

# An introduction to low-energy scattering in quantum mechanics

Lucas Madeira <sup>1</sup>

São Carlos Institute of Physics - University of São Paulo - Brazil

SFI5814 - Introdução a Física Atômica e Molecular



September 20, 2023

# References

Revista Brasileira de Ensino de Física, vol. 45, e20230079 (2023)

[www.scielo.br/rbef](http://www.scielo.br/rbef)

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1590/1806-9126-RBEF-2023-0079>

Articles



Licença Creative Commons

## Scattering length and effective range of microscopic two-body potentials

Mathias Macêdo-Lima<sup>1</sup>, Lucas Madeira<sup>\*1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Universidade de São Paulo, Instituto de Física de São Carlos, São Carlos, SP, Brasil.

- Or your favorite quantum mechanics textbook: Griffiths, Sakurai, ...

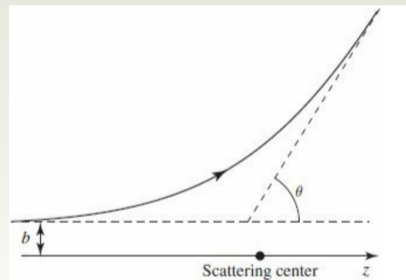
# Motivation

- Scattering processes are a fundamental way of experimentally probing distributions and properties of systems in several areas of physics
  - Can you name a few examples?
- Low-energy quantum scattering theory
  - What is low-energy?

# Introduction

- What is scattering?
  - Scattering is the interaction of an **object** with a **scattering center**
    - **classical particle**
    - **electromagnetic wave**
    - **quantum particle**
  - **scattering potential**

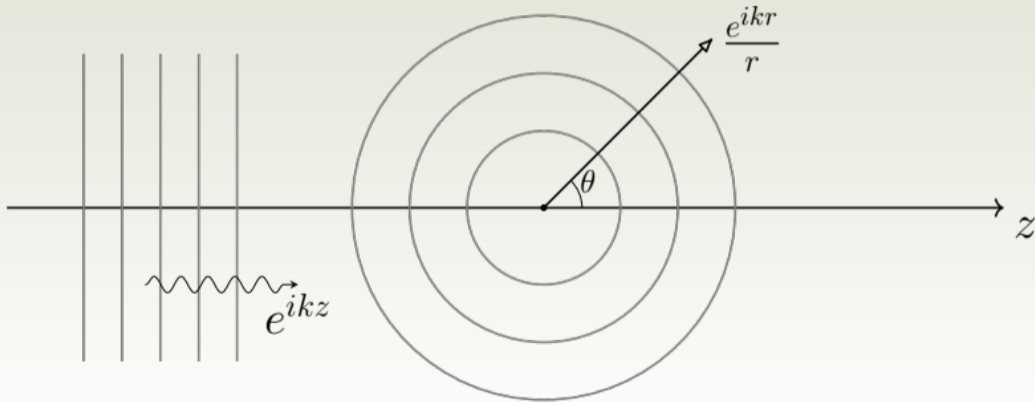
- Classical view



Griffiths

# Introduction

- Quantum view



# Quantum scattering theory

- Hypotheses

- ① Elastic scattering
- ② Incident plane wave  $e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}}$
- ③ Local and finite-ranged potential

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \mathcal{N} \left[ e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}} + \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} f(\mathbf{k}', \mathbf{k}) \right]$$

# Quantum scattering theory

- Hypotheses

- 1 Elastic scattering
- 2 Incident plane wave  $e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}}$
- 3 Local and finite-ranged potential

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \mathcal{N} \left[ e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}} + \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} f(\mathbf{k}', \mathbf{k}) \right]$$

- Formally, in quantum mechanics, a scattering process is described as a transition from one quantum state to another

$$|i\rangle \rightarrow |f\rangle$$

- Assume  $|i\rangle$  to be a plane wave  $|\mathbf{k}\rangle$ , that is, a free particle

$$H_0|i\rangle = E_i|i\rangle = \frac{\hbar^2\mathbf{k}^2}{2m}|\mathbf{k}\rangle$$

- Scattering is taken into account by introducing a potential  $V(\mathbf{r})$

$$H = H_0 + V(\mathbf{r})$$

# Quantum scattering theory

- Quantization of the scattering states

$$\langle \mathbf{r} | \mathbf{k} \rangle = \mathcal{N} e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}} = \frac{e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}}}{L^{3/2}}$$

