

**ISOTOPE SHIFT MEASUREMENTS OF THE STABLE KRYPTON
ISOTOPES IN NATURAL AND ENRICHED CONCENTRATIONS.**

by

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Studies and Research in partial fulfillment
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Abstract

The isotopic shifts of the 587 nm line, corresponding to the transition $5s[3/2]1-5p'[3/2]2$, have been measured for the five stable even isotopes of krypton. Also, four hyperfine structure peaks belonging to the stable Kr^{80} isotope have been studied. Two sets of experiments have been done. In the first set, Kr gas containing the stable isotopes in natural abundance has been used. In the second set, mixtures containing highly enriched concentrations of Kr^{78} were used in order to get a reliable measurement of the $Kr^{78}-Kr^{80}$ shift.

Polarisation spectroscopy is the technique used. However, a double probe beam was used, in order to subtract out from the isotope shift spectra the doppler absorption curve. The laser output beam was frequency modulated to reduce the detector noise due to room light and stray reflections of the laser light.

Using previously published shift results pertaining to the 557 nm line, it was possible to separate the field shift contribution from the total shift, and to calculate the change in mean square nuclear charge radius between the isotopes. The results were found to be in agreement with those of previous studies.

Résumé

Les déplacements isotopiques de la raie de 587 nm, correspondant à la transition $5s[3/2]1-5p'[3/2]2$, furent mesurés pour les cinq isotopes pairs et stables du krypton. De plus quatre transitions hyperfines du Kr^{80} furent étudiées. Deux séries d'expériences furent accomplies. Dans la première série, du gaz contenant les isotopes de krypton dans leur proportion naturelle fut utilisé. Dans la seconde série, du Kr, hautement enrichi en Kr^{78} fut utilisé afin d'obtenir une valeur fiable du déplacement isotopique de la paire $Kr^{78}-Kr^{80}$.

La technique de spectroscopie de polarisation fut utilisée avec de légères modifications. Deux faisceaux d'échantillonnage, l'un servant de signal et l'autre de référence, furent utilisés de façon à réduire la courbe d'absorption tout en conservant le signal de polarisation. De plus le faisceau initial était modulé en fréquence de façon à réduire le bruit dû à la réflexion de lumière parasite dans les détecteurs.

Les données expérimentales permirent le calcul de l'effet de volume et des changements du carré moyen de la distribution de la charge nucléaire d'un isotope à l'autre. Les résultats concordent avec ceux obtenus par d'autres chercheurs.

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To my family.

Introduction

In this work, the 587 nm line of krypton, corresponding to the transition $5s[3/2]1-5p'[3/2]2$, is studied using polarisation spectroscopy. This way, the isotope shifts of the five even krypton isotopes ($A=78$ to 86), as well as the hyperfine structure of Kr^{80} will be found. Two sets of experiments were performed. First, laser spectroscopy is done on krypton in natural abundance, yielding the isotope shifts of the four heaviest isotopes, which are also the most abundant. Second, mixtures containing highly enriched amounts of the rare Kr^{78} are used in order to get the $Kr^{78}-Kr^{80}$ shift. Ultimately, the changes in mean square charge radius when two neutrons are added to a Kr nucleus will be found.

The polarisation technique used here contains two important modifications to the one usually described in the literature. First, a double probe laser beam is used, and second, the dye laser output beam is frequency modulated.

This report is divided into four chapters. Chapter 1 is a review of isotopic shift studies, particularly those involving krypton. Then the theory of isotope shift is outlined. In chapter 2, some laser spectroscopic techniques are discussed, a greater part of the chapter being devoted to polarisation spectroscopy. Chapter 3 presents the experimental set-up and technique used, and some of the resulting data. And finally, the analysis of the data is done in the last chapter.

Chapter 1: Isotope shift

1.1) History

1.1.1) History of isotope shifts

Isotope shift refers to the very fine structure observed around a particular line emitted from a mixture of isotopes of a given element. This structure is due to differences in the nuclear masses and mean nuclear charge radius between the isotopes. Measurements of these shifts give valuable information about the mass, the shape and the charge distribution of a nucleus in its ground state, as well as indirect information about the spin and nuclear moments. Typically isotope shifts represent 2.5 ppm of the wavelength and thus could not be observed before the advent of interferometric methods.

In 1890, Michelson [Mic 1893] observed structures down to the order of 0.01 \AA in spectral lines. They may have been due to isotope shift (IS) or hyperfine structure (HFS). In 1913, as Bohr's theory of the atom appeared, it was suggested that the electronic energy levels might be mass dependent. It was not until 1918 that the first measurement of an IS was made. Aronberg [Kin 84a] found that radioactive lead emits a photon of wavelength 4.3 m\AA over that of the 4058 \AA photon from stable lead.

In 1922 it was found that some IS were too large to be due to nuclear mass effects alone. Ehrenfest [Ehr 22] suggested that another contribution could come from differences in the nuclear structure of different isotopes, which would give a slightly different force field surrounding the nuclei. However, it was not until 1932 that the first quantitative formulation for the field shift was done by Breit, Rosenthal and Racah [Bre 32].

In the 1930's, lasers were still a long way off and enriched isotopes were not available; it was possible to study only isotopes whose IS are large and the lines narrow. Hollow cathode lamps were used and the spectra were observed in high resolution by photographing the fringe pattern produced by a Fabry-Perot etalon. During that time, Jackson and Kuhn [Jac 38] in 1938 were the first to use a Doppler limiting technique. They measured resonance line photons emitted at a right angle from a beam of potassium atoms. The very small transverse velocity component of the atoms contributed little to the broadening of the lines.

In the 1950's some enriched isotopes became available and photomultipliers were developed. Isotope shifts were measured on heavy isotopes; among them, thallium and mercury.

In the very early works on isotope shifts, one sought to determine the field shift contribution in order to extract information on the non-relativistic electronic density at the nucleus, $|\psi(0)|^2$. In the 1960's and up to the

present, isotope shifts were measured in order to get information on the nuclear structure and shape through the determination of the change in the mean square charge distribution $\langle r^2 \rangle$ between isotopes. Between 1960 and 1970 lasers were introduced to the field. The accuracy of measurements went from 3 MHz in the best of non-laser work to 300 KHz using lasers. The first isotope shift measurement using lasers was done by Brochard and Vetter [Broc 66] in 1966 on xenon. In 1974 Hansch and Broadhurst [Broa 74] made the first Doppler-free measurement using a tunable dye laser.

Since then, many variations of the Doppler-free techniques have appeared. Studies now are concentrating on isotopes whose neutron numbers are close to a magic number, such as Sr and Kr, and on mass separated short-lived isotopes.

1.1.2) Krypton studies

Measurements of the isotope shift of Kr isotopes is of particular interest. There are five even stable isotopes of Kr ranging in mass number from 78 to 86, the last of which corresponds to the $g_{7/2}$ neutron shell closure. If the field effect contribution to the shift is separated from the total shift, one actually finds a decrease in mean square nuclear charge distribution ($\langle r^2 \rangle$) when neutron pairs are added. In this case, one talks about $\delta \langle r^2 \rangle$ being

negative or reversed.

The following is a brief history of the spectroscopic studies that have already been done on Kr. As of now, IS measurements have been done only on the five stable even isotopes.

The first IS measurements on Kr were made in 1949 by Koch and Rasmussen [Koc 49]. In these measurements, the hfs of Kr^{82} for the 805.9 nm line corresponding to the transition $5s'[1/2]0-5p'[3/2]1$ was determined. In order to determine the center of gravity of the splitting, they measured the Kr^{82} and Kr^{84} lines and found a shift of 0.00013 nm. Discharge tubes containing slightly enriched amounts of the two even isotopes were used.

In 1976 Brechignac and Gerstenkorn [Brec 76] did IS measurements of the five even stable Kr isotopes for the 3.066 micrometer infrared line corresponding to $6p[1/2]1-6s[3/2]2$. They observed irregular IS which they related to irregular variations of $\langle r^2 \rangle$. Their results hinted at the presence of a volume (or field) effect and the possible inversion of $\delta\langle r^2 \rangle$.

In order to have a sizable field shift it is necessary to examine a transition in which one of the states has a high probability density at the nucleus. Studies were done on transitions which involve a 5s level. This should then show a greater volume effect than the infrared transition. In 1977 Gerhardt and Matthias [Ger 77] studied the 557 nm line using Doppler-free polarisation

spectroscopy, obtaining a large signal due to the presence of a metastable lower level. Their results showed a non-negligible volume effect. Adding neutrons in the lower half of the $g_{7/2}$ shell ($N=78$ to 80) introduced the largest change in $\langle r^2 \rangle$. The second half of the shell ($N=82$ to 86) showed a somewhat smaller variation. At that stage one could only show departure of the total shift from that of a pure mass shift. To evaluate explicitly the field shift and $\delta\langle r^2 \rangle$ one had to wait for theoretical studies which were done in 1979. The technique used by Gerhardt and Matthias is also the one used in this work, and will be described in chapter 2.

In 1978 Jackson [Jac 78] used an arc lamp containing highly enriched amounts of the stable isotopes and did IS measurements on 14 IR lines in the 750 Å to 800 Å region. IS were measured on photographically recorded fringes from a Fabry-Perot etalon. The same year, Champeau and Keller [Cha 78] did a laser excitation study on the 557 nm line, corresponding to the transition $5s[3/2]2-5p'[1/2]1$, by using an atomic beam of Kr and detecting the resonance fluorescence. Isotope shifts were measured but a definite trend of the field shift could not be established. Gerhardt [Ger 79] measured in 1979 the IS on the 432 nm and 557 nm lines using again polarisation spectroscopy. At that time $F(557)$, the electronic factor for the 557 nm line had been evaluated and $\delta\langle r^2 \rangle$ had been derived theoretically (the electronic factor of a transition multiplied by the change

in mean square charge distribution between two isotopes gives the field shift). These two estimates enabled the determination of $\delta\langle r^2 \rangle$ for any pair of even Kr isotopes. As expected, a decrease in $\langle r^2 \rangle$ with increasing mass number throughout the neutron shell was observed. These negative $\delta\langle r^2 \rangle$ values were interpreted by Gerhardt as being related to a decrease in nuclear deformation and/or a decrease in skin thickness.

Using the same technique as in 1978, Jackson [Jac 80] in 1980 found that transitions involving a $5p$ electron display a field shift of the same order as those involving a $5s$ electron. He worked with the 587 nm line, which is also the one studied in the present work.

In 1985 Audet [Aud 85], using polarisation spectroscopy, and Savard [Sav 85], who used saturation spectroscopy, also studied the 587 nm line and measured the IS between the four most abundant even stable Kr isotopes and the hyperfine structure of Kr^{82} . The shifts were in agreement with the results obtained by Jackson. Their measurements were performed at the Foster Radiation Laboratory at McGill University.

1.2) Theory of isotopic shifts

The isotopic shifts observed in electronic transitions are easily understood if the nucleus is taken as

having a finite mass and non-zero radius rather than being a point of infinite mass. It is then found that the energy of an electronic level does not depend on Z alone but also on the mass (M_A) and on the radial charge distribution of the nucleus. Three effects contribute to the observed shift of a level; they are, the normal mass shift (NMS), the specific mass shift (SMS) and the field shift (FS). They will be treated separately in the following sections.

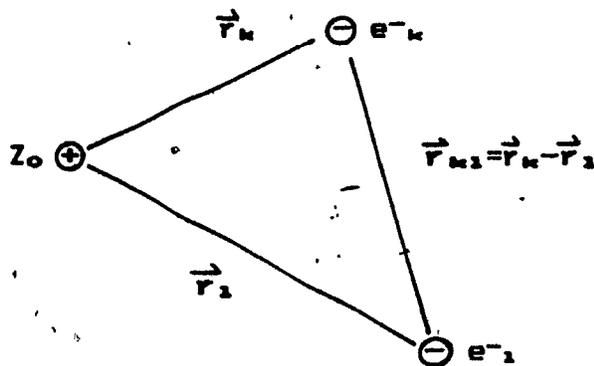
1.2.1) Normal and specific mass shifts

The Hamiltonian for an atom of infinite nuclear mass is

$$(1.1) \quad H = \sum_k p_k^2/2m_e + \sum_k (-Z_0/r_k) + \sum_{k < l} 1/r_{kl} ,$$

where the symbols have their usual meaning and $e=1$. It applies for the following system.

Fig. 1.1



If the center of mass of the atom is at rest

$$(1.2) \quad \sum_k \vec{p}_k = 0.$$

The energy levels are given by the eigenvalues of (1.1), and so we get:

$$(1.3) \quad H_\infty \psi(r) = E_\infty \psi(r).$$

In the case of a finite nuclear mass the Hamiltonian is modified to allow for motion of the nucleus of mass M_A . If we now assume the center of mass of the atom to be at rest we have;

$$(1.4) \quad H_{MA} = \sum_k p_k^2 / 2m_e - \sum_k Z_0 / r_k + \sum_{k \neq l} 1 / r_{kl} + P_N^2 / 2M_A,$$

where P_N is the momentum of the nucleus. We also have;

$$(1.5) \quad \text{a) } \vec{P}_N + \sum_k \vec{p}_k = 0$$

$$\text{b) } P_N^2 = \sum_k p_k^2 + \sum_{k \neq l} \vec{p}_k \cdot \vec{p}_l.$$

From these we get:

$$(1.6) \quad H_{MA} = \sum_k p_k^2 / 2\mu + 1/2M_A \sum_{k \neq l} \vec{p}_k \cdot \vec{p}_l - \sum_k Z_0 / r_k + \sum_{k \neq l} 1 / r_{kl}$$

where $1/\mu = 1/m_e + 1/M_A$.

Hence the energy levels are now different and are given by;

$$(1.7) \quad H_{MA} \psi_{MA}(r) = E_{MA} \psi_{MA}(r).$$

The following variable substitution will make the finite mass Hamiltonian contain a part that looks like the infinite mass equation, so the same wave function will solve both. The eigenvalues will be multiplied by a nuclear mass-dependent coefficient and a perturbation term will appear.

Do the variable substitutions:

$$(1.8) \quad \vec{r}_k' = \mu/m_e \vec{r}_k \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{p}_k' = m_e/\mu \vec{p}_k \quad (\text{because } \vec{p}_k = -i\vec{\nabla}_k).$$

This gives:

$$(1.9) \quad H_{MA} = \mu/m_e \left[\sum_k \vec{p}_k'^2 / 2m_e - \sum_k Z_0/r_k' + \sum_{k<l} 1/r_{kl}' + \frac{1}{2(m_e + M_A)} \sum_{k \neq l} \vec{p}_k' \cdot \vec{p}_l' \right]$$

$$= \mu/m_e \left[H_\infty' + \frac{1}{(m_e + M_A)} \sum_{k<l} \vec{p}_k' \cdot \vec{p}_l' \right]$$

The eigenvalues of the first term are readily

found since the wave functions are known. Call this term H_{MA}^{p} .

$$(1.10) \text{ From } H_{MA}^{\text{p}} = (\mu/m_e) H_{e0}^{\text{p}} \text{ we get } E_{MA}^{\text{p}} = (\mu/m_e) E_{e0}^{\text{p}}.$$

The normal mass shift is:

$$(1.11) \quad \Delta E_{NMS} = E_{MA}^{\text{p}} - E_{e0}^{\text{p}} = -\frac{m_e}{M_A} E_{MA}^{\text{p}}.$$

We may write $E_{MA}^{\text{p}} = E^{\text{exp}}_{MA}$, where E^{exp}_{MA} is the experimentally measured energy of the level if the perturbation term of (1.9) is small. And so:

$$(1.12) \quad \Delta E_{NMS_{MA}} = -\frac{m_e}{M_A} E^{\text{exp}}_{MA}.$$

The quantity which will eventually be measured is the frequency shift between two isotopes A' and A for the same transition "1". Now evaluate the contribution of the normal mass shift to the frequency shift. The transition is between a lower level E_1 and an upper level E_2 and is given by the following expression if the normal mass shift is taken into account:

$$(1.13) \quad \delta \nu_{1, NMS}^A = E_1 - \frac{m_e}{M_A} E_1 - E_2 + \frac{m_e}{M_A} E_2 \\ = (E_1 - E_2) - \frac{m_e}{M_A} (E_1 + E_2), \text{ with } h=1.$$

A similar expression is found for isotope A' and the difference in the transition frequency due to the normal

mass effect is given by:

$$(1.14) \quad \delta\nu^{AA'}_{1, NMS} = m_e (E_1 - E_2) (M_{AA'} - M_A) / (M_A M_{AA'}) \\ = M_{1, NMS} M_{AA'} \quad , \quad M_{AA'} = (M_{A'} - M_A) / (M_A M_{A'})$$

where the convention is to take $\nu^{A'} - \nu^A$ for $M_{A'}$ greater than M_A .

In the same manner, we may evaluate an expression giving the frequency shift due to the perturbation term of the Hamiltonian (1.9). To first order, using the same wave function as before we get:

$$(1.15) \quad \Delta E^{MS} M_A = \mu / m_e \quad \langle \psi(r') | \frac{1}{2(m_e + M_A)} \sum_{K \neq L} \vec{p}_K \cdot \vec{p}_L | \psi(r') \rangle \\ = 1/M_A \langle \psi(r) | \sum_{K < L} \vec{p}_K \cdot \vec{p}_L | \psi(r) \rangle$$

Again we look at a transition "i" between levels E_1 and E_2 for the two isotopes A' and A .

$$(1.16) \quad \delta\nu^{AA'}_{1, EMS} = (1/M_{A'} - 1/M_A) \left[\langle \psi_1 | \sum_{K < L} \vec{p}_K \cdot \vec{p}_L | \psi_1 \rangle - \langle \psi_2 | \sum_{K < L} \vec{p}_K \cdot \vec{p}_L | \psi_2 \rangle \right] \\ = M_{AA'} M_{1, EMS}$$

where $M_{AA'}$ is defined in (1.14) and $M_{1, EMS}$ contains the difference in the expectation values of $\sum_{K < L} \vec{p}_K \cdot \vec{p}_L$ between the upper and lower state, and is called the electron correlation term.

Thus the total frequency shift due to mass effects is

$$(1.17) \delta\nu^{(1)}_{i,ns} = M_{AA} \cdot (M_1, nns + M_1, sns) ,$$

where the quantity in brackets is independent of the isotopes involved but depends only on the transition.

1.2.2) Field shift

The extended nuclear charge has a shifting effect only on transitions involving s electrons and transitions in which the screening of the inner closed s shell is changed. In the model used the nuclear charge is spherically symmetric and of radius R. The energy shift $\Delta E^{(2)}$ is due to the difference in electrostatic potential between the extended charge, $V(r)$, and a point charge, $V_0(r)$. Thus;

$$(1.18) \Delta E^{(2)} = \int_0^{\infty} \psi^* [V(r) - V_0(r)] \psi 4\pi r^2 dr ,$$

which is non-vanishing only inside the nuclear radius. The value of $\psi(r)$ may be taken constant inside the nucleus and equal to $\psi(0)$. The field shift is then given by:

$$(1.19) \Delta E^{(2)} = |\psi(0)|^2 \int_0^R [V(r) - V_0(r)] 4\pi r^2 dr .$$

For a uniform charge distribution, Gauss' law and the condition that $V(r=R) = V_0(r=R)$ gives;

$$(1.20) \quad a) \quad V(r) = 3/2 [1/3 (r/R)^3 - 1] Ze^2/R, \quad r < R$$

$$b) \quad V_0(r) = -Ze^2/r, \quad r \geq R.$$

Put (1.20) into (1.19) to find;

$$(1.21) \quad \Delta E^{F0} = |\psi(0)|^2 4\pi/10 e^2 Z \cdot R^2.$$

For two isotopes A and A' it is assumed that the energy difference is due only to a difference in nuclear radius. Thus for the level E₁ the shift is:

$$(1.22) \quad -\delta(\Delta E^{F0})_{AA'} = |\psi(0)|^2_1 4\pi/10 e^2 Z \delta R^2$$

and a similar expression is found for the level E₂. The field shift in the transition "i" between isotopes A and A', whose charge radii are different δR is:

$$(1.23) \quad \begin{aligned} \delta\nu^{AA'}_{i, F0} &= \delta(\Delta E^{F0}_1) - \delta(\Delta E^{F0}_2) \\ &= 4\pi/10 e^2 Z \delta R^2 [|\psi(0)|^2_1 - |\psi(0)|^2_2]. \end{aligned}$$

Generally the literature writes about the mean square charge radius, $\delta\langle r^2 \rangle = 3/5 \delta R^2$. Finally, the field shift is:

$$(1.24) \delta\nu^{AA'}_{i,FS} = F_1 \delta^{AA'}\langle r^2 \rangle.$$

As in the cases of NMS and SMS, the frequency shift is expressible in terms of a strictly isotope dependant term, $\delta\langle r^2 \rangle$ and an electronic term F_1 .

1.2.3) King plots

The total isotopic shift for the transition labelled "i", between isotopes A and A' is the sum of the three effects just described;

$$(1.25) \delta\nu^{AA'}_i = \delta\nu^{AA'}_{i,NMS} + \delta\nu^{AA'}_{i,SMS} + \delta\nu^{AA'}_{i,FS} \\ = M_{AA'} M_{i,NMS} + M_{AA'} M_{i,SMS} + F_1 \delta\langle r^2 \rangle.$$

One wishes to extract, from isotope shift measurements the change in mean square distribution of the nuclear charge when pairs of neutrons are added. First the normal mass shift part of the total shift is calculated easily, from equation (1.14), and subtracted from the measured value. Remaining is the sum of the FS and SMS which are not easily separated.

$$(1.26) \delta\nu^{AA'}_{i,FS+SMS} = M_{AA'} M_{i,SMS} + F_1 \delta\langle r^2 \rangle.$$

$M_{i,SMS}$ contains the electron correlation term

which is not calculable. F_1 involves the calculation of the change in electronic density at the nucleus during the transition. This electronic factor has been calculated for the 557 nm transition ($5s[3/2]2-5p'[1/2]1$) in Kr [Ger 79] and also a model dependent value for $\delta^{e-e}(r^2)$ has been found. From these two values it is possible to evaluate, first, the F_1 for any Kr transition for which the shifts are known for at least three isotopes, and second, the $\delta(r^2)$ for any pairs of these isotopes. Thus, if shifts were measured on the same isotopes for another transition "j", the "i" and "j" equations giving the sum of the FS and the SMS may be combined to give;

$$(1.27) \quad \delta\nu^{e-e}_{i,FS+SMS}/M_{AA} = F_1/F_j [\delta\nu^{e-e}_{j,FS+SMS}/M_{AA}] + [M_{i, SMS} - F_1/F_j M_{j, SMS}]$$

Plotting $\delta\nu^{e-e}_{i,FS+SMS}/M_{AA}$ as a function of $\delta\nu^{e-e}_{j,FS+SMS}/M_{AA}$ for at least two measured shifts will give a line whose slope is F_1/F_j and the offset is $M_{i, SMS} - F_1/F_j M_{j, SMS}$. This is called a King plot [Kin 84b]. In the case of krypton, $F(557 \text{ nm})$ and $\delta^{e-e}(r^2)$ are known. Thus $F(587 \text{ nm})$ is known from the slope of (1.27) and the SMS will be separable from the FS and $\delta^{e-e}(r^2)$ will be calculable for any Kr isotope pair. It must be remembered that any evaluation of the SMS or of $\delta^{e-e}(r^2)$ ultimately relies on preliminary theoretical estimates.

