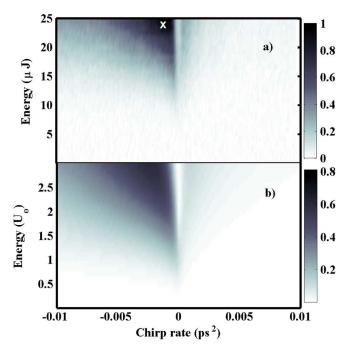


FIG. 2 (color online). (a) Measurement of 7s-3p and 6d-3p fluorescence as a function of chirp. The data are normalized to the maximum fluorescence measured and the white X marks the chirp rate associated with a pulse discovered by the GA. (b) Simulation of the 7p population as a function of pulse energy and chirp.

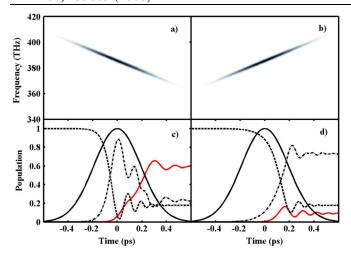


FIG. 3 (color online). Calculated Wigner distributions for chirp rates of (a) -0.002 ps² and (b) 0.002 ps². (c),(d) The 3s (dashed line), 4s (dash-dotted line), and 7p (solid red line) populations, as well as the field envelope (solid black line), corresponding to (a) and (b), respectively, for a pulse energy of $3U_0$.

(b) 0.002 ps². For a negative chirp, the pulse starts blue detuned relative to the bare 3s-4s transition frequency and is able to efficiently drive population from the 3s to the 4s state on the rising edge of the pulse since a blue detuning can compensate for the average dynamic Stark shift on this transition [16]. Then as the frequency of the pulse sweeps to the red at high intensity, Rabi oscillations off resonance (coherent transients [7]) drive population between the 3s and 4s states with decreasing amplitude. Finally, as the frequency of the pulse sweeps through resonance for the 4s-7p transition, population is transferred to the 7p state resulting in a population inversion. The final 7p population is about ≈ 0.6 . However, the opposite chirp, shown in 3(b), yields a different behavior. Here, the pulse starts out closer to resonance with the 4s-7p transition, but far off resonance with the 3s-4s transition. As the intensity increases, the separation between the 3s and 4s states increases with the DSS, keeping these states out of resonance despite the increasing instantaneous frequency of the pulse. Once the pulse intensity reaches its peak and starts to decrease, with the instantaneous frequency still increasing, the pulse can sweep through resonance on the 3s-4s transition, transferring population to the 4s state. Now the frequency is far detuned from the 4s-7p transition frequency and the intensity is sufficiently low that there is ineffective transfer to the 7p. Rather than driving population from the 3s to the 7p state without going through the 4s (as one might expect if STIRAP were effective here), significant population is driven to the 4s state, and there is marginal transfer to the 7*p* state (≈0.09).

A dressed state analysis illustrates a key problem associated with adiabatic passage involving multiphoton coupling. Not only are the shape of the dressed states influenced unfavorably by the DSS (the avoided crossings

become smaller), but more importantly, the spacing between avoided crossings scales differently with the intensity for single vs multiphoton coupling between levels, making the nonadiabatic corrections large for all chirp values at our pulse energies. Figure 4 shows the dressed states as a function of central wavelength for an intensity of $1.44 \times 10^{15} \text{ W/m}^2$.

Analytic calculations of the nonadiabatic corrections to STIRAP are complicated by two features of our Hamiltonian: the detunings between the two pairs of states are not the same, and dynamic Stark shifts are on the diagonal entries of the Hamiltonian [25]. Therefore, we have calculated the nonadiabatic corrections to adiabatic passage numerically as a function of spectral chirp rate, β . This is the most natural pulse shape parameter to vary as it directly controls the time-dependent detunings $\Delta(t)$ and $\Delta_{er}(t)$, and can be easily controlled at a fixed pulse energy. Our calculations compare the difference between the eigenvalues for the total effective interaction Hamiltonian and the adiabatic Hamiltonian normalized by the eigenvalues for the adiabatic Hamiltonian. This is a direct measure of adiabaticity [25]—when this ratio is much smaller than 1, then the passage can be adiabatic, but when the difference is large, then population can cross between dressed states and adiabaticity is lost.