- We must take  $L \rightarrow \infty$  to guarantee the continuum character of the state at the end of our calculations



# Quantum scattering theory

- More hypotheses

- ① Elastic scattering
- ② Incident plane wave in the  $z$  direction:  $e^{ikz}$
- ③ Local, finite-ranged and spherically-symmetric potential  $V(r)$

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}(r, \theta) \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \mathcal{N} \left[ e^{ikz} + \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} f(\theta) \right]$$

- The finite range of the potential (and spherical symmetry) invite us to solve the Schrödinger equation for  $V(0 < r < R) \neq 0$  and  $V(r > R) = 0$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi + V(r)\psi = E\psi$$

# Spherical coordinates

- Due to the spherical symmetry of  $V(r)$ , it is convenient to employ spherical coordinates

$$\left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{L^2}{2mr^2} + V(r) \right) \psi(r, \theta, \phi) = E\psi(r, \theta, \phi)$$

- $L$  is the angular momentum operator

$$L^2 = -\hbar^2 \left( \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} \right)$$

- Its  $z$ -component is given by

$$L_z = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}$$

- Construct a complete set of eigenfunctions related to  $H$ ,  $L^2$ , and  $L_z$

$$H\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = E\psi(r, \theta, \phi),$$

$$L^2\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = l(l+1)\hbar^2\psi(r, \theta, \phi),$$

$$L_z\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = m\hbar\psi(r, \theta, \phi)$$

# Spherical coordinates

- We propose a separable solution of the form

$$\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = A_l(r)Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

- To avoid taking the first radial derivative of  $A_l(r)$ , we define the “reduced” radial solution  $u_l(r) = rA_l(r)$

$$\left( \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + k^2 - U(r) - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right) u_l(r) = 0$$

- $k^2 = 2mE/\hbar^2$
- $U(r) = 2mV(r)/\hbar^2$
- $l(l+1)$  is the “separation constant”

# Solution for $r > R$

- Outside the potential range  $R$ , we must solve

$$\left( \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + k^2 - \cancel{U(r)} - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right) u_l(r) = 0$$

- The solution for  $r > R$  can be written in terms of the spherical Bessel functions  $j_l(x)$  and  $n_l(x)$

$$u_l(r) = c_l' r j_l(kr) + c_l'' r n_l(kr)$$

- $j_0(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$

- $n_0(x) = -\frac{\cos(x)}{x}$

- $j_1(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x^2} - \frac{\cos(x)}{x}$

- $n_1(x) = -\frac{\cos(x)}{x^2} - \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$

- $j_2(x) = \frac{3 \sin(x)}{x^3} - \frac{3 \cos(x)}{x^2} - \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$

- $n_2(x) = -\frac{3 \cos(x)}{x^3} - \frac{3 \sin(x)}{x^2} + \frac{\cos(x)}{x}$

# Spherical Bessel functions

- $j_0(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$

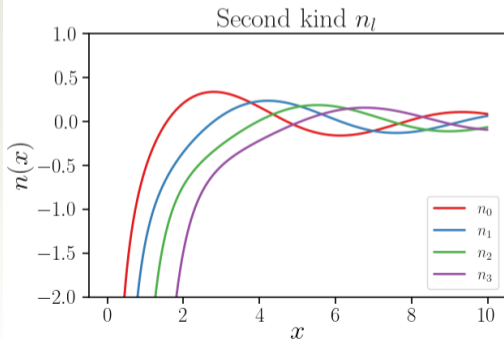
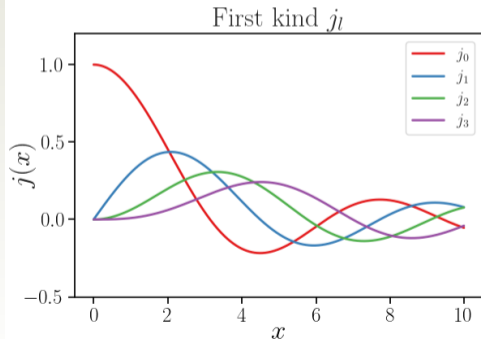
- $j_1(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x^2} - \frac{\cos(x)}{x}$

- $j_2(x) = \frac{3 \sin(x)}{x^3} - \frac{3 \cos(x)}{x^2} - \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$

- $n_0(x) = -\frac{\cos(x)}{x}$

- $n_1(x) = -\frac{\cos(x)}{x^2} - \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$