CHAPTER 2: Laser Spectroscopy

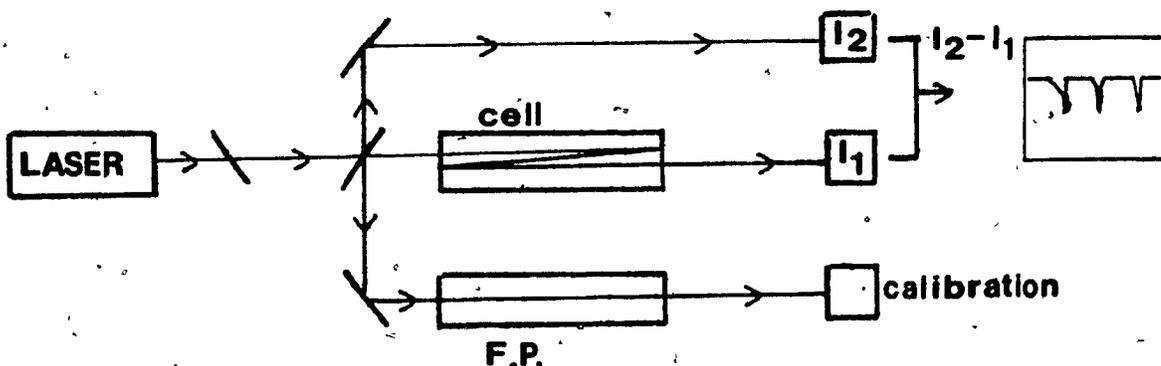
This chapter will present briefly the most popular C.W. laser spectroscopic techniques, starting with Doppler-limited and then Doppler-free techniques. The second and most important part of this chapter deals in greater detail with Doppler-free polarisation spectroscopy, which is the technique used in the present work.

2.1) C.W. Laser spectroscopic techniques

2.1.1) Doppler-limited techniques

The first Doppler - limited technique to be discussed is absorption spectroscopy; a schematic of the necessary set-up is shown on fig. 2.1.

Fig. 2.1



Absorption spectroscopy involves measuring the transmitted intensity of a frequency-tunable laser beam making multiple passes inside a cell containing a mixture of isotopes in gaseous form. As the laser frequency is scanned in a linear fashion, the beam will encounter a varying absorption coefficient around the real or Doppler-shifted transition frequencies of the atoms. The amount of absorbed intensity depends on the population, $N(\omega)$, i.e. the number of atoms whose transition frequency ω_0 is Doppler-shifted to ω , the frequency of the laser. $N(\omega)$ is a Gaussian function which peaks at ω_0 . The absorption cross-section of each atom follows a resonance profile whose width depends only on the linewidth of the transition. Hence, the final absorption profile is a convolution of the Gaussian and the Lorentzian functions and is given by;

$$(2.1) \quad I(\omega) = C \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\exp[-(c(\omega_0 - \omega')/\omega_0 v_p)^2]}{(\omega - \omega')^2 + (\gamma/2)^2} d\omega'$$

which is called a Voigt profile [Dem 81a].

On fig. 2.1 the absorption profile is given by $I_1 - I_2$ and is calibrated in frequency using a Fabry-Perot etalon of fixed mirror separation whose mode spacing is accurately known. The reference signal I_2 is used to cancel fluctuations in the laser output intensity.

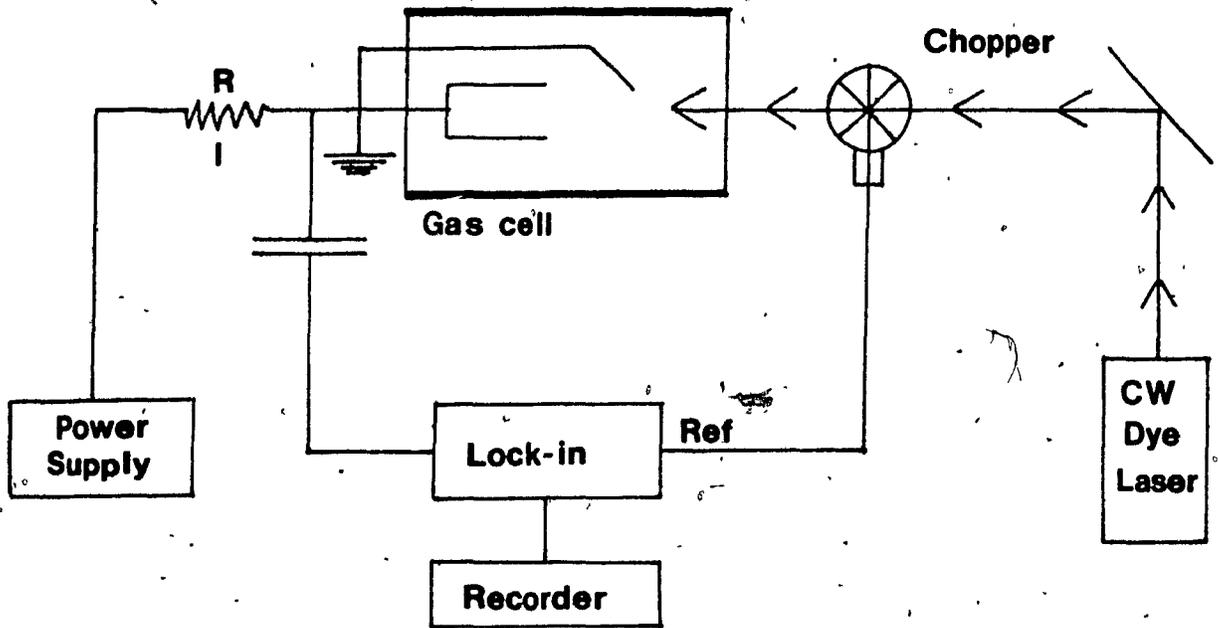
The mirror image of an absorption spectrum is an excitation spectrum. In its simplest form, excitation spectroscopy just involves the detection and counting of

individual fluorescent photons. The integration of the number of counts over short time intervals compared to the scan time is translated into an intensity profile $I(\omega)$. The setup is essentially the same as the one depicted on fig. 2.1 except that the P.M. is aimed at the gas cell. In order for this technique to be applicable, certain conditions must be met; the probability of deexcitation through non-radiative processes must be low, the lifetime of the excited state must be much smaller than the count integration time (i.e. the excited atom must not drift out of the solid angle of the photodetector) and the detector must have a constant quantum efficiency over a wide part of the spectral range.

In the techniques described above, the signals involved are usually very small. The background noise may be reduced by chopping the laser beam (modulating the amplitude) or modulating the laser frequency. The detected signal will be at a frequency corresponding to the modulation and may be discriminately amplified by a lock-in amplifier. More will be said later on the frequency modulation method since it is the one used in the present work.

Still another technique is that of optogalvanic spectroscopy. It involves the measurement of the change in effective resistance inside a gas discharge which is optically pumped with a laser beam. A setup for this technique is shown on fig. 2.2

Fig. 2.2

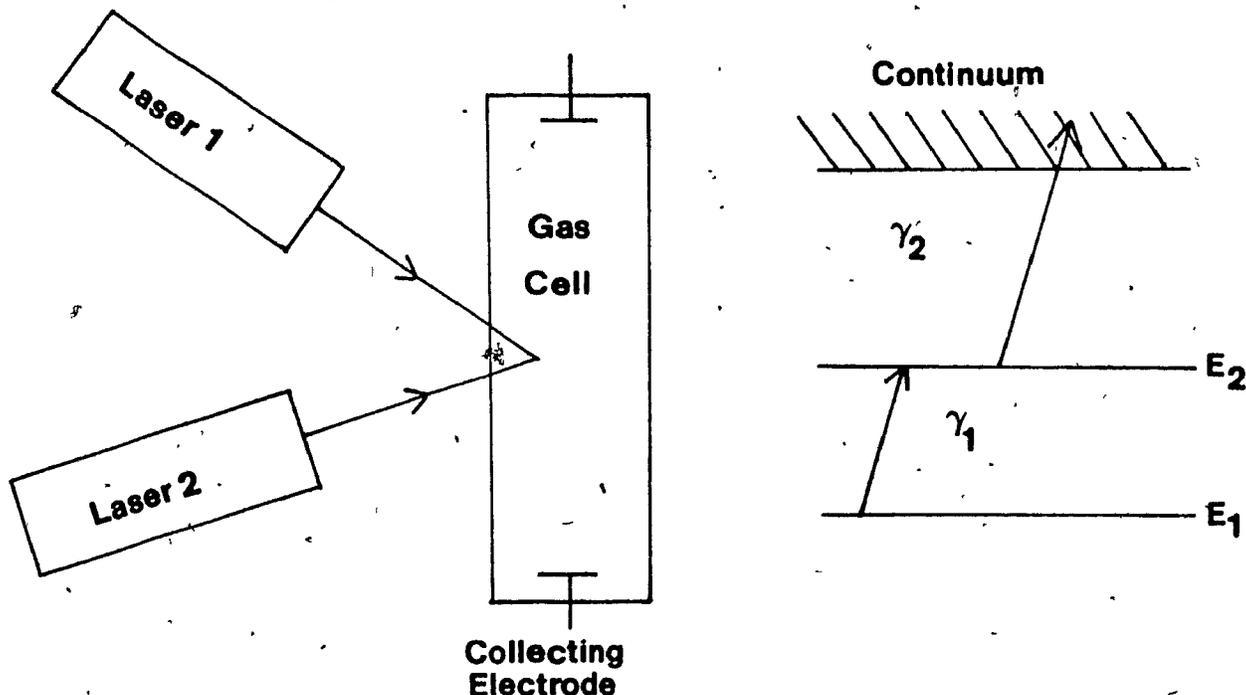


The laser pumps a lower level to an upper level, hence modifying their respective populations. Because of differences in ionization probability of these two levels, there results a change in the discharge resistance, giving a change in the current at R. If the laser beam is chopped an a.c. voltage will be measured at R which can be fed directly into a lock-in amplifier. The voltage amplitude as a function of the laser frequency gives a spectrum.

If the upper level of the transition is close to the ionization limit, the technique of ionization spectroscopy may be used. The excited state may then be ionized through several processes. One of these is photoionization, and the whole technique is sometimes referred to as "two-photon ionization spectroscopy". Fig.

2.3 shows a set-up used in this technique and the energy level diagram.

Fig. 2.3



Only the beam pumping to the lower level need be tunable, the other may be of fixed frequency but must be of sufficient energy to bring the excited electron over the ionization limit.

In other schemes the excited atom may be ionized through collision with a buffer gas or through the application of a strong electric field. In all the methods just described, the signal is made up of the collected electrons.

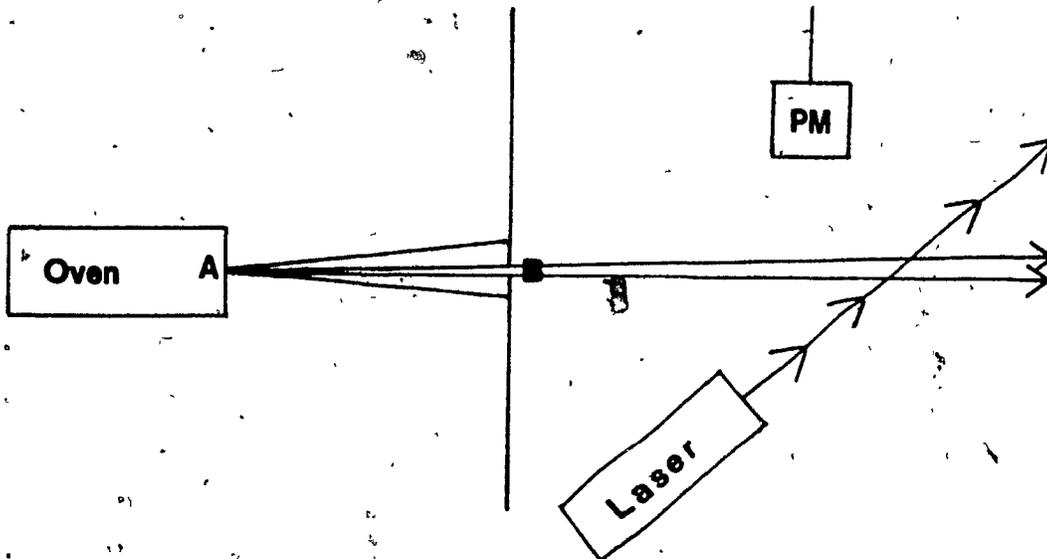
This concludes the overview of the Doppler-limited techniques although other more exotic techniques exist [Dem 81b].

2.1.2) Doppler-free techniques

The techniques just described are of little use for doing isotopic shifts measurements on Kr, which are all around 100 MHz, because this is the order of the Doppler broadening at room temperature. Doppler-free methods must be used. They involve the sampling and measurement of a transition on subgroups of atoms which have a very small velocity component along the direction of the laser beam. Many of these techniques are refinements of the Doppler-limited ones; they will be described in the present section.

Let us first examine the technique of laser spectroscopy on an atomic beam. As stated before it was used by Champeau [Cha 78] on Kr in 1978. This techniques may be either of the absorption or excitation types. Fig. 2.4 shows a possible setup.

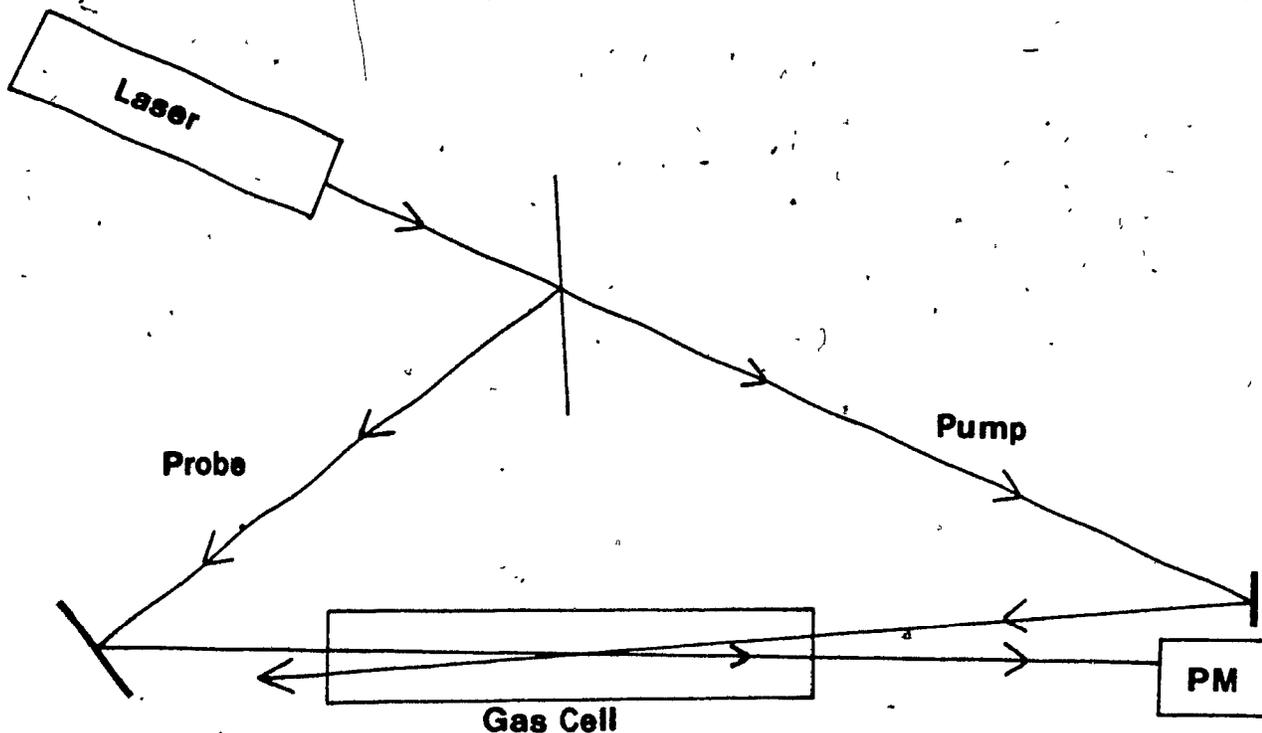
Fig. 2.4



Atoms to be studied are initially collected and put in an oven. The oven is heated and the atoms boil off to form a narrow beam collimated through a slit. The probing laser beam is incident at a right angle to the atomic beam. Thus only the very small transverse component of an atom's velocity contributes to Doppler broadening of the transition. This technique offers the very interesting possibility of spectroscopic measurements on short lived mass-separated isotopes, since very rapid on-line collection and reemission of these isotopes is possible.

Doppler-free spectroscopy may also be done on atoms contained in a cell. One such method is a modification on the absorption technique just described and is called saturation spectroscopy. At any laser frequency, the amount of absorbed intensity is determined by the population of atoms available in the absorbing lower state. In saturation spectroscopy a strong saturating pump beam depletes the lower level, thus effectively decreasing the absorption coefficient for a weaker probe beam going through the same volume of gas. For this effect to occur, the two beams must interact with the same group of atoms. If the beams are made to go in opposite directions they simultaneously interact only with atoms at rest along the beam axis, i.e. at the natural line of the transition. The laser linewidth becomes the limiting factor on the resolution. Fig. 2.5 shows a rough schematic of a saturation spectroscopy setup.

Fig. 2.5



A saturation spectrum displays peaks corresponding to a maximum transmission of the probe beam at the transition frequency.

The next section deals with the polarisation spectroscopy technique used in the present work. Other techniques are described in the literature [Dem 81c].

2.2) Polarisation spectroscopy

2.2.1) The technique.

In the case of Kr the isotopic shift is masked by the Doppler broadening of the transition. Say v_z is the velocity component along the laser beam axis of a certain subgroup of atoms. The natural frequency of the transition is Doppler-shifted with respect to the laser beam according to;

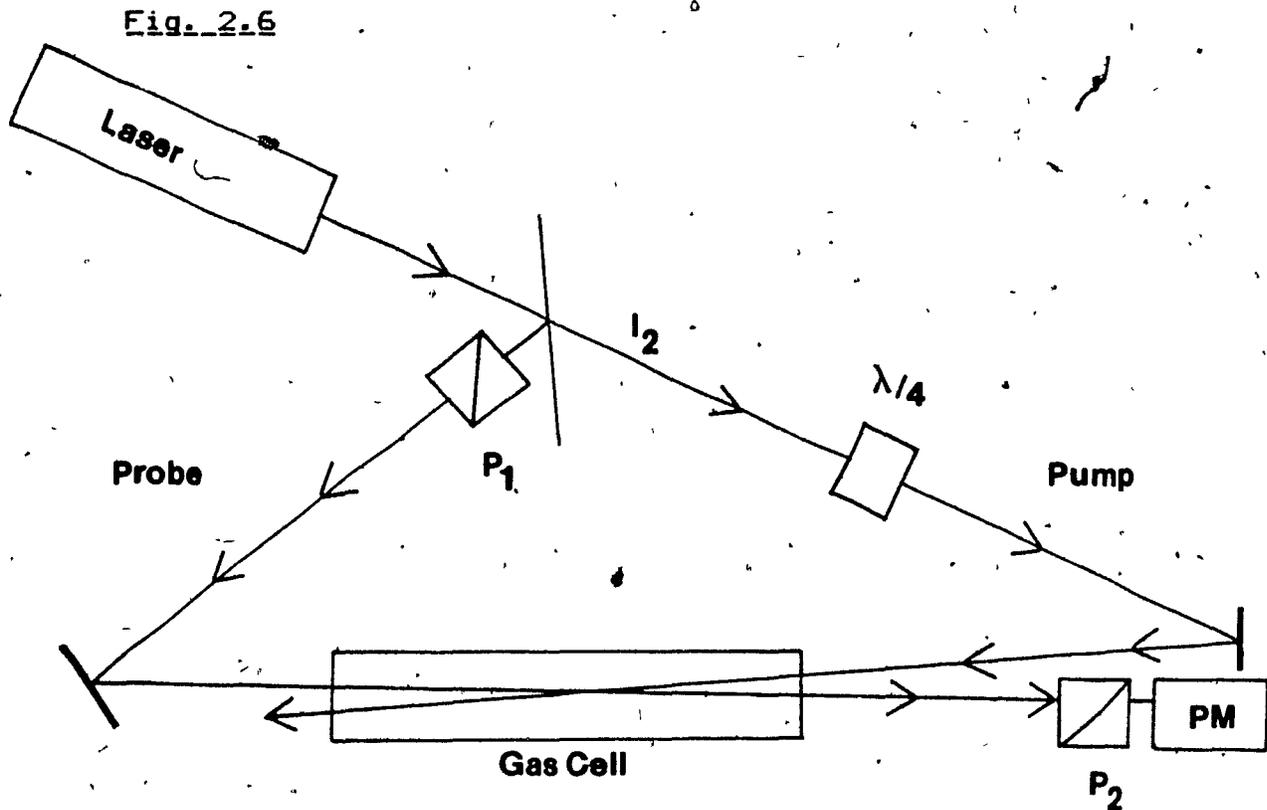
$$(2.1) \quad \omega = \omega_0 + \vec{k} \cdot \vec{v}.$$

In fact, due to the finite line-width of the laser, $\delta\omega$, interaction of the beam will occur with atoms whose velocities are within an interval Δv_z of v_z so that;

$$(2.2) \quad \omega \pm \delta\omega = \omega_0 + k \cdot v_z \pm k \cdot \Delta v_z.$$

Doppler-free polarisation spectroscopy relies on the anisotropic orientation of the absorbing atoms' angular momentum vector and on the birefringence that is produced in an atomic vapor by an intense polarised saturating pump beam. This will cause a linearly polarised probe beam, that interacts with the same subgroup of atoms, to become

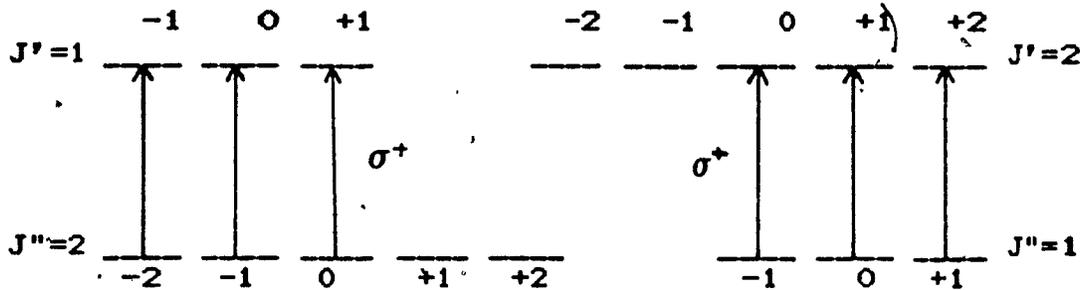
elliptically polarised with its major axis tilted with respect to the original polarisation. The technique is Doppler-free if the two beams go in opposite directions for the same reasons as in the case of saturation spectroscopy. Fig. 2.6 show a schematic of the experimental setup needed for polarisation spectroscopy.