If $\mathbf{U}(t)$ is the matrix that diagonalizes $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{I}}(t):\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{t})^{-1}\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{I}}(\mathbf{t})\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{t})$, then the evolution of the dressed states is given by the total effective interaction Hamiltonian: $\mathbf{H}'_{\mathbf{I}} = \mathbf{D} - i\mathbf{U}^{-1}\dot{\mathbf{U}}$, where \mathbf{D} is a diagonal matrix with the dressed state energies as the diagonal elements. We computed the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{H}'_{\mathbf{I}}$ and \mathbf{D} , and then divided their difference by the eigenvalues of \mathbf{D} as a function of the frequency domain chirp parameter, β . Intuitively, one might expect the nonadiabatic corrections to decrease with increasing values of β since for $\beta \gg 1/\tau^2$, $|\dot{\Delta}(t)| \sim \frac{1}{\alpha}$, and the passage is more adiabatic for smaller $|\dot{\Delta}(t)|$.

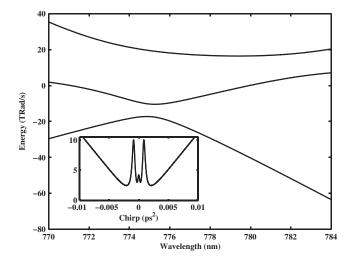


FIG. 4. Calculated dressed states using $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{I}}(t)$. The inset shows normalized nonadiabatic corrections for one of the eigenvalues of equation $\mathbf{H}'_{\mathbf{I}}(t)$ as a function of β .

However, increasing β also decreases the peak electric field of the pulse. As the splitting between dressed states scales nonlinearly with the field for multiphoton coupling $(\chi \sim \varepsilon^2 \text{ in our case})$, increasing β can actually increase the importance of the nonadiabatic corrections to the eigenvalues and make the passage less adiabatic. The criterion for adiabatic passage with single-photon coupling, a single detuning, and a slowly varying envelope is usually given by $\frac{|\dot{\Delta}(t)|}{\chi^2(t) + \Delta^2(t)} \ll 1$ [25]. In our case, since $|\dot{\Delta}(t)| \sim 1/\beta$ and $\chi \sim$ $1/\beta$, it is clear by this criterion (for $\Delta = 0$) that increasing β makes the passage less adiabatic despite the fact that the frequency sweep is slower. Our numerical calculations of the nonadiabatic corrections, shown in Fig. 4, illustrate this point for our Hamiltonian. The structure in the graph for low β is a result of the fact that we are showing the variation with β (as this is the experimentally relevant parameter), while it is $\dot{\Delta}(t)$, which determines the frequency sweep in time and $\Delta(t) = \Delta_0 - \frac{\beta t}{2(1/\tau^4 + \beta^2)}$. For $\beta \gg 1/\tau^2$ it is clear that increasing β leads to larger nonadiabatic corrections, as one expects from the reasoning above. Adiabatic passage for a chirped ultrafast laser pulse would require pulse energies 1 to 2 orders of magnitude higher than we have used in our experiments. For the optimal β value shown in the graph (~ 0.002), an increase in pulse energy by an order of magnitude would still leave nonadiabatic corrections of about 30%. Increasing the pulse energy by over an order of magnitude at this β value would lead to peak intensities higher than for an unshaped laser pulse, and ionization would no longer be negligible. Therefore, we argue that sequential population transfer is inherently more effective than adiabatic passage when using shaped ultrafast lasers to drive population transfer in a multilevel system using multiphoton coupling between levels.

In conclusion, we demonstrate strong-field multiphoton inversion of a three-level atomic system using a single shaped ultrafast laser pulse. Shaping yields an order of magnitude gain over the population transfer for a unshaped laser pulse. We interpret the physical mechanism underlying control by performing parametrized pulse shape scans based on the optimal pulses and numerical integration of the Shrödinger equation. The pulse shape dependence of the final state population illustrates the benefits of sequential vs STIRAP-like population transfer for a fixed pulse energy. In the case of multiphoton population transfer with a single ultrafast laser pulse, there are no decoherence mechanisms on the time scales of the atom-field interaction and thus no disadvantage to populating intermediate states. Furthermore, the scaling of the adiabaticity criterion for STIRAP with multiphoton coupling is unfavorable and requires orders of magnitude higher pulse energies than sequential population transfer. Thus, we propose that sequential population transfer through intermediate states can be more effective than STIRAP based schemes when using shaped ultrafast laser pulses for population transfer with multiphoton coupling.

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