- $n_2(x) = -\frac{3 \cos(x)}{x^3} - \frac{3 \sin(x)}{x^2} + \frac{\cos(x)}{x}$



# Spherical Hankel functions

- $j_l(x)$  and  $n_l(x)$  are generalized sines and cosines
- It is more convenient to write the solution in terms of  $e^{ikx}/x$  to represent “incoming” or “outgoing” spherical waves
- Similarly to  $e^{ix} = \cos(x) + i \sin(x)$ , we define the spherical Hankel functions as

$$h_l^{(1)}(x) = j_l(x) + in_l(x)$$

$$h_l^{(2)}(x) = j_l(x) - in_l(x)$$

- $h_0^{(1)}(x) = -\frac{ie^{ix}}{x}$
  - $h_0^{(2)}(x) = \frac{ie^{-ix}}{x}$
  - $h_1^{(1)}(x) = -e^{ix} \frac{x+i}{x^2}$
  - $h_1^{(2)}(x) = -e^{-ix} \frac{x-i}{x^2}$
  - $h_2^{(1)}(x) = ie^{ix} \frac{x^2+3ix-3}{x^3}$
  - $h_2^{(2)}(x) = -ie^{-ix} \frac{x^2-3ix-3}{x^3}$
- The solution for  $u_l(r)$  can be written as

$$u_l(r) = c_l^{(1)} rh_l^{(1)}(kr) + c_l^{(2)} rh_l^{(2)}(kr)$$

# Free particle solution

- The free particle solution in cartesian coordinates is a plane wave  $e^{ikz}$
- In spherical coordinates,  $e^{ikz} = e^{ikr \cos \theta}$  contains all possible values of  $l$ . This can be expressed with Rayleigh's formula:

$$e^{ikr \cos \theta} = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} i^l (2l+1) j_l(kr) P_l(\cos \theta)$$

- Note that only  $j_l$  appears. Physically, this is due to the divergence of  $n_l(kr)$  at  $r = 0$ .
- In terms of the spherical Hankel functions,

$$j_l(x) = \frac{h_l^{(1)}(x) + h_l^{(2)}(x)}{2}$$

# Asymptotic behavior

- Let us analyze the asymptotic behavior, that is, when  $r \rightarrow \infty$

$$h_l^{(1)}(x) \xrightarrow{\text{large } x} (-i)^{l+1} \frac{e^{ix}}{x},$$

$$h_l^{(2)}(x) \xrightarrow{\text{large } x} i^{l+1} \frac{e^{-ix}}{x}.$$

- The free-particle solution at  $r \rightarrow \infty$  is

$$e^{ikr \cos \theta} \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2l+1)}{2ikr} [e^{ikr} - (-1)^l e^{-ikr}] P_l(\cos \theta).$$

- The first term inside the square brackets represents an outgoing spherical wave, while the second is related to an incoming spherical wave.



# Asymptotic behavior

- Motivated by the expansion for  $e^{ikr \cos \theta}$ , we write the scattered solution for every  $r > R$  as

$$\psi(r, \theta) = \mathcal{N} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} i^l (2l+1) \frac{u_l(r)}{r} P_l(\cos \theta)$$

- And the asymptotic behavior

$$\psi(r, \theta) \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \mathcal{N} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2l+1)}{ikr} \left[ c_l^{(1)} e^{ikr} - (-1)^l c_l^{(2)} e^{-ikr} \right] P_l(\cos \theta) \quad (*)$$

- Let us compare with

$$e^{ikr \cos \theta} \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2l+1)}{2ikr} \left[ e^{ikr} - (-1)^l e^{-ikr} \right] P_l(\cos \theta) \quad (**)$$

- **(\*\*)** describes the asymptotic behavior of the wave function for a plane wave without being scattered, while **(\*)** does the same, but in a situation where scattering could have taken place.