The linearly polarised beam I_2 is circularly polarised as it goes through a quarter-wave plate. As the laser frequency is tuned to the atomic transition $(J'', M) - (J', M \pm 1)$, absorption of the pump beam occurs. Selection rules require that $M = \pm 1$ for left and right hand polarisation, where M is defined along the z axis parallel to the beam direction. The result will be a non-isotropic

angular momentum distribution of the population of atoms in the initial state J'' and/or the final state J' , depending on the value of ΔJ , as shown by fig. 2.7.

Fig. 2.7



The counter propagating linearly polarised probe beam may be seen as the sum of a right and left hand circularly polarised wave (σ^+ and σ^-). Due to the saturation effect of the pump beam, the available populations of absorbing atoms are different for the σ^+ and σ^- components of the probe. This amounts to having different absorption coefficients α^+ and α^- , and different optical paths (giving two indices of refraction n^+ and n^-) for the two components. Summing of the remaining waves after a path length L in the saturated gas leaves a net elliptical polarisation with the major axis tilted with respect to the original polarisation direction.

A polarisation spectrum thus involves measuring the light intensity of the probe beam transmitted through a polariser, whose axis is almost perpendicular to the

original probe polarisation, as the laser frequency is varied.

2.2.2) The polarisation spectrum

In this section the equation of a polarisation spectrum will be derived. Call z the axis parallel to the beam and x and y the two perpendicular directions. The linearly polarised probe beam may be written as;

$$(2.3) \quad E = E_0 e^{i(\omega t - kz)}, \text{ with } E_0 = (E_{0x}, 0, 0) = (E_0, 0, 0).$$

We may treat E as the sum of a right and a left circularly polarised wave by putting:

$$(2.4) \quad E_0 = E_0/2 + iE_0/2 + E_0/2 - iE_0/2,$$

all amplitudes being equal because of circular polarisation.

Since each component has in the saturated gas different α and k, with $k = \omega n/c$, we find that after a path L through the gas:

$$(2.5) \quad E^+ = E_0/2 (1+i) e^{i(\omega t - k^+ L + i(\alpha^+/2)L)}$$

$$E^- = E_0/2 (1-i) e^{i(\omega t - k^- L + i(\alpha^-/2)L)}$$

At $z=L$ the total probe wave is $E=E^++E^-$. The crossed polariser is along the y direction. Of relevance is the y component of the final wave:

$$(2.6) \quad E_y = iE_0/2 (e^{i(\omega_0 - k^+ L + i(\alpha^+ / 2)L)} - e^{i(\omega_0 - k^- L + i(\alpha^- / 2)L)}) \\ = -iE_0'/2 (e^{i(k^+ - k^- - i(\alpha^+ - \alpha^-) / 2)L + i2b - 1}) e^{i(\omega_0 + \varphi)},$$

where $\varphi = -k^+ \cdot L$ and $E_0' = E_0 e^{-\alpha^- L}$. The term 'b' in the exponent has been introduced to account for birefringence of the cell windows.

Usually $\Delta k = k^+ - k^-$ and $\Delta \alpha = \alpha^+ - \alpha^-$ are small and the exponent may be expanded to first order to get:

$$(2.7) \quad E_y = -E_0' (\theta + b + (\omega L / 2c)(n^+ - n^-) - i(\alpha^+ - \alpha^-)L / 4) e^{i(\omega_0 + \varphi)},$$

which is the transmitted amplitude through the crossed polariser. A constant term $E_0' \theta$ has been introduced to account for the transmitted amplitude if the polariser is at a small angle from the perfect crossing.

The differences $\Delta n = n^+ - n^-$ and $\Delta \alpha = \alpha^+ - \alpha^-$ depend on the laser and atomic transition frequencies. Taking the absorbing atom as a damped harmonic oscillator, we get a Lorentzian profile for [Dem 81d]. Thus:

$$(2.8) \quad \Delta \alpha = \alpha_0 / (1 + x^2), \text{ with } x = (\omega_0 - \omega) / \gamma, \text{ where } \gamma \text{ is}$$

the transition linewidth.

The frequency dependent absorption coefficient and index of refraction are related by the Kramers-Kronig dispersion relations [Dem 81e]. Thus

$$(2.9) \quad \Delta n = \Delta \alpha_0 c / \omega_0 x / (1+x^2)$$

The transmitted intensity is $I = E_y E_y^*$. From (2.7) through (2.9) we find

$$(2.10) \quad I_t = I_0 \left(\xi + \theta^2 + b^2 + (b/2\Delta\alpha_0 L - 1/2\Delta\alpha_0 L) x / (1+x^2) + 1/4 (\Delta\alpha_0 L)^2 1/(1+x^2) \right)$$

where ξ has been introduced to account for a small residual transmission through the crossed polarisers. Equation (2.10) thus becomes:

$$(2.11) \quad I_t = I_0 (A x / (1+x^2) + B / (1+x^2) + C),$$

where the set of parameters A, B, w and γ characterises a peak on the polarisation spectrum, and C is a constant (usually externally added) offset.

The intensity of the signal I_t depends explicitly on α , the difference between the absorption coefficient of left and right hand circularly polarised waves. In terms of the cross-sections we may write:

$$(2.12) \quad \Delta\alpha = \alpha^+ - \alpha^- = n_M (\sigma_{J''J'M}^+ - \sigma_{J''J'M}^-),$$

where $\sigma_{J''J'M}^{\pm}$ refers to the transitions $J''M \rightarrow J'M \pm 1$ and n_M is the volume density of the atoms in the sublevel M of the lower level J'' . The dependence of the σ 's on M may be factored out explicitly using the Wigner-Eckart theorem giving:

$$(2.13) \quad \sigma_{J''J'M}^{\pm} = \left| \langle J''M \pm 1 | J''M \pm 1 \rangle \right|^2 \sigma_{J''J'}$$

Thus the magnitude of the polarisation signal will depend on the particular lower and upper level and this dependence shows up as a summation of Clebch-Gordon coefficients. Values for $\Delta\alpha$ in terms of the C-G coefficients have been tabulated explicitly [Tee 77] for $J=0, \pm 1$ for linearly and circularly polarised pump beams. It turns out that for $J=\pm 1$ it is advantageous to use a circularly polarised pump; this is what has been used in the present work.

2.2.3) Frequency modulation.

In the previous section it was found that the intensity spectrum as a function of the laser frequency is given by (2.11). Hence, determination of the isotopic shift



between isotopes A and A' for a transition "i" involves finding the parameters of the equation describing the intensity spectrum; one of them being ω^i , the transition frequency. In fact, the absolute frequency is not found on a spectrum done over a limited frequency range, but differences in frequencies are given. Thus the IS is:

$$(2.14) \quad \delta\omega^{A'A} = (\omega^{A'} - \omega^A)$$

In a practical sense the polarisation signal to be detected is extremely weak and may not be detectable over the background. In the present work this problem is solved by modulating the laser frequency. This method was suggested by Pinard [Pin 86]. The polarisation signal will appear at the modulating frequency and may be discriminately amplified using a lock-in amplifier.

As the laser frequency " ω " is scanned it also has a small frequency modulation $\Delta\omega/2$. Thus the polarisation spectrum $I_e(\omega)$ is sampled in small intervals of width $\Delta\omega$ and the lock-in amplifier receives a peak to peak signal of $I_e(\omega + \Delta\omega/2)$ to $I_e(\omega - \Delta\omega/2)$. The spectrum will then have the shape of the derivative of the intensity, i.e., $I_e/\Delta\omega$, and is given by:

$$(2.15) \quad dI_e/d\omega = I_0' \left(\frac{A(1-x^2) - 2Bx}{(1+x^2) + C'} \right),$$

where C' is an externally added offset, to keep the spectrum

positive, and I_0' regroups all the multiplicative constants. In the case of I_0 , the appearance of resonance shaped peaks is favored by the selection of a small crossing angle of the polarisers (i.e., smaller than 1°) [Aud 85]. For the $dI_0/d\omega$ spectrum the opposite is true. For all the spectra shown in this work the crossing angles are around 2° .

Chapter 3: Experiment and Data

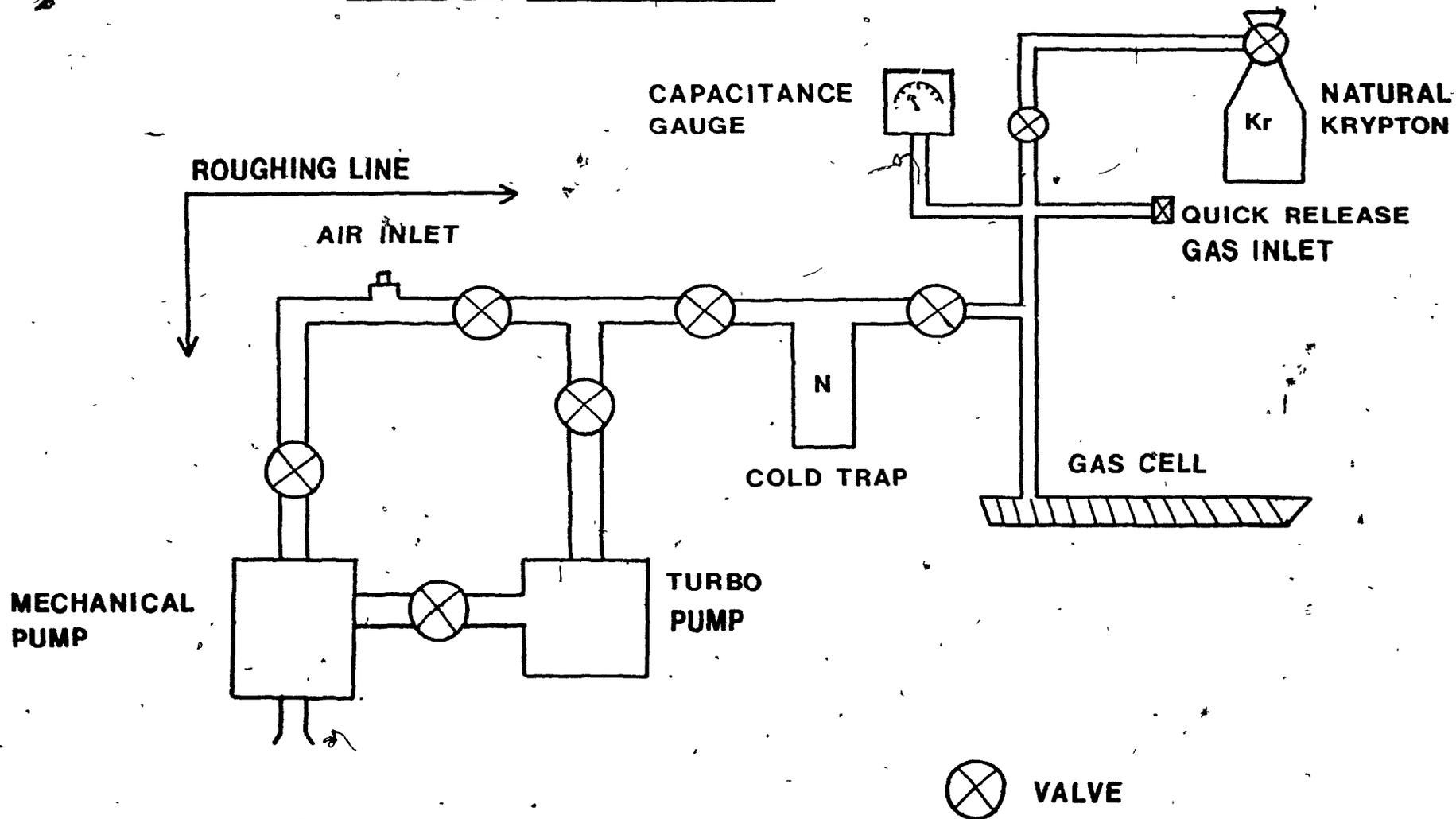
3.1) Experimental set-up and technique.

The following is a description of the experimental setup and technique, some elements of which will now be familiar to the reader from the previous section on polarisation spectroscopy. This section is divided into four parts: i) the vacuum and RF discharge systems, ii) the laser and optical components, iii) the signal, processing and data acquisition system, and finally, iv) a short section on the signal optimisation.

3.1.1) The vacuum and RF discharge systems

Figure 3.1 shows a schematic of the vacuum system. As is typical of such systems a roughing line, which uses a mechanical pump, brings the pressure down to the operating range of a turbo-molecular pump. The capacitance gauge operates in the mTorr range; it was checked with a McLeod mercury gauge and found to be correct to within ± 5 mTorr. Two gas inlet valves make possible varied mixtures of natural Kr and enriched isotopes (stable and eventually radioactive). It has been shown [Aud 85] that Kr pressures of 50 to 100 mTorr give the best polarisation signals.

FIGURE 3.1 VACUUM SYSTEM



The first excited state of Kr lies 10 eV above the ground state. For this reason the lower levels of optical transitions must be excited states. The lower level of the 587 nm transition is the short lived $5s[3/2]1$. The Kr gas cell is wound with a primary coil which carries an RF signal. The secondary circuit is an LC circuit with the secondary coil also wound around the gas cell. The Kr gas is excited via the RF discharge when the input signal is at the resonance of the LC circuit. Again it was shown by Audet [Aud 85] that the best polarisation signals are obtained for transmitted powers of 5 to 20 watts. The RF signal frequency is digitally varied around 30 MHz until the best discharge and power transmission are obtained.

3.1.2) The optics

The schematic of the laser system, spectrum analysing instruments and related optics are depicted in figure 3.2. A C.W. ring dye laser is used to get a tunable beam of monochromatic photons. The dye used is Rhodamine 6G which has a wavelength range of 560 to 610 nm with a peak at roughly 580 nm. At 587 nm it is possible to get 300 to 400 mW of continuous power. The dye laser is pumped with a 6 W beam of 514 nm photons from an argon ion gas laser.

The signal processing technique described in chapter 2 calls for the frequency modulation of the dye

laser. The laser is equipped with a frequency stabilizing feedback circuit which measures any drift in frequency and sends a correcting signal to one of the laser cavity mirrors mounted on a piezoelectric crystal. This system reduces the jitter to 1 MHz. The frequency is modulated by driving the crystal with a 1.5 KHz sine wave voltage of small amplitude. Fine tuning of the signal frequency and amplitude is done at the time of the experiment to optimize the polarisation signal.

A rough estimate of the laser wavelength is obtained from a wavemeter. The stability of the laser is monitored using a spectral analysing etalon which has mode spacings of 151.3 ± 0.8 MHz. During the experiments, an etalon spectrum is recorded for fixed mirror spacing and this serves as a frequency calibration for the associated IS spectrum. The laser frequency is scanned over 5 GHz so that the outer Kr^{83} hyperfine structure peaks may be observed.

The dye laser beam is linearly polarised at P_1 . The thick glass plate SR3 is used as a beam splitter; it gives two reflections, one on its front and the other on its back face. This double probe beam is sent along the axis of the gas cell. The left probe beam on fig. 3.2 is the signal beam which is overlapping with the pump beam. The other probe beam gives a reference signal at PM_{ref} , which is used in part to cancel birefringence of the cell windows or the finite extinction of the crossed polarisers, P_1 and P_2 . However, its main function is the cancellation of the Doppler

broadened absorption spectrum. More will be said on this later.

The transmitted beam at SR3 carries about 90% of the original intensity. It becomes circularly polarised at the $\lambda/4$ plate. It then reflects on M4 and counter propagates inside the gas cell with a maximum volume overlap with the signal probe beam.

3.1.3) Signal processing and data acquisition systems.

Figure 3.3 shows the signal processing and data analysis circuitry. For clarity, some of the optical components are reproduced here.

The relative sizes of the PM_{10} and PM_{10} signals are varied before subtraction. This is done with a differential amplifier (DOP) which was built by Audet. [Aud 85]. The resulting signal is amplified with a lock-in amplifier whose reference is at the same frequency as the frequency modulation of the laser. This eliminates the need for an external beam chopper and completely cuts out any background light. This way one obtains the derivative of the polarisation spectrum as described in chapter 2.

The etalon and polarisation spectra are recorded simultaneously. A digital-to-analog converter (DAC) supplies the external ramp voltage to the appropriate component inside the laser cavity for frequency scanning. The size and

duration of this ramp voltage is determined by the experimenter as the selections of scan time and width are made.

The data acquisition system and scan triggering and control are done from a computer which communicates with the analog-to-digital converters (ADC) and the DAC through a CAMAC interface.

3.1.4) Optimization of the signal

Some additional precautions are taken in order to optimize the signal.

The RF driven coils around the cell emit microwave radiation which may contribute to background noise in the electronics, and disturb the scanning of the laser. The problem is solved by enclosing the cell and coils inside a fine wire mesh cage that acts as a Faraday cage. As well, the windows of the cell are slightly angled to prevent reflections of the pump beam back into the detectors; because of its circular polarisation and intensity it would not be completely cut at P_2 and would saturate the detectors.

Final signal optimisation is achieved through the proper balancing of the reference and signal probe beams, proper phase adjustment of the lock-in amplifier and maximum overlap of the probe and pump beam.

Fig. 3.2 Optics

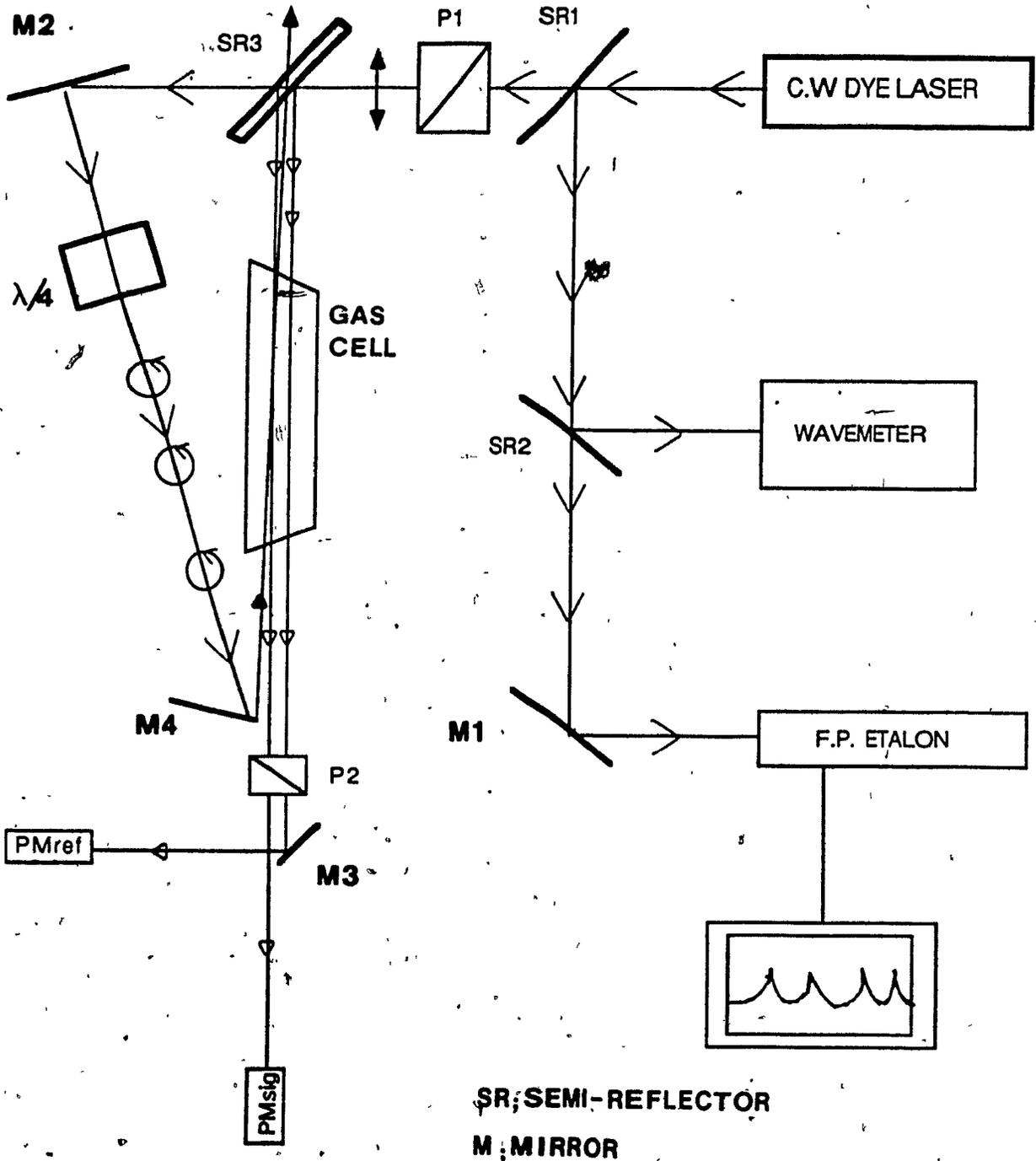
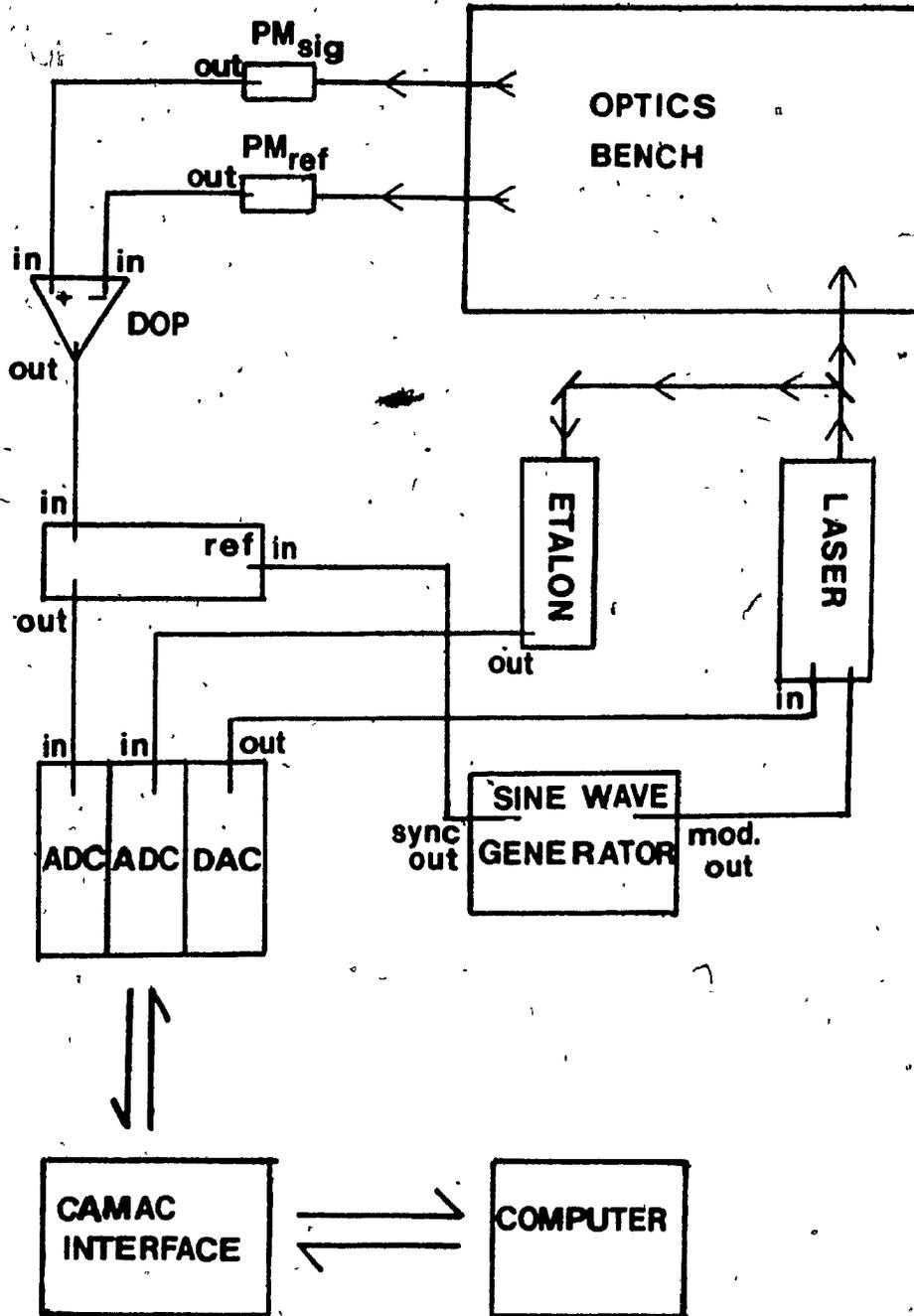


FIGURE 3.3 ELECTRONICS AND DATA ACQUISITION SYSTEM



3.1.5) Data processing.

In order to calibrate the frequency axis of the IS spectrum one records simultaneously an etalon spectrum. This consists of the light intensity on the output side of a F.P. etalon of fixed mirror spacing giving the familiar Airy function (see fig. 3.4b). The spectrum calibration is determined using a specially written program which finds the centroid of each peak and averages multiple peaks (which are due to slight laser instability and the frequency modulation). The average interpeak distance is found and the spectrum is calibrated using the known mode spacing.

Etalon peaks are also used by the data acquisition program to trigger scans when multiple scans and summing are desired. This, in principle, ensures perfect channel to channel correspondence between scans. This option could not be used in this work because of the frequency modulation; it gave wider etalon peaks of imperfect shape leading to an uneven trigger from scan to scan. The spectrum shown in this work are made up of single scans which were summed after the experiment with proper horizontal offsetting. Typically, each spectrum consists of the summation of 4 or 6 scans, but in one case 16 individual scans were added.

3.2) Spectrum.

Isotopic shift measurements have been done repeatedly on Kr isotopes in natural abundance and on mixtures containing enriched amounts of Kr⁷⁸. Some of the resulting spectra will be shown in the following section. Reference may be made to appendix A for the description of the Kr spectra.

3.2.1) Natural Kr.

Natural Kr consists of five even and one odd isotopes in the following abundances [Ger 77]; Kr⁷⁸ (0.35 %), Kr⁸⁰ (2.27 %), Kr⁸² (11.56 %), , Kr⁸⁴ (11.55 %), Kr⁸⁶ (56.90 %) and Kr⁸⁸ (17.37 %). The transition studied is 5s[3/2]J=1 to 5p'[3/2]J=2.

Figure 3.4 a) shows a spectrum of 5.6 GHz width of natural Kr and 3.4 b) shows the related etalon spectrum. The various peaks may be identified on the basis of their relative intensities. One may also rely on the fact that the main contribution to the total shift comes from the normal mass shift and is given by:

$$(3.1) \quad \delta\nu_{\text{mass}}^{\text{Kr}} = M_{\text{Kr}} - M_{\text{Kr}} \dots$$

and is positive for M_A greater than M_{A-} .

In the case of the hyperfine structure peaks, matters are a little more complicated. The total angular momentum J couples with the nuclear spin I to give $F=J+I$, where F may take any value from $J+I$ to $J-I$ in unit steps. The energy of a state defined by a particular J , I and F is displaced from the uncoupled level by an amount

$$(3.2) \quad W(F, I, J, A, B) = AK/2 + B \frac{[3/4 K(K+1) - I(I+1) J(J+1)]}{[2I(2I+1) J(J+1)]}$$

with $K = F(F+1) - I(I+1) - J(J+1)$ [Klu 77].

Identification of the hfs peaks calls for the evaluation of the A and B coefficients (one pair for each J level of the transition). The peaks have been identified on fig. 3.4 a); the next chapter will show in more detail the data analysis.

Figure 3.5 a) shows a close-up view of the Kr^{79} and Kr^{80} peak region to show the sensitivity of the technique. Better statistics are obtained by summing a large number of peaks. Figure 3.5 b) shows the same region as above on a spectrum made of the summation of 16 single scans. In this case the total scan width is only 1.5 GHz thus giving more points per peak. It was made in the hope of getting a very precise value for the $Kr^{80}-Kr^{82}$ IS to remove some ambiguity in the results obtained from wider scans.

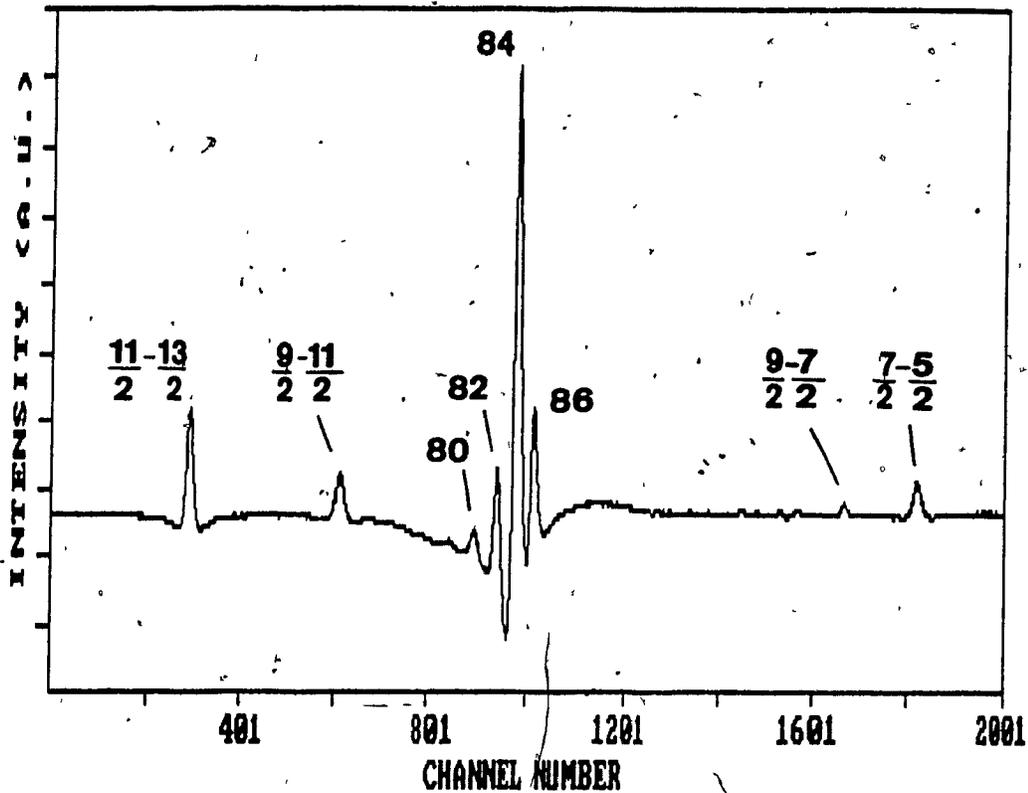
The resonance-like shape of the peaks is due to the selection of a relatively large angle (2°) away from

perfect crossing of the two polarisers. The parameters of the equation (2.15) describing these spectra are found using a specially written fitting program. A fit is shown overlapping the data on fig. 3.5 b).

3.2.2) Enriched Kr⁷⁸.

A sample of Kr enriched up to .99% in Kr⁷⁸ is used. It was mixed in different proportions to natural Kr. Figure 3.6 a) shows a spectrum obtained for a mixture of about 20 % Kr⁷⁸ and 80 % natural Kr. Figure 3.6 b) shows concentrations of 14 % Kr⁷⁸ and 86 % natural Kr. These relative concentrations were deduced from mixing of gas pressures. Note on these spectra the low intensity of the Kr⁸⁰ peak compared to its neighbors. Precise positioning of the Kr⁸⁰ transition cannot be done on these because its peak is shifted by the tails of the two intense adjacent ones. On such scans the Kr⁷⁸-Kr⁸² shift is obtained, and the Kr⁸⁰-Kr⁸² shift is found from the natural Kr spectrum; from these two shifts the Kr⁷⁸-Kr⁸⁰ shift is then known.

Figure 3.4
a) 5.6 GHz scan of natural Kr



b) etalon spectrum

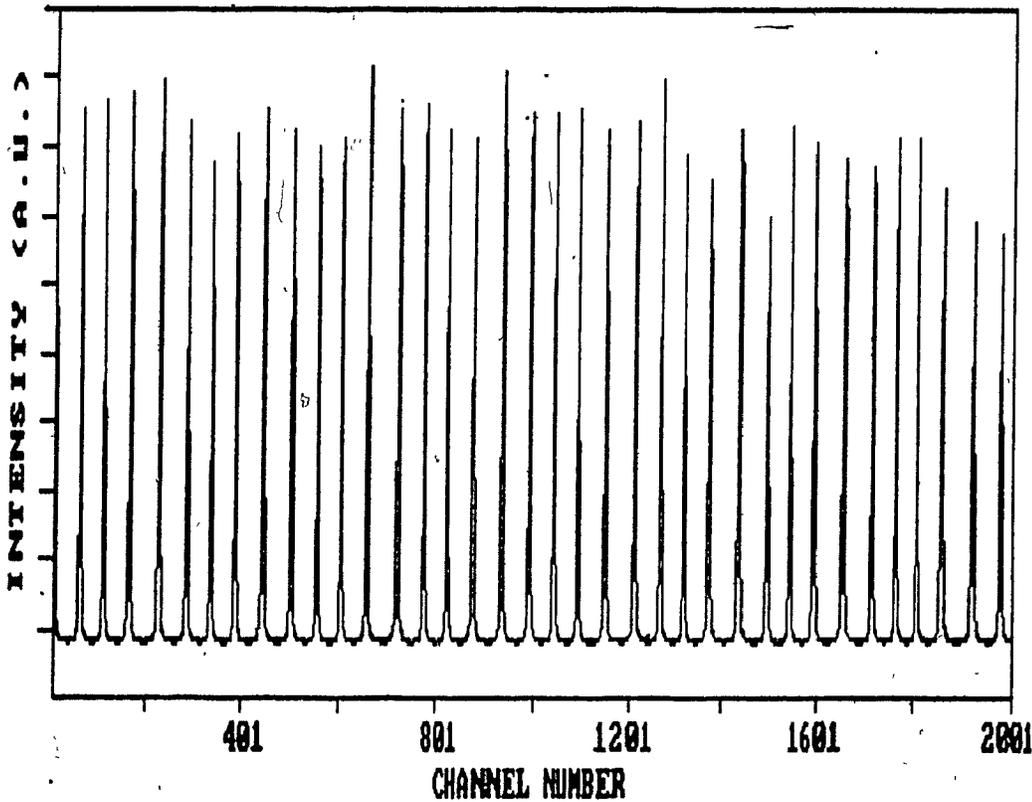
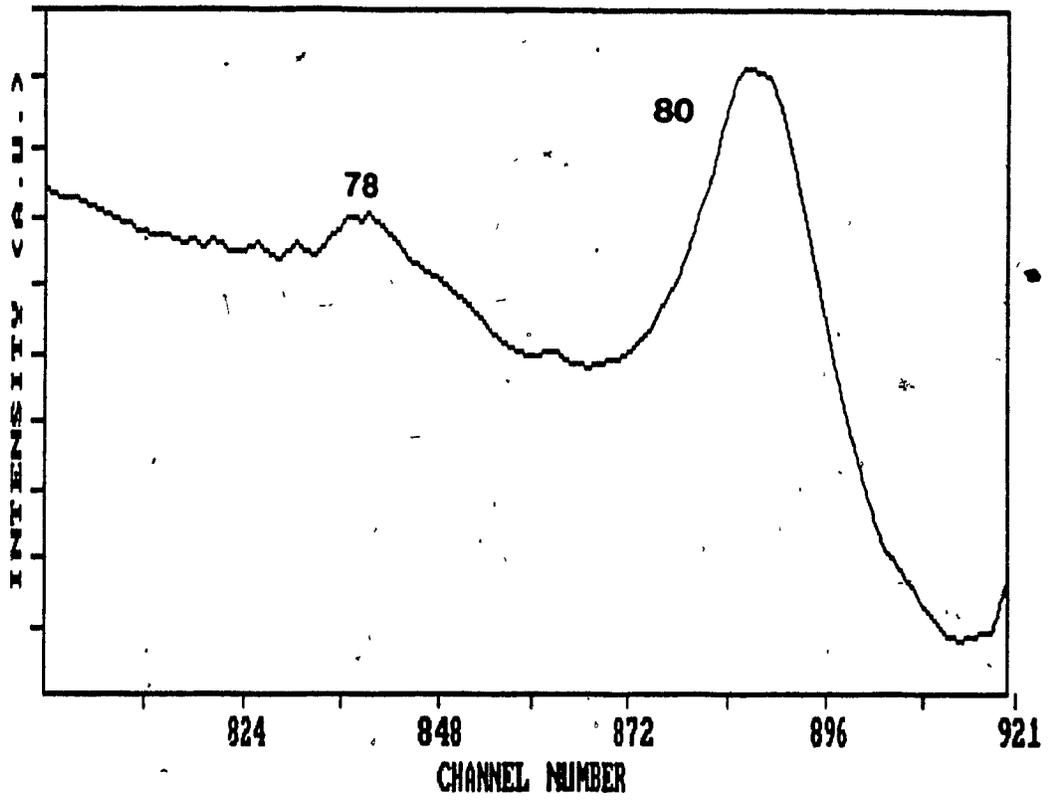


Figure 3.5

a) close up of Kr78_Kr80

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b) other close up

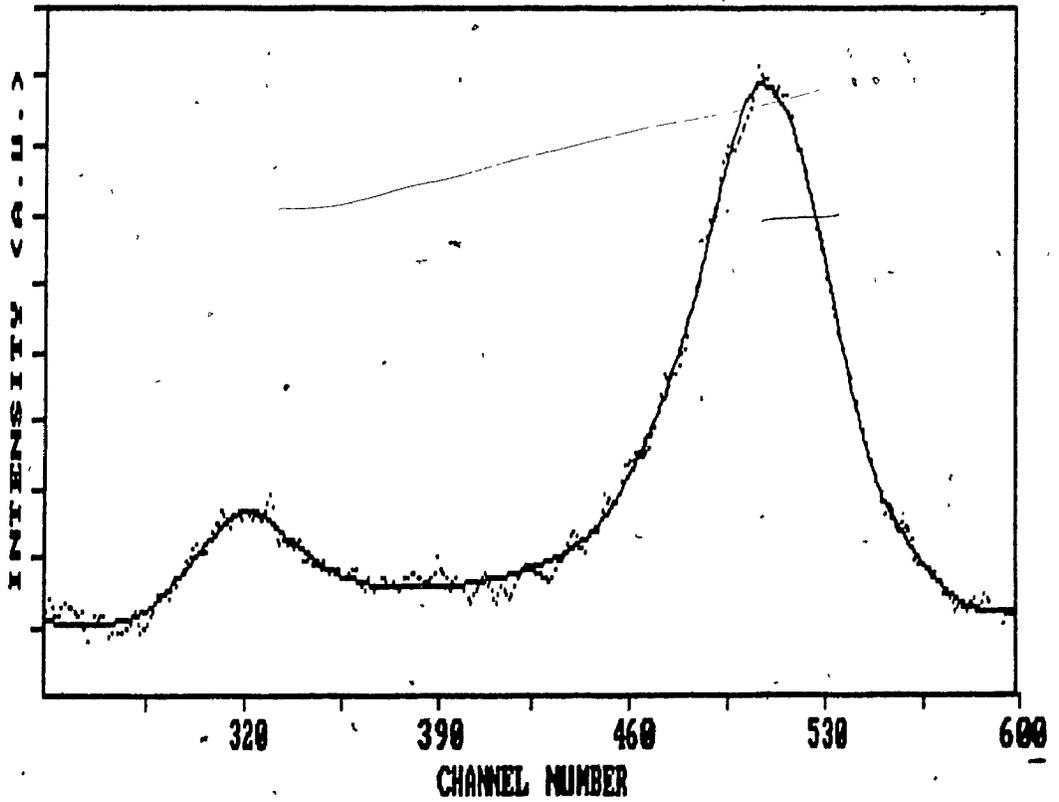
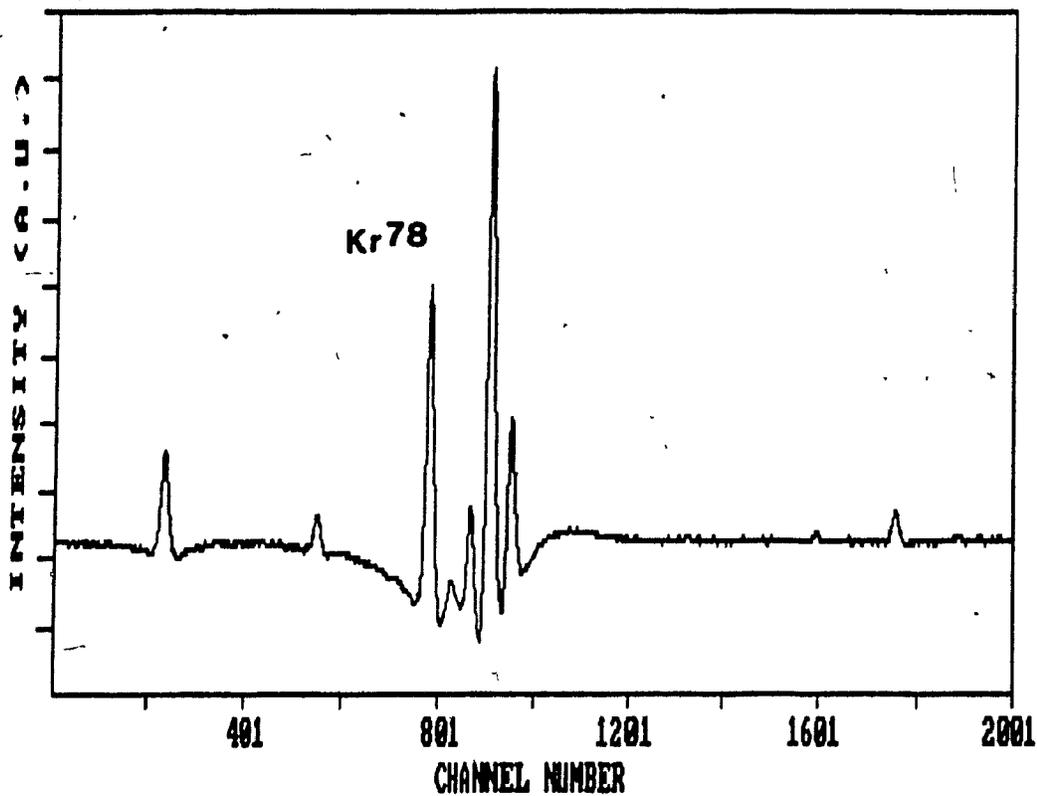


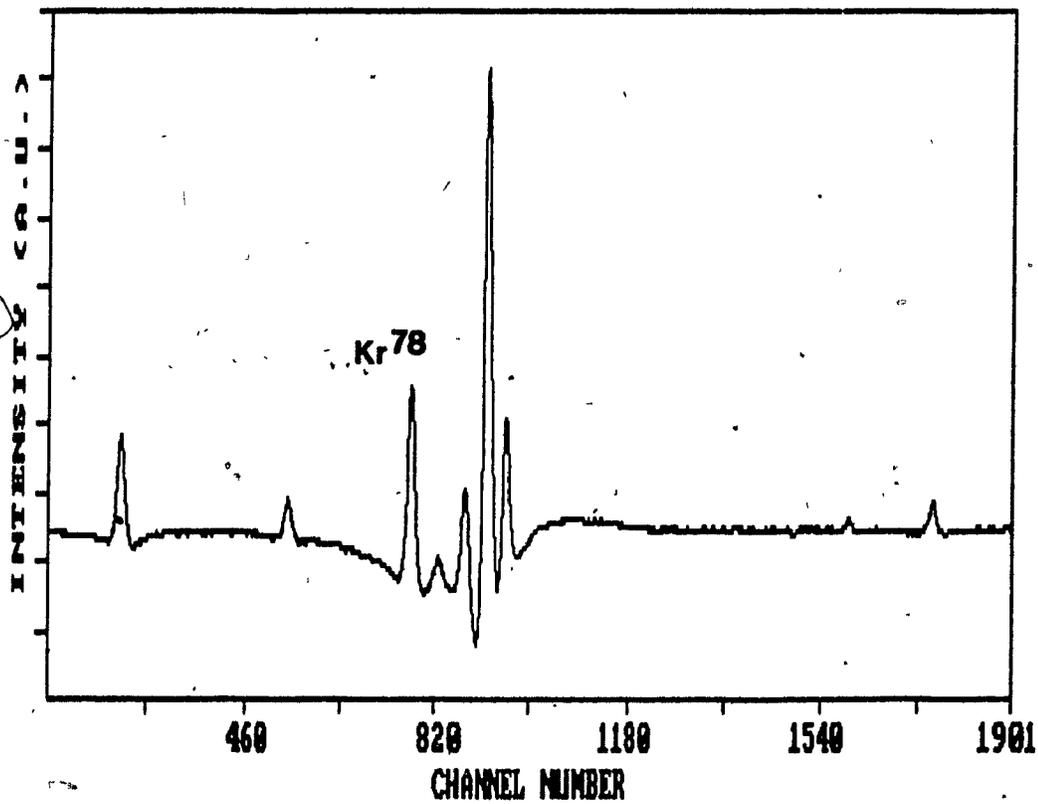
Figure 3.6 Enriched Kr⁷⁸ spectra.

a)

48



b)



3.3) Spectrum analysis

3.3.1) Doppler-broadened absorption profile.