# Phase shift

- We introduce a new quantity related to the ratio between the constants

$$\frac{c_l^{(1)}}{c_l^{(2)}} = S_l(k) = e^{2i\delta_l(k)}$$

- Expressing the asymptotic wave function in terms of the phase shift

$$\psi(r, \theta) \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \mathcal{N} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2l+1)}{ikr} c_l^{(2)} \left[ e^{2i\delta_l} e^{ikr} - (-1)^l e^{-ikr} \right] P_l(\cos \theta)$$

- Now we have everything we need to connect with the asymptotic wave function obtained before we restricted to spherically-symmetric potentials

# Phase shift

- We know that

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}(r, \theta) \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \mathcal{N} \left[ e^{ikz} + \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} f(\theta) \right]$$

- Expanding  $e^{ikz}$

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}(r, \theta) \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \mathcal{N} \left\{ \left[ \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2l+1)}{2ikr} (e^{ikr} - (-1)^l e^{-ikr}) \times P_l(\cos \theta) \right] + f(\theta) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \right\}$$

- Comparing with

$$\psi(r, \theta) \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \mathcal{N} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2l+1)}{ikr} c_l^{(2)} \left[ e^{2i\delta_l} e^{ikr} - (-1)^l e^{-ikr} \right] P_l(\cos \theta)$$

# Phase shift

- Collecting the terms with  $e^{ikr}$  allows us to write the scattering amplitude as a function of the phase shift

$$f(\theta) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (2l+1) \frac{(e^{2i\delta_l} - 1)}{2ik} P_l(\cos \theta)$$

- The factor  $(e^{2i\delta_l} - 1)/2ik$  is referred to as the partial wave amplitude  $f_l(k)$ , which may be rewritten as

$$f_l(k) = \frac{e^{2i\delta_l} - 1}{2ik} = \frac{e^{i\delta_l} \sin \delta_l}{k} = \frac{1}{k \cot \delta_l - ik}$$

- In terms of  $S_l(k)$

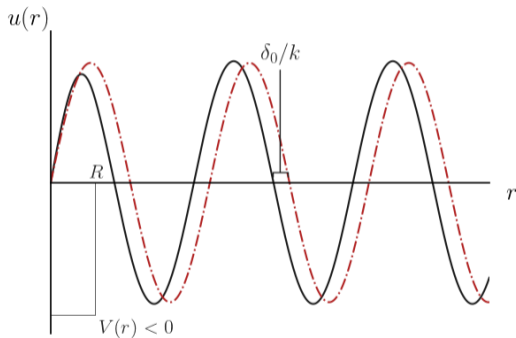
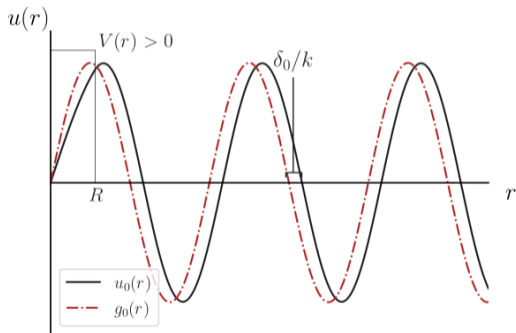
$$S_l(k) = 1 + 2ikf_l(k) = e^{2i\delta_l(k)}$$

# Physical meaning of the phase shift

- $\delta_l(k)$  is the difference between the phases of the incident and the scattered function
- The probability is conserved during the scattering
  - The only thing that can change is the phase of the wave function
- If  $V = 0$ : free particle
  - $\delta_l(k) = 0, f_l(k) = 0$
- If  $V \neq 0$ : solution for  $r < R$  depends on the details of  $V$ 
  - but for  $r > R$  we have a free particle with a “shifted” phase
- Defining the phase shift allows us to reduce the scattering problem to calculate a single quantity,  $\delta_l(k)$

# Physical meaning of the phase shift

- $g_0(r)$  is the free-particle solution
- $u_0(r)$  is the solution in the presence of a scattering potential



- A repulsive potential ( $V > 0$ ) “pushes” the particle away
- An attractive potential ( $V < 0$ ) “pulls” the particle towards the origin

# Computing the phase shift

- Logarithmic derivative

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln f(x) = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}.$$

- To compute the phase shift, we define the dimensionless ratio  $r \times u'(r)/u(r)$

$$\beta_l = \left[ r \frac{u'_l(r)}{u_l(r)} \right]_{r=R^-}$$

- $R^\pm \equiv \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} R \pm \epsilon$
- The radial solution at  $r > R$  is

$$u_l(r) = \frac{1}{2} r e^{2i\delta_l} h_l^{(1)}(kr) + \frac{1}{2} r h_l^{(2)}(kr) = r e^{i\delta_l} (\cos \delta_l j_l(kr) - \sin \delta_l n_l(kr))$$