The shape of the polarisation spectrum is given in part by equation (2.15). Another effect must be taken into account. The probe beam gives a signal when its polarisation axis is slightly rotated due its interaction with a saturated group of atoms whose velocity component along the beam axis is close to zero. This probe beam however is not immune to Doppler broadened absorption at frequencies other than the transition frequency. This absorption curve follows a Gaussian profile, or:

(3.3) $I(\omega) = I_0 \exp[-(c(\omega-\omega_0)/\omega_0 v_p)^2]$,

with $v_p = (2kT/M_A)^{1/2}$.

However, the frequency "ω" at which an atom will absorb the laser photon is dependent on the lifetime of the absorbing transition. The frequency response of the atom is represented by a Lorentzian profile. As mentioned in the previous description of absorption spectroscopy, the overall absorption profile is given by a convolution of the Gaussian and Lorentzian functions;

(3.4)
$$I(\omega) = C \int_0^\infty \frac{\exp[-(c(\omega_0-\omega')/\omega_0 v_p)^2]}{(\omega-\omega')^2 + (\gamma/2)^2} d\omega'$$

The shape of this absorption curve is further complicated by the fact that at the center of the spectrum we have not one, but four or five closely spaced transition frequencies. Equation (3.4) gives a familiar inverted bell-shaped curve. However due to frequency modulation we get the derivative as shown in figure 3.7 a). This was obtained by deliberately blocking the pump beam and unbalancing the signal and reference probe beams. Proper balancing of the two probes may somewhat flatten out this curve. In practice however, this effect always remained present. Figures 3.8 a) and b) show the peaks of the even isotopes sitting on absorption backgrounds of different shapes.

If the lifetime of the transition is short, then the linewidth is large and (3.3) suffices to describe the background. In the fitting procedure the background is approximated with:

$$(3.5) \quad dI(\omega)/d\omega = C_1 \exp[-(\omega_1 - \omega)^2/C_2] (\omega_1 - \omega) + C_2 .$$

The "dummy" frequency ω_1 should be centered around the Kr^{2+} peak since this transition should contribute the most to the background. C_2 characterizes the linewidth and should be large since it is hoped that (3.5) describes the absorption curve of the five closely spaced transitions. Figure 3.7 b) shows the fit of figure 3.7 a) to equation

(3.5). As expected the fit is only approximate, but is very good in the central portion where the polarisation peaks will appear.

3.3.2) Fitting procedure.

The equation to be fitted to the spectrum is:

$$(3.6) \quad I(\omega) = \sum_i [A_i (1-x_i^2) - 2B_i x_i^2] / (1+x_i^2)^2 + C_1 \exp[-(\omega_1 - \omega)^2 / C_2] (\omega_1 - \omega) + C_3$$

with $x_i = (\omega_{J,i} - \omega) / \gamma$.

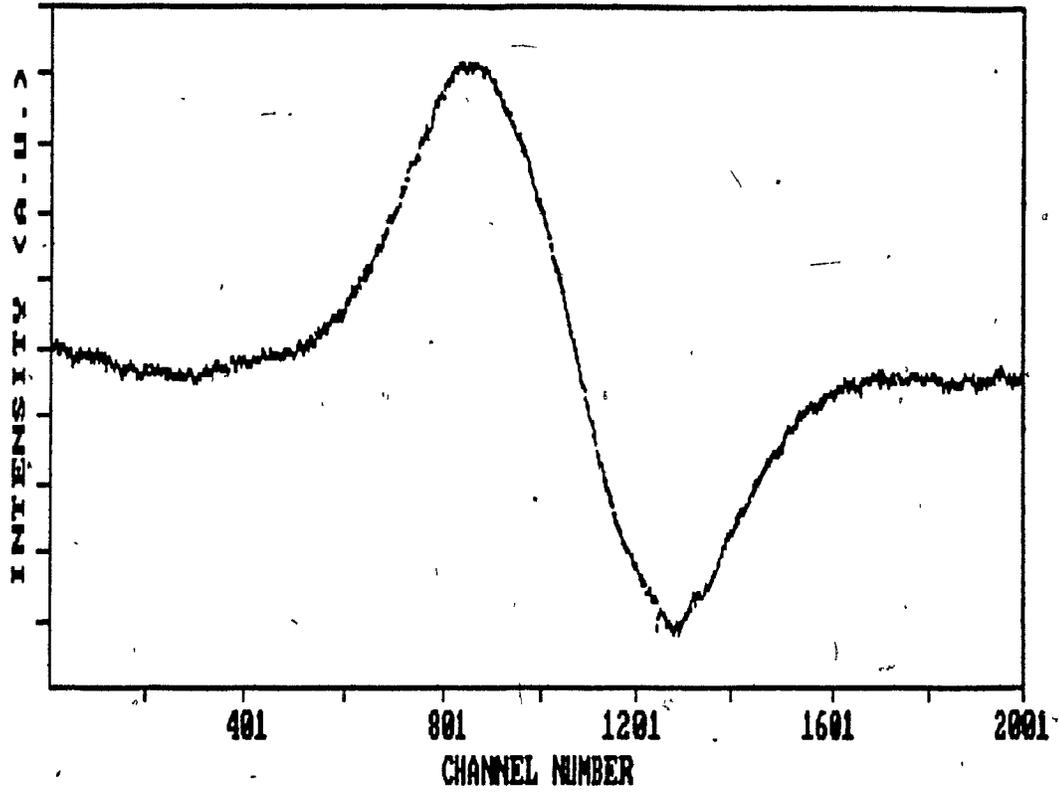
The sum is over the number of peaks present in the region to be fitted. Each peak is determined by four parameters and the background is determined by four parameters as well. Because of the complexity of the equation and the proximity of the peaks one may not determine the center of a transition by simple observation. Thus a fitting program called FITKR3 based on the subroutine CURFIT by Bevington [Bev 69] has been written. It employs a least squares fitting procedure in which all the parameters are searched simultaneously towards a minimum chi-square. Many fits have been done on every spectrum to test the consistency of the parameters found and to help in the estimation of errors. The fitting program is discussed in appendix B.

A fit of the $Kr^{78}-Kr^{80}$ region has already been shown on fig. 3.5. The fig. 3.9 displays the fit of the central portion of the scan. Figure 3.10 shows the point by point subtraction of the fit to the data to demonstrate the goodness of the fit. The reliability of a fit is assessed in many ways: there must be a maximum overlap of the fit to the data, the parameter C_0 describing the constant vertical offset must be constant for all the fitted regions of a given spectrum and the line width found must be realistic. Typically one finds line widths of 35 to 40 MHz, which is very good considering that the laser line width is 20 MHz.

The parameter of most importance is $\omega_{0,i}$ corresponding to the channel position of the i^{th} peak of the fit. The isotope shift between peaks "i" and "j" may then be determined from $\omega_{0,i} - \omega_{0,j}$ and the calibration given by the etalon spectrum. A 5.6 GHz wide scan over 2048 channels gives a calibration of typically 2.780 ± 0.025 MHz/channel.

Each spectrum gave a set of isotopic shifts, with errors based on the reproducibility of the fits. The final results and errors are averages of results and errors from individual spectra; the fitting routine gave underestimated errors. The $Kr^{84}-Kr^{86}$ and $Kr^{82}-Kr^{84}$ shift results are based on six multiple scans, the $Kr^{80}-Kr^{82}$ results are based on three multiple scans and finally two spectra gave consistent $Kr^{78}-Kr^{82}$ shift values.

a) Derivative of the Voigt profile.



b) Fit

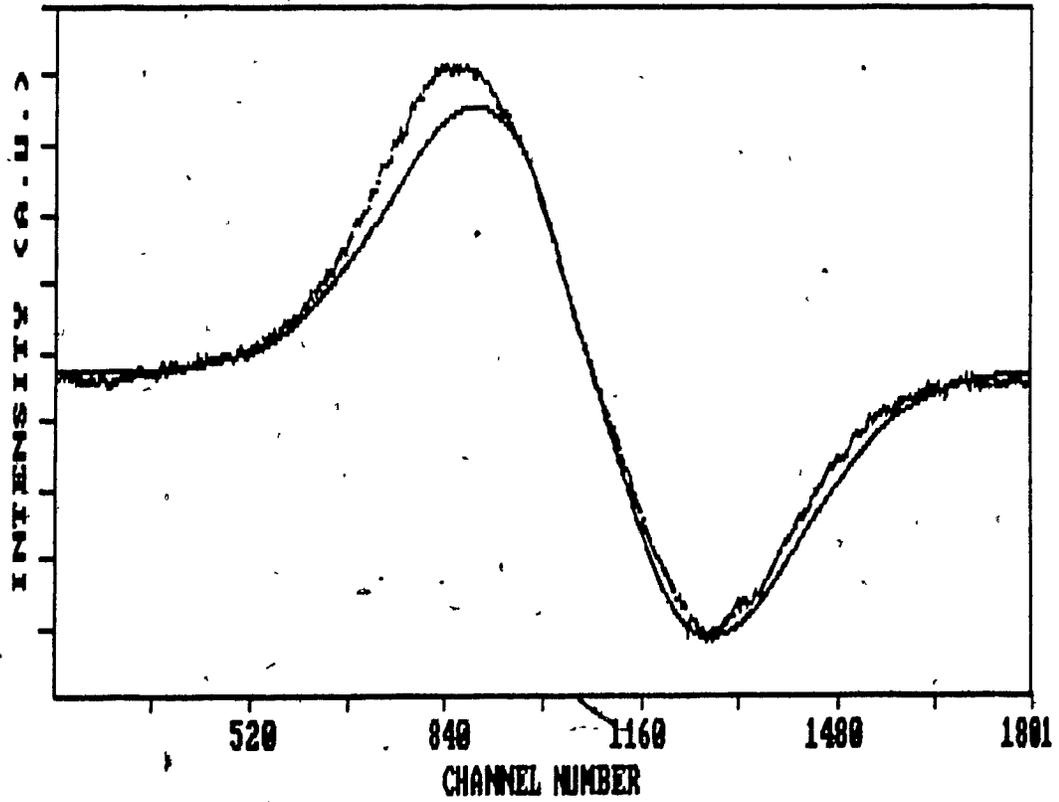


Figure 3.8 Even isotope peaks over different backgrounds.

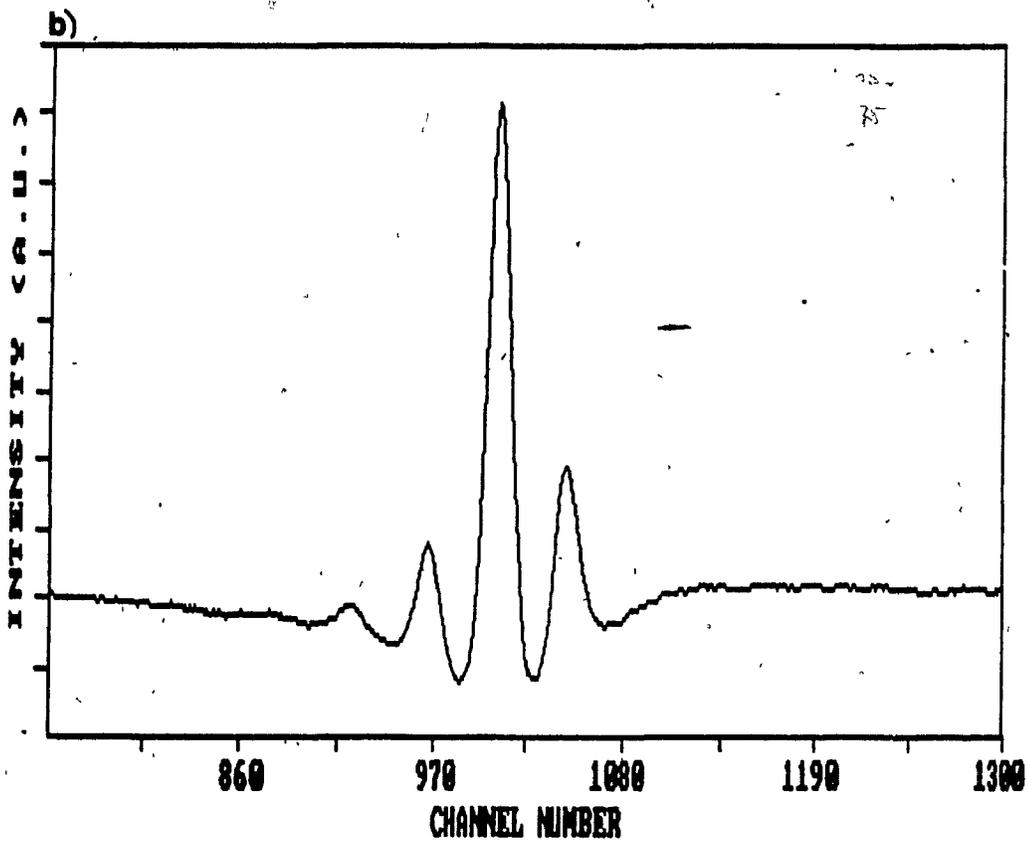
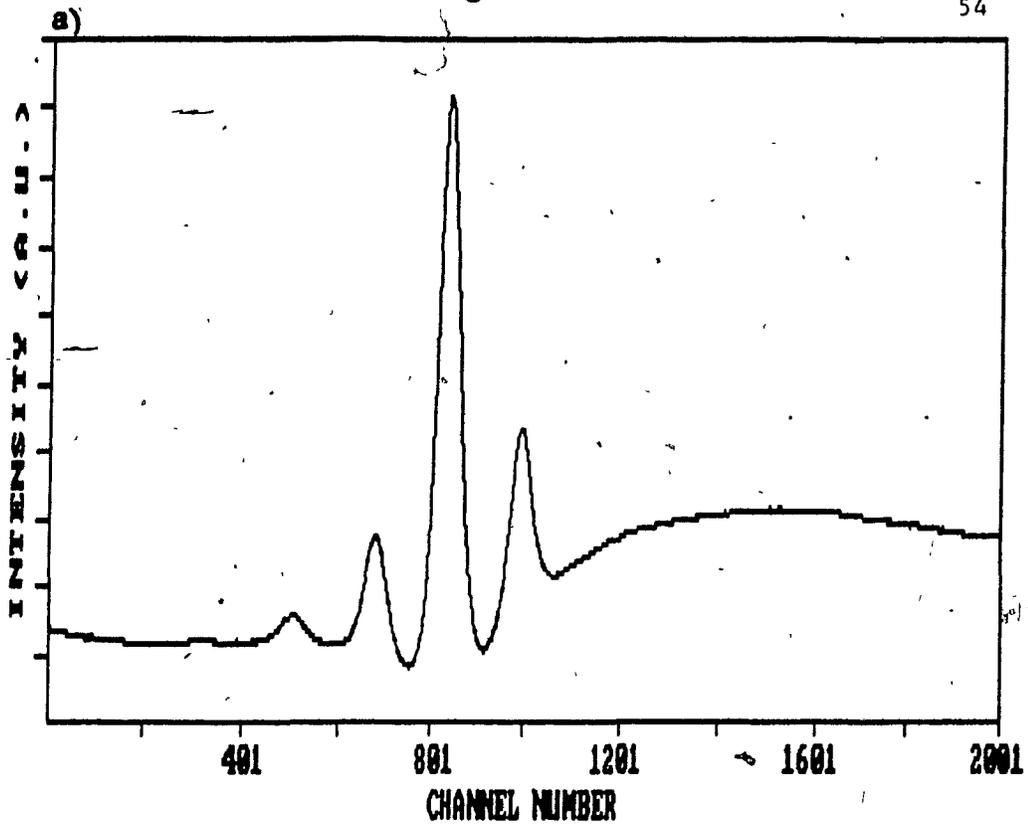


Figure 3.9 Fit of the even isotope peaks.

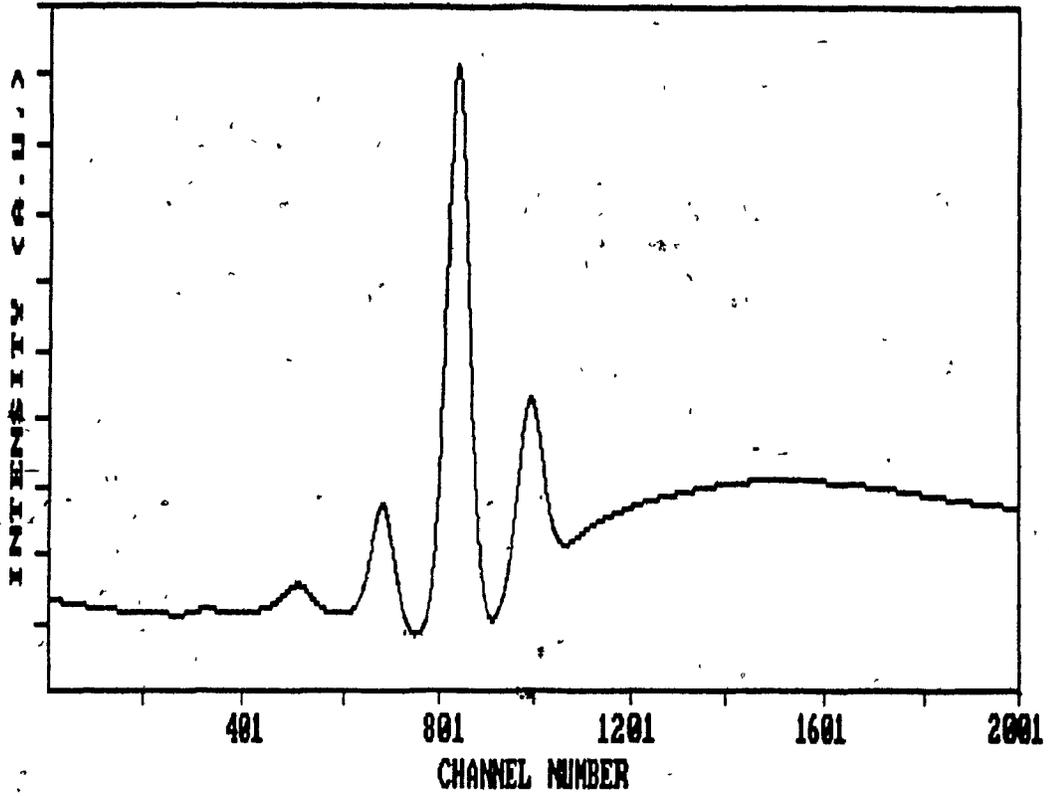
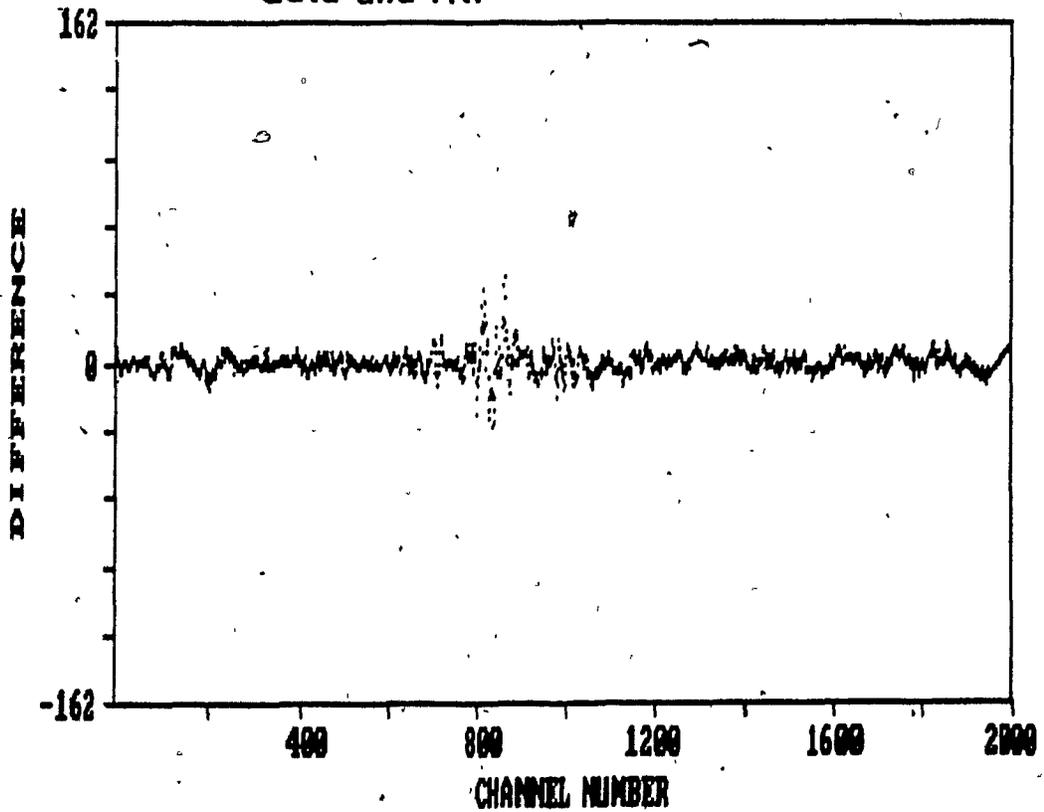


Figure 3.10 Point by point subtraction of the data and fit.



3.3.3) Sensitivity of the technique.

Figure 3.5 b) shows that very weak peaks may be observed by summing a very large number of individual scans; the peak on the left is Kr^{78} of 0.35% abundance and the other is Kr^{80} of 2.27% abundance. The relative sizes of these peaks set a lower detection limit of about 0.1%. The ideal gas equation gives an estimate of the density of atoms required

$$(3.6) \quad = n/V = P/RT N_A .$$

$$\text{For: } P = 40 \text{ mTorr} = 5.33 \text{ Pa} \\ T = 300 \text{ }^\circ\text{K}$$

$$\text{we find: } n = 1.3 \times 10^{12} \text{ atoms/cc ,}$$

which is the density of atoms giving the desired operating pressure. Thus, a Kr isotope present in a density of 1.3×10^{12} atoms/cc will give a detectable signal. The probe beam volume inside the cell is estimated to be 2 cc and the cell and adjacent valves and tubing volume is roughly 16 cc; 3×10^{12} atoms of any Kr isotope in the beam (i.e. 2×10^{12} atoms in the cell) will give a sizable peak.

From these numbers one finds that 8 mCi of radioactive Kr^{78} mixed with 40 mTorr of natural Kr are required to measure the shift of this isotope. This amount is within the reach of the production reaction $\text{Br}^{78}(p,4n)$ for long bombardment times. Thus, the present set-up gives the possibility of spectroscopy on radioactive isotopes of moderate lifetimes, i.e. a few hours.

Chapter 4: Data analysis and results

Finally, this chapter will show the results obtained from the series of spectroscopic measurements performed. The first section is on isotopic shift. The contributions of the three effects to the total shift will be examined and $\delta\langle r^2 \rangle$ evaluated for four isotope pairs. The results are to be compared with those obtained by Jackson [Jac 80]. In the second part, the A and B hyperfine structure coefficients of the upper level of the transition will be derived enabling the identification of the peaks of the spectrum shown on figure 3.4 a).

4.1.1) Isotopic shift results.

Each spectrum gave a set of isotopic shifts, with errors reflecting the reproducibility of the parameters generated by the fitting program. The final results and errors are averages from individual spectra. The resulting $Kr^{84}-Kr^{86}$ shift value is based on six multiple scans, while the $Kr^{80}-Kr^{82}$ result comes from three multiple scans, one of them being the sum of 16 single scans. Two enriched Kr^{78} spectra give the $Kr^{78}-Kr^{82}$ shift and so the $Kr^{78}-Kr^{80}$ shift is determined.

Table 4.1 displays the total shifts, the

calculated normal mass shifts, the residual shift (FS+SMS) and the modified residual shifts. The modified shifts are calculated using

$$(4.1) \quad \delta\nu^{AA'}_{587,FS+SMS} = \frac{M_{94-86}}{M_{AA'}} \delta\nu^{AA'}_{587,FS+SMS},$$

and displayed on a King plot.

Table 4.1: Kr isotope shifts (in MHz) for the 587 nm line.

peaks	$\delta\nu^{total}$	$\delta\nu^{NMS}$	$\delta\nu^{FS+SMS}$	$\delta\nu'^{FS+SMS}$
78-80	131.3 +/- 3.3	89.9	41.4 +/- 3.3	35.8 +/- 2.9
80-82	125.8 +/- 2.2	85.5	40.3 +/- 2.2	36.6 +/- 2.0
82-84	115.9 +/- 1.9	81.4	34.5 +/- 1.9	32.9 +/- 1.8
84-86	112.4 +/- 1.8	77.6	34.8 +/- 1.8	34.8 +/- 1.8

First evidence of a volume effect is given on graph 4.1 where the total shifts are plotted with respect to the normal mass shift. Without volume effects the total shift is strictly proportional to $M_{AA'}$ for a given transition, as shown by:

$$(4.2) \quad \delta\nu^{AA'}_{total} = M_{AA'} [M_{1,NMS} + M_{2,SMS}] + F_1 \delta^{AA'}(r^2),$$

which is equation (1.25) rearranged. Departure from linearity is due to a non-zero field shift term, i.e. a non-zero $\delta^{AA'}(r^2)$. The graph shows greater than expected

shifts in the lightest isotopes.

Table 4.2 shows the Kr IS measurements for the 557 nm line obtained by Gerhardt [Ger 79].

Table 4.2: Kr isotope shifts (in MHz) for the 557 nm line.

peaks	$\delta\nu^{\text{total}}$	$\delta\nu^{\text{NMS}}$	$\delta\nu^{\text{FS+SMS}}$	$\delta\nu^{\text{FS+SMS}}$
78-80	102.3 +/- 0.8	94.0	8.3 +/- 0.8	7.2 +/- 0.7
80-82	94.6 +/- 0.8	89.4	5.2 +/- 0.8	4.7 +/- 0.7
82-84	84.6 +/- 0.6	85.1	-0.5 +/- 0.6	-0.47 +/- 0.5
84-86	87.5 +/- 0.6	81.2	6.3 +/- 0.6	6.3 +/- 0.6

Plotting the modified shifts of the 587 nm line versus those of the 557 nm line yields a King plot. A straight line is expected as predicted by (1.27). Its slope gives $F(587)/F(557)$, and the offset is:

$$M_{84-86} [M(587)^{\text{SMS}} - F(587)/F(557) M(557)^{\text{SMS}}] .$$

The 557 nm transition data is used because the electronic factor $F(557)$ is known and is equal to $-0.54 \text{ GHz fm}^{-2}$, with no error given [Ger 79].

The King plot is shown on graph 4.2. Its slope is found to be 0.36 ± 0.17 which gives $F(587) = -0.19 \pm 0.09 \text{ GHz fm}^{-2}$. A theoretical estimate of $\delta^{\text{SMS}}\langle r^2 \rangle$ has been done and gave $-(32.1 \pm 20.1) \times 10^{-3} \text{ fm}^{-2}$ [Ger 79]. We now have all the required information to calculate the SMS contribution to the total shift and $\delta^{\text{SMS}}\langle r^2 \rangle$ for all the

isotope pairs. The following equations are used:

(4.3) a) $\delta\nu^{84-86}_{587, SMS} = \delta\nu^{84-86}_{587, SMS+FS} - F(587) \delta^{84-86}(r^2)$

b) $\delta\nu^{AA'}_{587, SMS} = M_{AA'} / M_{84-86} \delta\nu^{84-86}_{587, SMS}$

c) $\delta^{AA'}(r^2) = (\delta\nu^{AA'}_{587, SMS+FS} - \delta\nu^{AA'}_{587, SMS}) / F(587)$

The results are listed in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: SMS for the 587 nm line and $\delta^{AA'}(r^2)$

peak	$\delta\nu^{AA'}(587)_{SMS}$ (MHz)	$\delta^{AA'}(r^2) (\times 10^{-3} \text{ fm}^2)$
78-80	32.9 +/- 6.0	-40.2 +/- 32.9
80-82	31.3 +/- 5.7	-50.0 +/- 40.2
82-84	29.8 +/- 5.4	-24.2 +/- 32.0
84-86	28.4 +/- 5.2	-32.7 +/- 20.1

4.1.2) Isotopic shift results - Jackson [Jac 80]

For comparison the following results obtained by Jackson in 1980 are listed. These are used rather than Audet's [Aud 85] because they include measurements of the $Kr^{78}-Kr^{80}$ shifts. Table 4.4 displays the total shift, FS+SMS, and the modified residual shift. The NMS are the same as the ones given in table 4.1.

Table 4.4: Kr IS of the 587 nm line - Jackson [Jac 80]

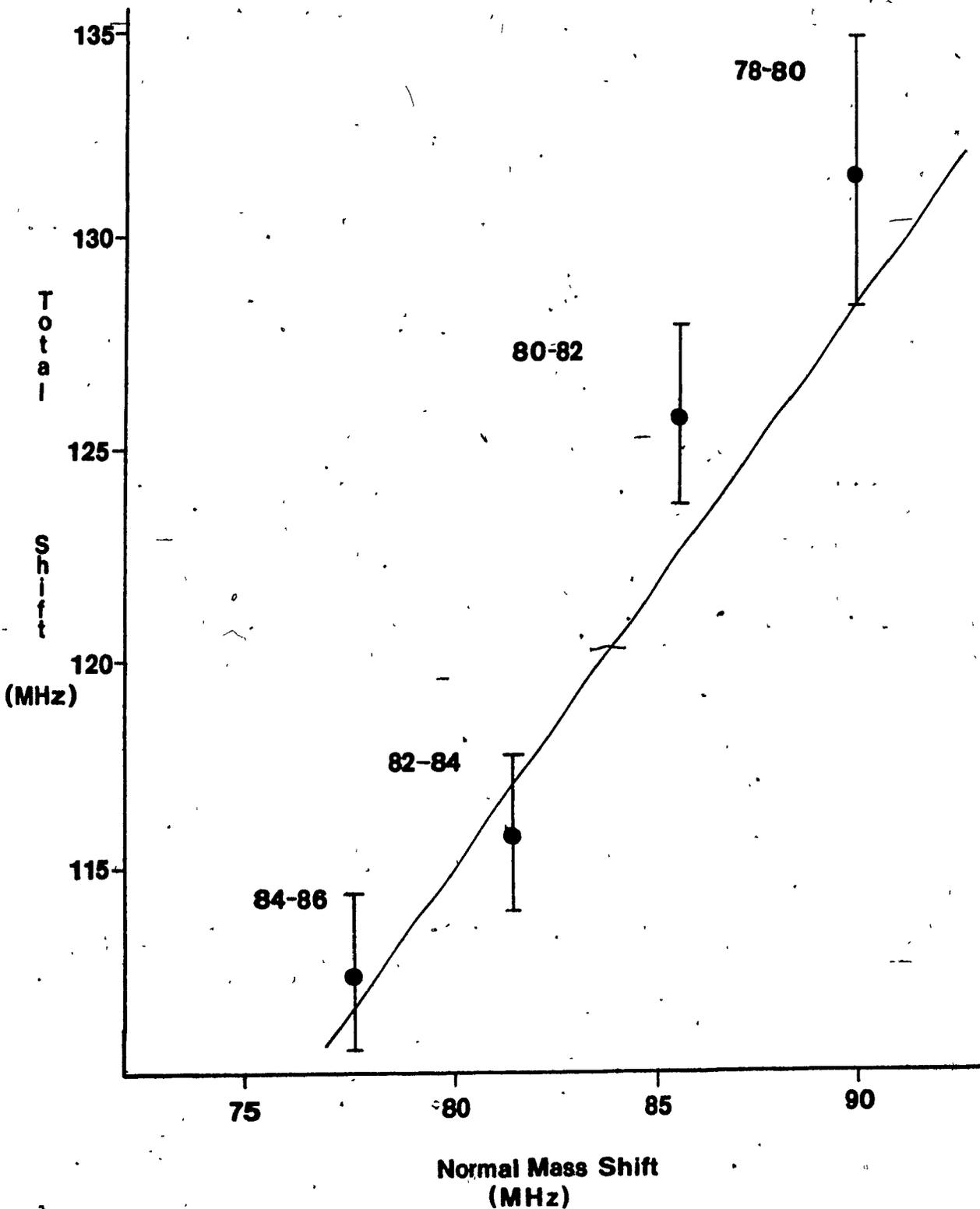
peaks	$\delta\nu^{\text{total}}$	$\delta\nu^{\text{FS+SMS}}$	$\delta\nu^{\text{FS-SMS}}$
78-80	133.5 +/- 3.3	43.6 +/- 3.3	37.7 +/- 2.9
80-82	124.2 +/- 3.0	38.7 +/- 3.0	35.1 +/- 2.7
82-84	114.0 +/- 3.0	32.6 +/- 3.0	31.1 +/- 2.9
84-86	113.1 +/- 1.5	35.5 +/- 1.5	35.1 +/- 1.5

Jackson's modified residual shifts plotted as a function of the 557 nm shifts from Gerhardt yield a King plot of slope 0.78 ± 0.26 . This gives an electronic factor $F(587) = -0.42 \pm 0.14 \text{ GHz fm}^{-2}$. Table 4.5 displays the SMS and the $\delta^{\text{SMS}}\langle r^2 \rangle$ obtained from these results.

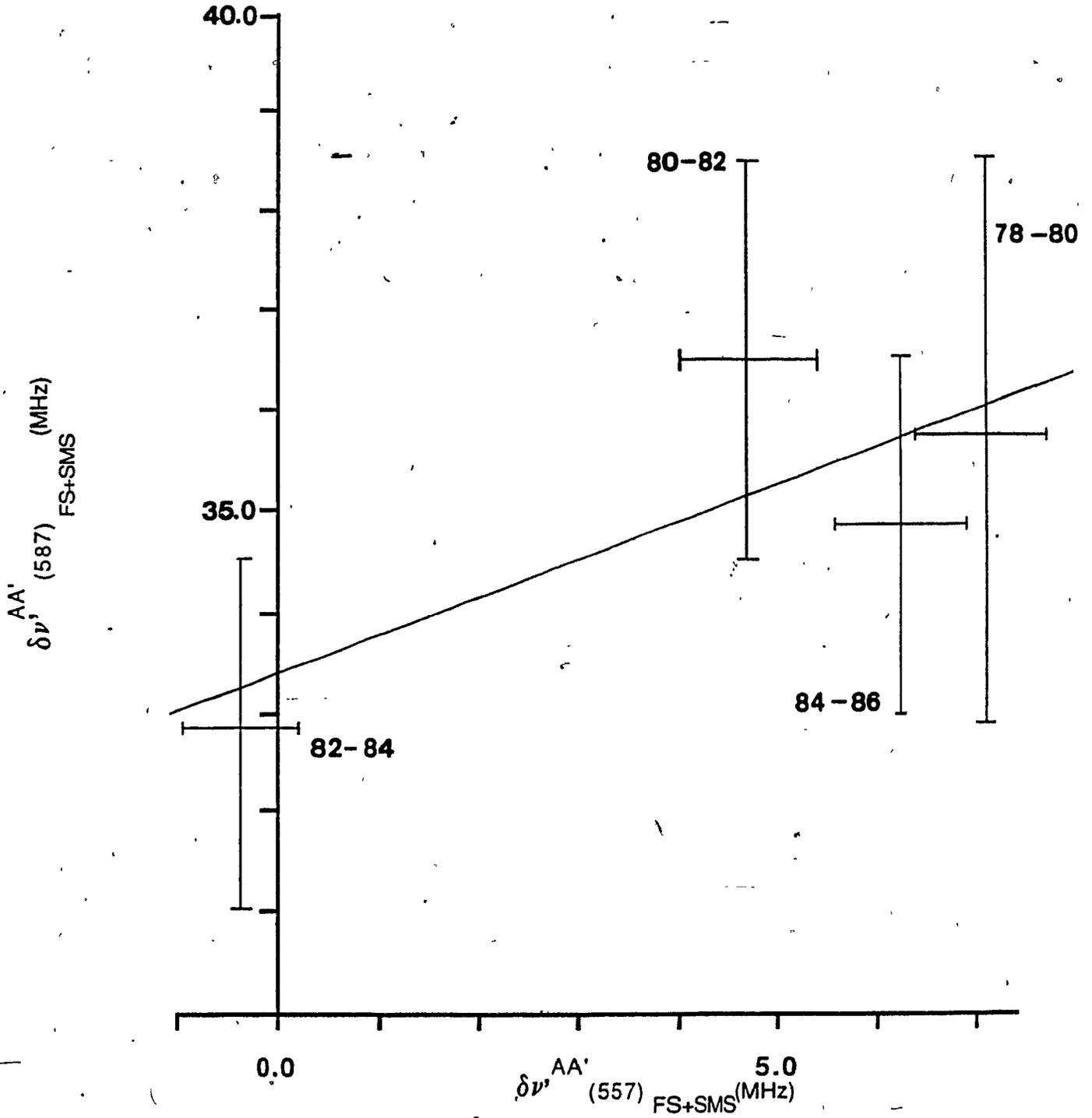
Table 4.5: SMS for the 587 nm line and $\delta^{\text{SMS}}\langle r^2 \rangle$ - Jackson

peaks	$\delta\nu^{\text{SMS}}(\text{MHz})$	$\delta^{\text{SMS}}\langle r^2 \rangle \times 10^{-3} \text{ fm}^2$
78-80	25.1 +/- 11.3	-44.0 +/- 31.0
80-82	23.9 +/- 10.8	-35.2 +/- 28.8
82-84	22.8 +/- 10.3	-23.3 +/- 26.6
84-86	21.7 +/- 9.8	-32.7 +/- 20.1

Graph 4.1 Total shift versus specific mass shift



Graph 4.2 King Plot



4.1.3) Discussion of the results

The results of the present work confirm the findings of past experiments. The isotopic shifts involving the s level in krypton cannot be due totally to the mass effect: volume effects are present.

Our results for $\delta\nu^{AA'}\langle r^2 \rangle$ confirm the observation of Gerhardt who studied the 557 nm transition in 1977 [Ger 77]. Adding neutrons in the lower half of the $g_{7/2}$ shell (A=78 to A=82) introduces the largest change in $\delta\langle r^2 \rangle$ compared to filling the upper half (A=82 to 86). This is also observed on graph 4.1 which shows shifts greater than those expected for the $Kr^{78}-Kr^{80}$ and $Kr^{80}-Kr^{82}$ pairs.

As expected the $\delta^{AA'}\langle r^2 \rangle$ are negative, as adding neutron pairs brings the number of neutrons close to the magic number. Radioactive Kr^{78} is now believed to be one of the most deformed nuclei in the ground state [Mar 86], while the closed shell Kr^{86} is spherical. Thus, the $\delta^{AA'}\langle r^2 \rangle$ give evidence of a change in the nuclear shape from Kr^{78} to Kr^{86} . This gives ample motivation to perform studies of the $Kr^{78}-Kr^{86}$ shift.

The total shifts measured here are in good agreement with those obtained by Jackson. However, the residual shifts $\delta\nu^{r86-88}$ are very close for all the isotope pairs. These yield a King plot whose slope seems arbitrary considering the relative magnitude of the errors. The electronic factor obtained here is $F(587) = -0.19 \pm 0.09$

GHz fm⁻², while Jackson's result is -0.42 +/- 0.14 GHz fm⁻². This discrepancy is understandable; a difference of only one channel in a shift measured on a spectrum means eventually displacing a point by 2.5 MHz on the King plot. Despite the difference in F(587), the values for the SMS and $\delta^{AA'} \langle r^{-2} \rangle$ agree with Jackson's results. The most that one may realistically hope for is to determine unambiguously the sign of $\delta^{AA'} \langle r^{-2} \rangle$, and estimate the relative contributions of the NMS, SMS and FS to the total shift.

4.2) Hyperfine structure.

On figure 3.4 a) four hfs peaks belonging to Kr⁸³ are labelled. In this section, the A₂ and B₂ coefficients of the hyperfine splitting of the upper level will be determined bringing about the identification of all visible hfs peaks. As shown in appendix A, the upper level of the transition 5s[3/2]1-5p'[3/2]2 has five hyperfine sublevels, while the lower transition has three, giving nine allowed transitions. The difference in energy between an upper and a lower sublevel may be written as:

$$(4.4) \quad E_{21} = E_2 + W_{F2} - (E_1 + W_{F1}) = E_2 - E_1 + (W_{F2} - W_{F1})$$

where E₂ and E₁ are the center of the upper and lower levels, and W_{F1} and W_{F2} are the hyperfine splittings of the

particular sublevels. The quantity $E_2 - E_1$ is the expected transition energy in the absence of hyperfine splitting, which may be assumed to be at the center of the spectrum, i.e. very close to the Kr^{84} peak. The energy $W_{F_2} - W_{F_1}$ is then the distance of the hfs peak to the Kr^{84} peak.

The A and B coefficients of the splitting of the lower level have been found by Jackson [Jac 77]. They are:

$$A_{J-1} = -160.4 \pm 0.6 \text{ MHz,}$$

$$B_{J-1} = -105.9 \pm 0.6 \text{ MHz.}$$

Thus the distance of any hfs peak to the Kr^{84} peak is given by:

$$(4.5) \quad W(I=9/2, J=2, K') - W(I=9/2, J=1, K) = \frac{1}{2} K' A_2 + B_2 / 432 \\ [3/4 K' (K' + 1) - 148.5] + 80.2 K + 1.47 [3/4 K (K + 1) - 49.5]$$

according to equation (3.2). Audet has done a thorough study of the hfs of Kr^{84} and found the two leftmost peaks to belong to the transition $11/2 - 13/2$ and $9/2 - 11/2$. On our spectrum these peaks are separated from the Kr^{84} peak by -1011 ± 17 MHz and -1874 ± 17 MHz respectively. Putting these numbers and the appropriate K values in (4.5) gives $A_2 = -295.4$ MHz and $B_2 = 143.5$ MHz.

With these values of A_2 and B_2 the two leftmost peaks may be identified. One could try the remaining seven hyperfine transitions, put the appropriate K values in (4.5) and match the measured separations to the calculated ones. Using some foresight we try the $9/2 - 7/2$ and $7/2 - 5/2$

transitions. Table 4.6 lists the measured and calculated separation of the four hfs peaks to the Kr^{84} peak.

Table 4.6 Kr^{83} to Kr^{84} peak distances (in MHz).

transition	measured	calculated
11/2-13/2	-1874 +/- 17	-1874
9/2-11/2	-1011 +/- 17	-1011
9/2-7/2	1887 +/- 25	1987
7/2-5/2	2337 +/- 30	2491

The two last transitions listed are those which give the best correspondence between the measured and calculated separation. Now that four hfs peaks are identified one may find better values of A_2 and B_2 which do not rely on the assumption that the Kr^{84} peak and the center of gravity of the Kr^{83} transitions coincide. Instead the actual hfs peaks separations are used.

The separation between the two leftmost peaks is 874.5 MHz and yields the equation:

$$-6.5 A_2 - .542 B_2 = 1854.3 \text{ MHz}$$

The separation between the two rightmost peaks is 450.5 MHz and yields the equation:

$$-3.5 A_2 + .437 B_2 = 1061.6 \text{ MHz}$$

Solving these give $A_2 = -292.5$ MHz and $B_2 = 86.6$ MHz. This places the center of the Kr^{83} transitions 53 ± 34 MHz to the left of the Kr^{84} peak; i.e. halfway between the Kr^{82}

and Kr^{84} peaks. The high error is a reflection of the high error in the evaluation of the position of the low intensity Kr^{83} peaks (as shown on table 4.6). There is also a large uncertainty associated with the spectrum calibration due to non-linearity in the laser scanning, giving a large cumulative error over wide intervals such as those which characterise hfs.

The other five Kr^{83} peaks lie between the four peaks studied. In Audet's work, the $9/2-9/2$ and $7/2-7/2$ peaks were clearly visible, but they remain undetected here. However, the $9/2-7/2$ peak is found here and was invisible to Audet; the reason for this is not known. One possibility is that the frequency modulation technique favors some peaks over others due to the different form of the $I(\omega)$ spectrum (see equation 3.5)

Conclusion

This work has demonstrated the usefulness of using a double probe beam and frequency modulating the laser output, as modifications to the technique of polarisation spectroscopy. Perfect elimination of the Doppler-broadened absorption background could not be achieved, but it could be substantially reduced. The frequency modulation gave spectrum and background which are derivatives of the amplitude modulated technique; this complicated somewhat the spectrum intensity equation. Hence, the positioning of the transitions called for a lengthy fitting procedure. However, the sensitivity attained using this background reducing technique allows isotopic shift measurements for isotopes present in concentrations as low as 0.1 %.

Measurements of isotope shifts were done on the stable even Kr isotopes in natural and enriched mixtures. The resulting calculations yielded the separation of the field and the specific mass shifts and the $\delta\langle r^{-2} \rangle$ were found. The enriched mixtures were used to enhance the signal from the less abundant Kr^{78} isotope to improve the precision over previous measurements. Also the A and B hyperfine splitting coefficients of Kr^{82} were determined for the upper level and the center of gravity of the hyperfine transitions was found.

The high sensitivity attained with the present technique should allow the determination of the shift between the radioactive Kr^{76} and the stable Kr^{78} isotopes. This should be most interesting due to the strong deformation of Kr^{76} .

Appendix A: KrI spectra

A.1) Even isotopes

For rare gases L-S coupling does not hold and the excited energy levels must be found on the basis of jl coupling, where j is the angular momentum of the core which has one hole due to the excited electron, and l is the orbital angular momentum of the electron. It turns out that the levels are grouped in pairs with the total angular momentum J varying by one unit. A conventional way to describe a state is $nl[K]J$, where n and l are the principal and orbital angular momentum quantum numbers of the excited electron, K is the angular momentum obtained from the jl coupling, and may take on the values from $|j+1|$ to $|j-1|$ in unit step. J is the total angular momentum of the state obtained from the vector addition of K and s , the excited electron's spin. For a given " nl " excited state it may happen that this identification scheme yields more than one state of particular K and J values. For this reason the one formed using the lowest j value (hence, highest in energy) is written as $nl'[K]J$.

In the case of KrI, the ground state is $4p^6 1S_0$. A first set of excited levels is found from the $4p^5 5s^1$ group. This leaves a hole in the core having $l_h=1$, $s_h=1/2$ giving $j=3/2, 1/2$. The excited electron has $l=0$ and $s=1/2$. The core angular momentum $j=3/2$ couples with l to give the states;

$5s[3/2]2$ and

$5s[1/2]1$.

The angular momentum $j=1/2$ gives the primed states;

$5s'[1/2]1$ and

$5s'[1/2]0$.

The second group of excited levels are from the group $4p^2 5p^1$, and it is now easy to show that the following states are obtained;

with $j=3/2$;

$5p[5/2]3$

$5p[5/2]2$

$5p[3/2]2$

$5p[3/2]1$

$5p[1/2]1$

$5p[1/2]0$ and

with $j=1/2$;

$5p'[3/2]2$

$5p'[3/2]1$

$5p'[1/2]1$

$5p'[1/2]0$.

The energy level diagram is shown on figure A.1; The 557 nm line correspondig to the $5p'[3/2]2-5s[3/2]2$ transition and the 587 nm line corresponding to the $5p'[3/2]2-5s[3/2]1$ transition are shown.

A.2) Hyperfine splitting of the 587 nm line of Kr^{82}

The last neutrons in Kr fill the $g_{9/2}$ shell. Kr^{82} has one unpaired neutron and thus possesses a nuclear spin $I=9/2$. An electronic level of angular momentum J has the hyperfine sublevels given by $F=J+I$. Hence, the upper level

of the 587 nm transition has the hyperfine sublevels $13/2, 11/2, 9/2, 7/2, 5/2$, and the lower level has the sublevels $11/2, 9/2, 7/2$. The nine allowed transitions obey the selection rules $F=0, +/-1$. They are shown in figure A.2. The lines which show up on the polarisation spectrum are the $11/2-13/2$ and $9/2-11/2$ on the left, and $9/2-7/2$ and $7/2-5/2$ on the right of the even isotope peaks.

Fig. A.1: Energy levels of the $4p^65s^1$ and $4p^65p^1$ groups of Kr I.

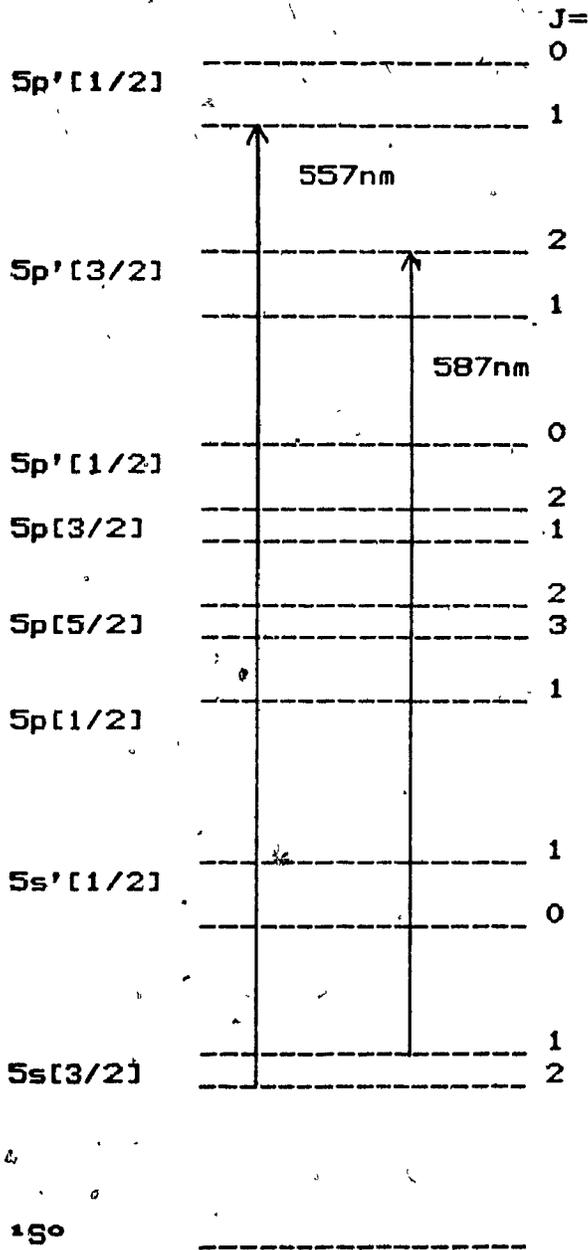
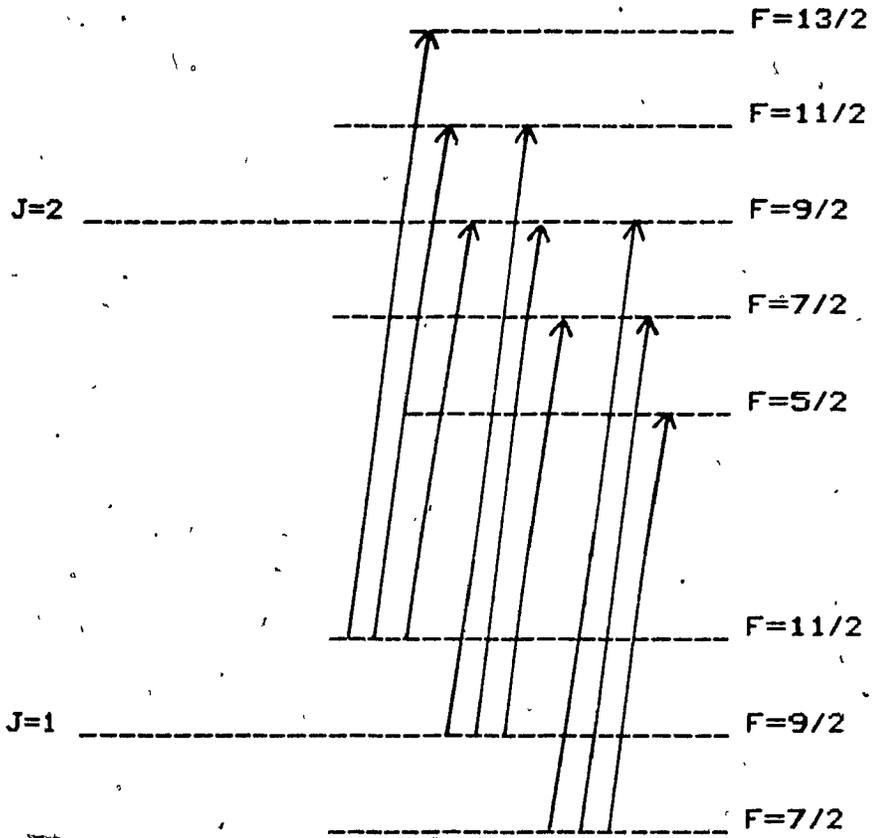


Fig. A.2: Hyperfine transitions of Kr⁸³.



Appendix B: Programs

A few programs have been specially written to analyse and display the spectrum. Little will be said about the display program except that it is based on a graphics subroutine package called HALO [HAL-85]. The program, written in FORTRAN, allows the overlay of two spectra, which shows its usefulness when data and fits are compared. The etalon calibration and the spectrum fitting programs are described next in greater detail.

B.1) Etalon calibration program

The listing of the etalon calibration program, called FPEAK, is given at the end of this appendix. Its purpose is to find the average etalon peak separation and to find the calibration using the known mode spacing. It relies first on a lower threshold parameter, LOTH, and considers every channel whose content is greater than LOTH as being part of a peak. The peak's boundaries are defined by the first channel on the left to the last channel on the right which are above the threshold. After a peak has been found, its centroid is calculated (lines 72 to 75).

When all points have been analysed and a set of peaks have been found, the intervals between all the peaks

must be greater than a user-specified lower limit (line 104). Closely spaced peaks are considered as multiple peaks caused by the frequency modulation of the laser and a weighted average center is found (lines 105 and 106). Finally, the average interpeak separation and average deviation from the mean are found, giving the spectrum calibration and error using the etalon mode spacing.

B.2) The spectrum fitting program

The fitting procedure consists of a main program and three related subroutines. They are:

FITKR2; main program which handles data input/output and the parameter search,

MATINV; matrix inversion subroutine found in Bevington [Bev 69],

FCHISQ; subroutine to calculate χ^2 , also from [Bev 69],

FUNCTN2; function subprogram containing the polarisation equation to fit to the data.

FITKR2 is based on a parameter search subroutine called CURFIT written by Bevington. It does a simultaneous search of all the parameters of the equation to be fitted through the minimization of the χ^2 . Following is a description of the fitting procedure.

Call $y(i)$ the function to be fitted and y_i the data in channel "i". The function $y(i)$ depends on the

parameters a_j to be found. The function may be expanded to first order in the parameters;

$$(b.1) \quad y(i) = y_0(i) + \sum_{j=1}^{n_{\text{PARA}}} [\partial y_0(i) / \partial a_j \delta a_j],$$

where the sum is over the number of parameters. The problem boils down to evaluating the δa_j 's to bring the function close to the data. To do this the χ^2 is minimized with respect to the parameter increments δa_j 's;

$$(b.2) \quad \chi^2 = \sum_i^{n_{\text{POINTS}}} 1/\sigma_i^2 \left[y_i - y_0(i) - \sum_j^{n_{\text{PARA}}} [\partial y_0(i) / \partial a_j \delta a_j] \right]^2;$$

$$(b.3) \quad \partial \chi^2 / \partial \delta a_k = -2 \sum_i 1/\sigma_i^2 \left[y_i - y_0(i) - \sum_j [\partial y_0(i) / \partial a_j \delta a_j] \right] \partial y_0(i) / \partial a_k = 0.$$

This yields a matrix equation in δa_j 's;

$$(b.4) \quad \beta_k = \sum_j^{n_{\text{PARA}}} \delta a_j \alpha_{jk} \quad \text{with}$$

$$(b.5) \quad \beta_k = \sum_i^{n_{\text{POINTS}}} 1/\sigma_i^2 (y_i - y_0(i)) \partial y_0(i) / \partial a_k$$

$$\alpha_{jk} = \sum_i^{n_{\text{POINTS}}} 1/\sigma_i^2 \partial y_0(i) / \partial a_j \partial y_0(i) / \partial a_k.$$

The FITKR2 requires starting input parameters. The first χ^2 is calculated and minimized giving the set of n equations. These yield simultaneously increments to all the parameters which are put back in the function to be fitted, and a new χ^2 is found. To accelerate the parameter search

and prevent divergence, a special feature is used to vary the direction of the search in parameter space. The matrix equation (b.4) is rewritten as;

$$(b.6) \quad \beta_k = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \alpha_{jk} (1 + \delta_{jk} \lambda)$$

The parameter λ determines the search direction. If it is large the matrix equation becomes n separate equations:

$$(b.7) \quad \beta_j = \lambda \delta a_j \alpha_{jj}$$

which gives increments δa_j in the direction of the gradient $\partial y_o(i) / \partial a_j$. In successive iterations, if the χ^2 increases, λ is multiplied by 10 to accelerate the convergence. If the χ^2 decreases, then λ is divided by 10 to slow down the search and prevent divergence. Other schemes to vary λ may be used and the successfulness of a fit on this scheme and on the initial input values of λ and a_j 's.

Now examine the FITKR2 program. The data and initial parameters are read in lines 60 to 118. Then the σ_i 's (WEIGHT(I)) are evaluated from lines 122 to 136. In lines 142 to 173 the β_k 's and α_{jk} 's are evaluated calling upon the subprogram FUNCTN2. In lines 155 to 162, the partial derivatives of the function with respect to the parameters are found. At line 182, the initial χ^2 is calculated. The matrix $\bar{\alpha}$ is inverted at line 197 and the new

parameters are found at line 205. These are put back in the function at line 216. If the new χ^2 is greater than the old one, λ is multiplied by .10 and new parameters are found. If the new χ^2 is smaller, the new parameters become the input parameters to the fit, λ is divided by 10 and a new iteration begins. When the χ^2 decreases by less than a user-specified tolerance value, or when the number of iterations have reached a preset upper limit, the resultant parameters are put in a formatted file (lines 246 to 266) and the fit to the data is saved (line 272).

The MATINV and FCHISQ subroutine have been borrowed unaltered from Bevington [Bev 69]. The FUNCTN2 function subprogram contains the derivative of the polarisation spectrum intensity equation (2.15).

```
D Line# 1 7 Microsoft FOPTPAN77 V3.20 02/84
 1 C Program FPEAK used to analyse the etalon spectrum. It
 2 C finds the center of gravity of each peak, finds the
 3 C number of peaks; the mean interpeak distance and the
 4 C mean square deviation from this mean. The program
 5 C prompts the user for the etalon spacing and thus cali-
 6 C brates the spectrum. The program eliminates spurious
 7 C peaks which are usually below a certain threshold spe-
 8 C cified by the user. The printout will contain the mean
 9 C interpeak distance and its error and the positions of
10 C the peaks. The following integer variables are used:
11 C X(2048)= array of channel contents
12 C LOTH= lower threshold value
13 C WAPEA= weighted area (sum of chan.# * content)
14 C APEA= sum of channel content within a peak
15 C The following real variables are used:
16 C DIF(60)= array containing interpeak distances
17 C AVIN= average interpeak distance
18 C ETSP= mode spacing of the etalon in MHz
19 C ETEP= error on ETSP
20 C CAL= calibration
21 C EPCAL= error on the calibration
22 C CMX(60)= array containing the cm of each peak.
23 C The Tolerance refers to the width in channels within
24 C which multiple peaks should be considered as making up
25 C a single peak and be averaged. The choice of LOTH and
26 C TOL must be optimised to give the smallest error.
27 C
28 PEAL DIF(60),CMX(60),AVIN,SMEAN,ETSP,ETEP,CAL,EPCAL,ERFOP,
29 $ FLOAT,TOL
30 INTEGER*4 X(4096),LOTH,WAPEA(60),APEA(60)
31 CHARACTER*1 ANS1,ANS2
32 CHARACTER*20 DUMMY,PEAK
33 C
34 WRITE(*,50)
35 1 CONTINUE
36 WRITE(*,100)
37 READ(*,1100) DUMMY
38 OPEN(UNIT=1,FILE=DUMMY,STATUS='OLD',FORM='BINARY')
39 WRITE(*,150)
40 READ(*,*) N
41 C
42 C NOW READ ALL THE DATA FROM THE ETALON FILE INTO X(N).
43 C
44 READ(1) (X(I),I=1,N)
45 CLOSE(1)
46 3 CONTINUE
47 WRITE(*,200)
48 READ(*,*) LOTH
49 WRITE(*,225)
50 READ(*,*) TOL
51 WRITE(*,*) 'MARKER 1'
52 J=1
53 I=1
54 DO 2 K=1,60
55 APEA(K)=0
56 WAREA(K)=0
57 2 CONTINUE
58 C
59 C IN THE FOLLOWING LOOPS THE ETALON DATA IS EXAMINED. IF A
```

```

D Line# 1      7      Microsoft FORTRAN77 V3.20 02/84
60 C      PEAK IS FOUND ITS CM IS CALCULATED. THIS IS DONE UNTIL I=N.
61 C
62 C      THE FOLLOWING TEST IS DONE TO ENSURE THAT WE DO NOT START
63 C      IN THE MIDDLE OF A PEAK.
64 4      CONTINUE
65      IF (X(I) .GT. LOTH) THEN
66          I=I+1
67          GO TO 4
68      ENDIF
69 5      CONTINUE
70      IF (I .GE. N) GO TO 8
71      IF (X(I) .GT. LOTH) THEN
72          WAPEA(J)=WAPEA(J)+(X(I)-LOTH)*I
73          APEA(J)=APEA(J)+X(I)-LOTH
74          IF (X(I+1) .LE. LOTH) THEN
75              CMX(J)=FLOAT(WAPEA(J))/FLOAT(APEA(J))
76              I=I+1
77              J=J+1
78              GO TO 5
79          ELSE
80              I=I+1
81              GO TO 5
82          ENDIF
83      ELSE
84          I=I+1
85          GO TO 5
86      ENDIF
87 C
88 C      WE NOW HAVE THE FOLLOWING; J-1 PEAKS FOUND, CMX( )
89 C      WHICH CONTAINS THE J-1 PEAK POSITIONS.
90 C
91 8      J=J-1
92      WRITE(*,*) 'MARKER 2'
93      IF (J .EQ. 0) THEN
94          WRITE(*,250)
95          GO TO 60
96      ENDIF
97 C
98 C      THE FOLLOWING LOOP DETERMINES IF THE PEAKS ARE SINGLE
99 C      OR MULTIPLE PEAKS.
100 C
101      L=1
102 85     CONTINUE
103      WRITE(*,*) L
104      IF ((CMX(L+1)-CMX(L)) .LE. TOL) THEN
105          CMX(L)=(CMX(L+1)*FLOAT(APEA(L+1))+CMX(L)*FLOAT
106 $      (APEA(L)))/(AREA(L+1)+APEA(L))
107          AREA(L)=APEA(L)+APEA(L+1)
108          DO 97 I=L+1,J-1
109              CMX(I)=CMX(I+1)
110              APEA(I)=APEA(I+1)
111 97     CONTINUE
112          J=J-1
113          IF (L .EQ. J) GO TO 96
114          L=L-1
115      ENDIF
116      L=L+1
117      IF (L .LE. (J-1)) GO TO 85
118 96     CONTINUE

```

```
D Line# 1      7
119 *      WRITE(*,*) 'MAPYEP 3'
120 C
121 C      NOW CALCULATE THE AVERAGE INTERPEAK DISTANCE
122 C
123      AVIN=(CMX(J)-CMX(1))/FLOAT(J-1)
124      DO 10 I=1,J-1
1 125      DIF(I)=CMX(I+1)-CMX(I)
1 126 10     CONTINUE
127      DIF(J)=0
128 C
129 C      CALCULATE THE MEAN SQUAPE DEVIATION.
130 C
131      WRITE(*,*) 'MAPYEP 4'
132      SMEAN=0
133      DO 20 I=1,J-1
1 134      SMEAN=SMEAN+(DIF(I)-AVIN)**2
1 135 20     CONTINUE
136      ERPOP=SQRT(SMEAN)/FLOAT(J-1)
137 C
138 C      PEAD IN THE ETALON SPECIFICATIONS.
139 C
140      WRITE(*,300)
141      PEAD(*,*) ETSP,ERSP
142      CAL=ETSP/AVIN
143      EPCAL=CAL*(ERPOP/AVIN+ERSP/ETSP)
144 C
145      WRITE(*,400)
146      READ(*,1100) PEAF
147      OPEN(UNIT=2,FILE=PEAF,STATUS='NEW',FORM='FORMATTED')
148 C      ENTER RESULTS IN THE OUTPUT FILE.
149      WRITE(2,525) PEAF,DUMMY
150      WRITE(2,450) AVIN,ERPOP
151      WRITE(2,710) ETSP,ERSP
152      WRITE(2,500) CAL,EPCAL
153      WRITE(2,505) TOL
154      WRITE(2,510) LOTH
155      WRITE(2,550)
156      WRITE(2,600) (I,CMX(I),DIF(I),I=1,J)
157      CLOSE(2)
158 C
159 C      DO AGAIN ?
160      WRITE(*,650)
161      PEAD(*,1500) ANS1
162      IF (ANS1 .EQ. 'N') GO TO 60
163      WRITE(*,700)
164      READ(*,1500) ANS2
165      IF (ANS2 .EQ. 'Y') THEN
166      DUMMY='
167      GO TO 1
168      ELSE
169      GO TO 3
170      ENDIF
171 C
172 C      WRITE FORMATS:
173 C
174 50      FORMAT('0',' THIS PROGRAM WORKS FOR A MAX OF 60 ETALON PEAFS',/)
175 100     FORMAT(' ENTER THE ETALON FILENAME :',/)
176 150     FORMAT(' ENTER THE # OF CHANNELS (2048,4096):',/)
177 200     FORMAT(' ENTER THE LOWER THRESHOLD :',/)
```

```

D Line# 1      7      Microsoft FORTRAN77 V3.20 02/84
178 225  FORMAT(' ENTER PEAK RESOLUTION IN # OF CHANNELS:',/)
179 250  FORMAT(' NO PEAKS WERE FOUND ABOVE THRESHOLD',/)
180 300  FORMAT(' ENTER INTERMODE SPACING, ERROR IN MHZ:',/)
181 400  FORMAT(' ENTER OUPUT FILENAME:',/)
182 450  FORMAT(' THE MEAN PEAK SEPARATION IS ',F7.3,1X,
183      $      'WITH AN ERPOP OF ',F5.3,' CHANNELS',/)
184 500  FORMAT(' THE SPECTRUM CALIBPATION IS ',F6.3,2X,
185      $      'WITH AN ERPOP OF ',F5.3,' MHZ/CHAN',/)
186 505  FORMAT(' THE TOLERANCE IS ',F3.0,' CHANNELS',/)
187 510  FORMAT(' THE THRESHOLD IS ',I4,' COUNTS',/)
188 525  FORMAT('O',10X,A7,4X,A7,/)
189 550  FORMAT('O',10X,'PEAK NO.',5X,'PEAK POSITION',7X,'INTERVAL',
190      $      '/',',10X,'*****',5X,'*****',7X,'*****',/)
191 600  FORMAT(' ',13X,I2,10X,F8.3,11X,F8.3)
192 650  FORMAT(' ANOTHER TRY (Y/N) ')
193 700  FORMAT(' READ A NEW ETALON SPECTRUM (Y/N) ',/)
194 710  FORMAT(' INTERMODE SPACING IS ',F6.2,' +/- ',
195      $      'F4.2,' MHZ',/)
196 C
197 C      READ FORMATS:
198 C
199 1100  FORMAT(A20)
200 1500  FORMAT(A1)
201 C
202 60    STOP
203      END
  
```

Name	Type	Offset	P	Class
ANS1	CHAR*1	17458		
ANS2	CHAR*1	17459		
AREA	INTEGEP*4	17106		
AVIN	PEAL	17402		
CAL	PEAL	17430		
CMX	PEAL	16866		
DIF	PEAL	2		
DUMMY	CHAR*20	17346		
EPCAL	PEAL	17434		
ERPOP	PEAL	17418		
EPSP	PEAL	17426		
ETEP	PEAL	*****		
ETSP	PEAL	17422		
FLOAT				INTPINSIC
I	INTEGER*4	17370		
J	INTEGEP*4	17386		
K	INTEGEP*4	17390		
L	INTEGER*4	17394		
LOTH	INTEGER*4	17378		
N	INTEGER*4	17366		
PEAK	CHAR*20	17438		
SMEAN	PEAL	17410		
SQRT				INTRINSIC
TOL	PEAL	17382		
WAPEA	INTEGER*4	16626		
	INTEGER*4	242		

```
D Line# 1      7      Microsoft FORTRAN77 V3.20 02/84
1 *NOFLOATCALLS
2 C      Program FITKR to fit the IS spectrum over
3 C      a predetermined range and find the centers
4 C      a maximum of 7 peaks.
5 C      Based on the subroutine CUPFIT by Bevington
6 C      and on MANFIP by Audet.
7 C      Complementary subroutines:
8 C      . FUNCTN=parameter dependent equation of
9 C      the spectrum to be fitted
10 C      FCHISQ=finds chi-square of the function
11 C      MATINV=matrix inversion program.
12 C      FITKR prompts the user for the channel interval
13 C      to be fitted and the starting parameters. The
14 C      chi-square is then calculated. The minimisation
15 C      to first order of the chi-square gives NTEPMS
16 C      equations with an equal number of unknowns. The
17 C      matrix is inverted and new parameters are found.
18 C      The program looks for the best parameters in the
19 C      parameter space in steps size set by FLAMDA.
20 C
21 C      Real variables:
22 C      A(NTEPMS)=parameter array
23 C      DELTAA(NTEPMS)=interval array for derivative
24 C      SIGMAA(NTERMS)=parameter error array
25 C      B(NTERMS)=new parameter array
26 C      DEPIV(NTEPMS)=partial derivative array
27 C      YFIT(NPTS)=fitted spectrum array
28 C      FLAMDA=parameter space search step size
29 C      CHISQ1=initial chi-square
30 C      CHISQ2=test chi-square
31 C      CHISQ=final chi-square
32 C      WEIGHT(NPTS)=statistical weight of each data pt
33 C      for chi-square minimisation:
34 C      BETA(NTERMS)
35 C      ALPHA(NTEPMS,NTEPMS)
36 C      ARPAY(NTEPMS,NTEPMS)=inverted ALPHA matrix
37 C
38 C      Integer variables:
39 C      N1,N2=fitting range in channels
40 C      NPTS=number of data pts
41 C      NTERMS=number of fitting parameters
42 C      NFREE=number of degrees of freedom
43 C      ICOUNT=number of iterations
44 C      Y(1000)=data pts array
45 C      IDUM( )=dumping array
46 C      Character variables:
47 C      FILN1=data filename
48 C      FILN2=fitted parameter filename
49 C      FILN3=fitted spectrum filename
50 C
51      CHARACTER*20 FILN1,FILN2,FILN3,ANS*1
52      REAL FLOAT,A(29),FLAMDA,YFIT(1000),SIGMAA(29)
53      REAL DELTAA(29),ALPHA(29,29),BETA(29),B(29),DERIV(29)
54      DOUBLE PRECISION ARRAY(29,29),DIFF,CHISQ1,CHISQ
55      DOUBLE PRECISION CHISQ2,WEIGHT(1000)
56      INTEGER N1,N2,NPTS,NTERMS,NFREE,ICOUNT
57      INTEGER*4 IDUM(2048),Y(1000),IFIX
58 C
59 C      INPUT DATA
```

```

D Line# 1      7
60 C
61      WRITE(*,*) 'ENTER THE SPECTRUM FILENAME:'
62      READ(*,100) FILN1
63 100      FORMAT(A20)
64      OPEN(UNIT=1, FILE=FILN1, ACCESS='SEQUENTIAL', STATUS='OLD',
65 $        FORM='BINARY')
66      REWIND(1)
67      WRITE(*,*) 'CURVE TO BE FITTED FROM , TO (IN CHANNELS) '
68      READ(*,*) N1,N2
69      NPTS=N2-N1+1
70 C
71 C      READ IN Y(I) ONLY THE PTS TO BE FITTED
72 C
73      READ(1) IDUM
74      DO 6 I=1,NPTS
1 75      Y(I)=IDUM(I+N1-1)
1 76 6      CONTINUE
77      CLOSE(1)
78 C
79 C      ENTER THE VARIOUS PARAMETERS
80 C
81      WRITE(*,*) 'ENTER THE NUMBER OF PEAKS TO BE FITTED (MAX 7):'
82      READ(*,*) NTERMS
83      NTERMS=NTERMS**4+4
84      WRITE(*,*) 'ENTER THE NUMBER OF OFFSET COUNTS:'
85      READ(*,*) A(NTERMS-3)
86      IC=1
87      DO 10 I=1,NTERMS-7,4
88      WRITE(*,*) 'ENTER A,D,W,GAMMA OF PEAK # ',IC
89      READ(*,*) A(I),A(I+1),A(I+2),A(I+3)
1 90      A(I+2)=A(I+2)+1.-FLOAT(N1)
1 91      IC=IC+1
1 92 10      CONTINUE
93      WRITE(*,*) '
94      WRITE(*,*) 'THE DOPPLER BROADENED ABSORPTION IS GIVEN'
95      WRITE(*,*) 'BY C1*EXP(-1*(I-W1)**2/C2)*(I-W1). ENTER'
96      WRITE(*,*) 'C1,C2,W1:'
97      READ(*,*) A(NTERMS-2),A(NTERMS-1),A(NTERMS)
98      A(NTERMS)=A(NTERMS)-N1+1
99      WRITE(*,*) 'ENTER THE CHISO TOLERANCE (TOL=1):'
100      READ(*,*) TOL
101 C
102 C      OUTPUT FILENAMES:
103 C
104      WRITE(*,*) 'ENTER THE FINAL PARAMETER FILENAME:'
105      READ(*,100) FILN2
106      WRITE(*,*) 'ENTER THE FITTED SPECTRUM FILENAME:'
107      READ(*,100) FILN3
108 C
109 C      SET INITIAL FLAMDA AND WEIGHTS
110 C
111 7      WRITE(*,*) 'ENTER THE NUMBER OF ITERATIONS:'
112      READ(*,*) NITS
113      ICOUNT=1
114      WRITE(*,*) 'ENTER STARTING VALUE OF FLAMDA (.0001 ?):'
115      READ(*,*) FLAMDA
116      NFREE=NPTS-NTERMS
117      IF (NFREE .LE. 0) THEN
118      WRITE(*,*) 'THERE IS NO DEGREE OF FREEDOM'

```

```

D Line# 1      7
119          GO TO 800
120          ENDIF
121 C
122 C      THE WEIGHTS ARE EVALUATED STATISTICALLY AND THE
123 C      NUMBER OF COUNTS IS TAKEN AS THE NUMBER AWAY FROM
124 C      THE OFFSET.
125 C
126 16        CONTINUE
127          II=0
128          CHISQ=0.
129          IF (ICOUNT .GT. 10) GO TO 25
130          LC=IFIX(A(NTERMS-3)+.5)
131          DO 15 I=1,NPTS
1 132          IF (Y(I) .NE. LC) THEN
1 133          WEIGHT(I)=1./ABS(FLOAT(Y(I))-LC)
1 134          ELSE
1 135          WEIGHT(I)=1.
1 136          ENDIF
1 137 15      CONTINUE
138 C
139 C      CALCULATE THE DERIVATIVES SUMMED OVER ALL PTS
140 C      (MODIFICATION OF BEVINGTON'S FDERIV)
141 C
142 25        DO 17 J=1,NTERMS
1 143          BETA(J)=0.
1 144          DO 17 K=1,J
2 145          ALPHA(J,K)=0.
2 146 17      CONTINUE
147 C
148          DO 38 J=1,NTERMS
1 149          DELTAA(J)=ABS(A(J)/100.)
1 150 38      CONTINUE
151 C
152 C      EVALUATE THE MATRICES
153 C
154          DO 50 I=1,NPTS
2 155          DO 42 J=1,NTERMS
2 156          AJ=A(J)
2 157          A(J)=A(J)+DELTAA(J).
2 158          YYFIT=FUNCTN2(I,A,NTERMS)
2 159          A(J)=AJ-DELTAA(J)
2 160          DERIV(J)=(YYFIT-FUNCTN2(I,A,NTERMS))/(2.*DELTAA(J))
2 161          A(J)=AJ
2 162 42      CONTINUE
1 163          DO 46 J=1,NTERMS
2 164          BETA(J)=BETA(J)+WEIGHT(I)*(FLOAT(Y(I))-FUNCTN2
2 165          *(I,A,NTERMS))*DERIV(J)
2 166          DO 46 K=1,J
3 167          ALPHA(J,K)=ALPHA(J,K)+WEIGHT(I)*DERIV(J)*DERIV(K)
3 168 46      CONTINUE
1 169 50      CONTINUE
170          DO 53 J=1,NTERMS
1 171          DO 53 K=1,J
2 172          ALPHA(K,J)=ALPHA(J,K)
2 173 53      CONTINUE
174 C
175 C      IF THIS IS THE FIRST ITERATION, FIND THE STARTING
176 C      VALUE OF CHISQ.
177 C

```

```

D Line# 1      7
 178      IF (ICOUNT .EQ. 1) THEN
 179      DO 54 I=1,NPTS
180 54      YFIT(I)=FUNCTN2(I,A,NTERMS)
 181      CALL FCHISQ(Y,WEIGHT,NPTS,NFREE,YFIT,CHISQ)
 182      CHISQ1=CHISQ
 183      ENDIF
 184      WRITE(*,*) 'CHISQ1 FOUND'
 185      WRITE(*,*) 'CHISQ1=',CHISQ1
 186 C
 187 C      NORMALISE ALPHA AND INVERT USING MATINV ROUTINE
 188 C
 189 71      CONTINUE
 190      DO 74 J=1,NTEPMS
1 191      DO 73 K=1,NTERMS
2 192      APPAY(J,K)=ALPHA(J,K)/SQRT(ALPHA(J,J)*ALPHA(K,K))
2 193 73      CONTINUE
1 194      ARPAY(J,J)=1.+FLAMDA
1 195 74      CONTINUE
 196 C
 197      CALL MATINV(APPAY,NTERMS,DET)
 198      WRITE(*,*) 'ALPHA INVERTED'
 199 C
 200 C      EVALUATE THE NEW PARAMETERS AND CALL THEM B(I)
 201 C
 202      DO 84 J=1,NTEPMS
1 203      B(J)=A(J)
1 204      DO 84 K=1,NTEPMS
2 205      B(J)=B(J)+BETA(K)*ARPA(J,K)/SQRT(ALPHA(J,J)*ALPHA(K,K))
2 206 84      CONTINUE
 207 C
 208 C      PUT THESE PARAMETERS IN THE FUNCTION. IF THE NEW CHISQ IS
 209 C      GREATER THAN THE PREVIOUS ONE THE SEARCH PARAMETER FLAMDA
 210 C      IS MULTIPLIED BY 1 OR 10. IF IT IS SMALLER FLAMDA IS DIVIDED
 211 C      BY 10.
 212 C
 213      DO 92 I=1,NPTS
1 214      YFIT(I)=FUNCTN2(I,B,NTEPMS)
1 215 92      CONTINUE
 216      CALL FCHISQ(Y,WEIGHT,NPTS,NFREE,YFIT,CHISQ)
 217      WRITE(*,*) 'NEW CHISQ AND YFIT FOUND'
 218      WRITE(*,*) 'CHISQ1=',CHISQ1
 219      WRITE(*,*) 'CHISQ=',CHISQ
 220 C
 221      DIFF=DABS((CHISQ1-CHISQ)/CHISQ)
 222      IF (CHISQ .GE. CHISQ1) THEN
 223      IF (CHISQ .EQ. CHISQ1) GO TO 110
 224      II=II+1
 225      IF (II .EQ. 4) GO TO 110
 226      CHISQ1=CHISQ
 227      FLAMDA=FLAMDA*10.
 228      GO TO 71
 229      ELSE
 230      DO 103 J=1,NTERMS
1 231      A(J)=B(J)
1 232      SIGMAA(J)=SQRT(ARRAY(J,J)/ALPHA(J,J))
233 103      CONTINUE
 234      FLAMDA=FLAMDA/10.
 235      ENDIF
 236 C

```

```

D Line# 1 7
237 IF (DIFF .LE. TOL) GO TO 110
238 IF (ICOUNT .EQ. NITS) GO TO 110
239 ICOUNT=ICOUNT+1
240 CHISQ1=CHISQ
241 GO TO 16
242 110 CONTINUE
243 C
244 C * SETUP THE OUTPUT FILES.
245 C
246 OPEN(UNIT=1, FILE=FILN2, STATUS='NEW', FORM='FORMATTED')
247 WRITE(1,550) FILN1,N1,N2
248 WRITE(1,551) FILN2
249 WRITE(1,*) 'THE NUMBER OF ITEPATIONS IS:', ICOUNT
250 IC=1
251 DO 163 I=1, NTERMS-7, 4
1 252 A(I+2)=A(I+2)+FLOAT(N1)-1
1 253 WRITE(1,560) IC
1 254 WRITE(1,570) A(I), SIGMAA(I), A(I+1), SIGMAA(I+1),
1 255 $ A(I+2), SIGMAA(I+2), A(I+3), SIGMAA(I+3)
1 256 IC=IC+1
1 257 163 CONTINUE
258 WRITE(1,*) 'THE NUMBER OF OFFSET COUNTS IS: ',
259 $ IFIX(A(NTERMS-3)+.5), ' +/- ', IFIX(SIGMAA(NTERMS-3)+.5)
260 WRITE(1,580) CHISQ1, TOL
261 WRITE(1,*) 'FLAMDA=', FLAMDA
262 WRITE(1,*) 'C1=', A(NTERMS-2), ' +/- ', SIGMAA(NTERMS-2)
263 WRITE(1,*) 'C2=', A(NTERMS-1), ' +/- ', SIGMAA(NTERMS-1)
264 A(NTERMS)=A(NTERMS)+N1-1
265 WRITE(1,*) 'W1=', A(NTERMS), ' +/- ', SIGMAA(NTERMS)
266 CLOSE(1)
267 OPEN(UNIT=1, FILE=FILN3, ACCESS='SEQUENTIAL',
268 $ STATUS='NEW', FORM='BINARY')
269 DO 400 I=1, NPTS
1 270 IDUM(I)=IFIX(YFIT(I)+.5)
1 271 400 CONTINUE
272 WRITE(1) (IDUM(I), I=1, NPTS)
273 CLOSE(1)
274 C
275 WRITE(*,*) 'FLAMDA=', FLAMDA
276 WRITE(*,*) 'DO AGAIN (Y/N) ?'
277 READ(*,162) ANS
278 162 FORMAT(A1)
279 IF (ANS .EQ. 'Y' .OR. ANS .EQ. 'y') GO TO 7
280 C
281 C WRITE FORMATS:
282 C
283 550 FORMAT(' FITTED FILE IS: ', A15, ' FROM CHANNEL ', I4,
284 $ ' TO CHANNEL ', I4,
285 $ /, ' ', '*****', /)
286 551 FORMAT('0', ' PARAMETER FILENAME IS: ', A20, /)
287 560 FORMAT('0', ' RESULTANT PARAMETERS FOR PEAK NO: ', I2, /)
288 570 FORMAT(' A= ', F11.4, ' +/- ', F8.4, ' D= ', F11.4, ' +/- ', F8.4,
289 $ ' ', ' ', 'FREQUENCY= ', F11.4, ' +/- ', F8.4,
290 $ ' LINEWIDTH= ', F8.4, ' +/- ', F7.4, /)
291 580 FORMAT(' CHISQ= ', D30.17,
292 $ /, ' ', 'TOLERANCE= ', F10.8, /)
293 800 STOP
294 END

```

```

D Line# 1 7
1 $NOFLOATCALLS
2 C Subroutine MATINV to invert a symmetric matrix
3 C and find its determinant (from Bevington).
4 C
5 SUBROUTINE MATINV (ARRAY, NTERMS, DET)
6 INTEGER*4 IK, JK
7 DOUBLE PRECISION APPAY, AMAX, SAVE
8 DIMENSION ARRAY(29, 29), IK(29), JK(29)
9 10 DET=1.
10 11 DO 100 K=1, NTERMS
11 C
12 C FIND THE LARGEST ELEMENT ARRAY(I, J) IN THE REST OF MATRIX
13 C
14 AMAX=0.
15 21 DO 30 I=K, NTERMS
16 DO 30 J=K, NTERMS
17 23 IF (DABS(AMAX)-DABS(ARRAY(I, J))) 24, 24, 30
18 24 AMAX=ARRAY(I, J)
19 IK(K)=I
20 JK(K)=J
21 30 CONTINUE
22 C
23 C INTERCHANGE ROWS AND COLUMNS TO PUT AMAX IN ARRAY(K, K)
24 C
25 31 IF (AMAX) 41, 32, 41
26 32 DET=0.
27 GO TO 140
28 41 I=IK(K)
29 IF (I-K) 21, 51, 43
30 43 DO 50 J=1, NTERMS
31 SAVE=ARRAY(K, J)
32 APPAY(K, J)=APRAY(I, J)
33 50 ARRAY(I, J)=-SAVE
34 51 J=JK(K)
35 IF (J-K) 21, 61, 53
36 53 DO 60 I=1, NTERMS
37 SAVE=ARRAY(I, K)
38 ARRAY(I, K)=ARRAY(I, J)
39 60 ARRAY(I, J)=-SAVE
40 C
41 C ACCUMULATE ELEMENTS OF INVERSE MATRIX
42 C
43 61 DO 70 I=1, NTERMS
44 IF (I-K) 63, 70, 63
45 63 ARRAY(I, K)=-ARRAY(I, K)/AMAX
46 70 CONTINUE
47 71 DO 80 I=1, NTERMS
48 DO 80 J=1, NTERMS
49 IF (I-K) 74, 80, 74
50 74 IF (J-K) 75, 80, 75
51 75 ARRAY(I, J)=ARRAY(I, J)+ARRAY(I, K)*ARRAY(K, J)
52 80 CONTINUE
53 81 DO 90 J=1, NTERMS
54 IF (J-K) 83, 90, 83
55 83 ARRAY(K, J)=ARRAY(K, J)/AMAX
56 90 CONTINUE
57 ARRAY(K, K)=1./AMAX
58 100 DET=DET*AMAX
59 C

```

```
D Line# 1 7
60 C RESTORE ORDERING OF MATRIX
61 C
62 101 DO 130 L=1, NTERMS
63 K=NTERMS-L+1
1 64 J=IK(K)
1 65 IF (J-K) 111,111,105
1 66 105 DO 110 I=1, NTERMS
2 67 SAVE=ARRAY(I,K)
2 68 ARRAY(I,K)=-ARRAY(I,J)
2 69 110 ARRAY(I,J)=SAVE
1 70 111 I=JK(K)
1 71 IF (I-K) 130,130,113
1 72 113 DO 120 J=1, NTERMS
2 73 SAVE=APRAY(K,J)
2 74 APRAY(K,J)=-ARRAY(I,J)
2 75 120 ARRAY(I,J)=SAVE
1 76 130 CONTINUE
77 140 PUTUPN
78 END
```

Name	Type	Offset	P	Class
AMAX	REAL*8	242		
ARRAY	REAL*8	0	*	
DABS				INTRINSIC
DET	REAL	8	*	
I	INTEGER*4	250		
IK	INTEGER*4	2		
J	INTEGER*4	258		
JK	INTEGER*4	118		
K	INTEGER*4	234		
L	INTEGER*4	310		
NTERMS	INTEGER*4	4	*	
SAVE	REAL*8	282		

Name	Type	Size	Class
MATINV			SUBROUTINE

Pass One No Errors Detected
78 Source Lines

```

D Line# 1 7
1 $NOFLOATCALLS
2 C      Functn FUNCTN(I,A,NTERMS) is the derivative
3 C      of the intensity of a laser polarisation spectrum.
4 C
5      FUNCTION FUNCTN2(I,A,NTERMS)
6      INTEGER I,NTERMS
7      REAL A(29),S,FLOAT
8 C
9      FUNCTN2=A(NTERMS-2)*EXP(-1.*(I-A(NTERMS))**2/A(NTERMS-1))
10     $  *(I-A(NTERMS))+A(NTERMS-3)
11     DO 10 J=1,NTERMS-7,4
12     S=FLOAT(I)
13     X=(A(J+2)-S)/A(J+3)
14     FUNCTN2=FUNCTN2+(A(J)*(1-X*X)+A(J+1)*X)/(1+X*X)**2.
15 10   CONTINUE
16     RETURN
17     END
  
```

Name	Type	Offset	P	Class
A	REAL	4	*	
EXP				INTRINSIC
FLOAT				INTRINSIC
I	INTEGER*4	0	*	
J	INTEGER*4	2		
NTERMS	INTEGER*4	8	*	
S	REAL	10		
X	REAL	14		

Name	Type	Size	Class
FUNCTN	REAL		FUNCTION

Pass One No Errors Detected
 17 Source Lines

```

D Line# 1 7
1 *NOFLOATCALLS
2 C FCHISQ SUBROUTINE TO CALCULATE THE CHI-SQUARE
3 C OF THE FITTED FUNCTION FUNCTN(I,A,NTERMS).
4 C
5 SUBROUTINE FCHISQ(Y,WEIGHT,NPTS,NFREE,YFIT,CHISQ)
6 DOUBLE PRECISION WEIGHT(1000),CHISQ
7 REAL YFIT(1000),FLOAT
8 INTEGER*4 Y(1000)
9 INTEGER NPTS,NFPEE
10 C
11 CHISQ=0
12 IF (NFREE .LE. 0) GO TO 400
13 DO 300 I=1,NPTS
1 14 CHISQ=CHISQ+WEIGHT(I)*(FLOAT(Y(I))-YFIT(I))**2
1 15 300 CONTINUE
16 C
17 CHISQ=CHISQ/FLOAT(NFREE)
18 400 RETURN
19 END

```

Name	Type	Offset	P	Class
CHISQ	REAL*8	20	*	
FLOAT				INTRINSIC
I	INTEGER*4	2	*	
NFPEE	INTEGER*4	12	*	
NPTS	INTEGER*4	8	*	
WEIGHT	REAL*8	4	*	
Y	INTEGER*4	0	*	
YFIT	REAL	16	*	

Name	Type	Size	Class
FCHISQ			SUBROUTINE

Pass One No Errors Detected
19 Source Lines

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