# Computing the phase shift

- Equating  $\beta_l$  with the outside log solution (at  $r = R^+$ ):

$$\beta_l = \left[ r \frac{u_l'(r)}{u_l(r)} \right]_{r=R^+} = 1 + kR \left[ \frac{\cos \delta_l j_l'(kR) - \sin \delta_l n_l'(kR)}{\cos \delta_l j_l(kR) - \sin \delta_l n_l(kR)} \right],$$

- After some algebra, we arrive at an expression for the phase shift

$$\cot \delta_l(k) = \frac{kR n_l'(kR) - (\beta_l - 1) n_l(kR)}{kR j_l'(kR) - (\beta_l - 1) j_l(kR)}$$



# Low-energy limit

- From the radial equation for any partial wave  $l$

$$\left( \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + k^2 - U(r) - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right) u_l(r) = 0$$

- We define an effective potential for the  $l$ -th partial wave as

$$V_{\text{eff}}(r) = V(r) + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2}$$

- For  $l \neq 0$ , we have a repulsive centrifugal barrier
- If the reduced wavelength  $\tilde{\lambda} = \lambda/2\pi = 1/k$  of the incident wave is much larger than the potential range, that is  $\tilde{\lambda} \gg R$  or  $kR \ll 1$ , then the particle cannot overcome the centrifugal barrier
- In this case, the partial waves with  $l > 0$  are unimportant, and the  $l = 0$  component is dominant in understanding low-energy scattering

# *s*-wave scattering

- In the low-energy scenario, we consider partial waves with  $l \neq 0$  to vanish, and the resulting  $l = 0$  term is referred to as “*s*-wave”
- The *s*-wave radial component, which we denote by  $u_0^{(k \neq 0)}(r)$ , is given by

$$\begin{aligned} A_0^{(k \neq 0)}(r) &= \frac{u_0^{(k \neq 0)}}{r} = e^{i\delta_0} (\cos \delta_0 j_0(kr) - \sin \delta_0 n_0(kr)) \\ &= e^{i\delta_0} \left[ \frac{1}{kr} \sin(kr + \delta_0) \right] \end{aligned}$$

# s-wave scattering

- We can also solve the zero-energy Schrödinger's equation, that is  $k = 0$ , at  $r > R$ :

$$\left( \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + \cancel{k^2} - \cancel{U(r)} - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right) u_0^{(k=0)}(r) = 0$$

- We simply have  $u_0^{(k=0)}(r) = 0$
- The solution can be written as  $u_0^{(k=0)}(r) = c(r - a)$
- Its logarithmic derivative is

$$r \frac{u_0'^{(k=0)}(r)}{u_0^{(k=0)}(r)} = \frac{r}{r - a}.$$

- This needs to be equal to the log derivative of  $u_0^{(k \neq 0)}(r)$

$$kr \cot(kr + \delta_0) = \frac{r}{r - a}$$

# Scattering length

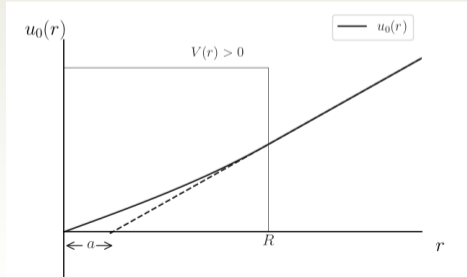
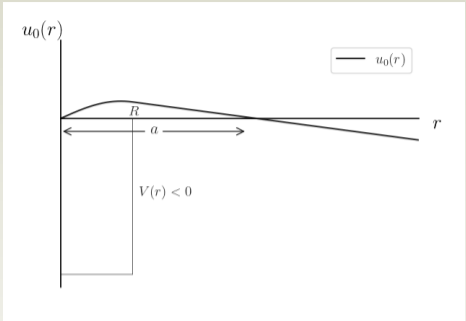
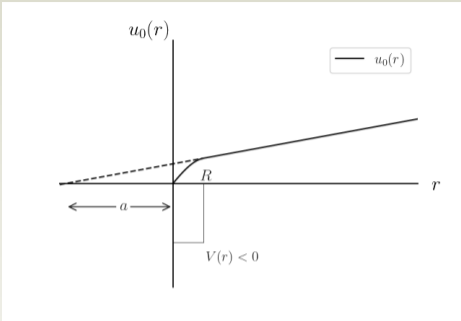
- In the limit  $k \rightarrow 0$ , and also setting  $r = 0$ , we define the scattering length  $a$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow 0} k \cot \delta_0(k) = -\frac{1}{a}$$

- We reduced the scattering problem to calculating  $\delta_l(k)$ . Now we reduced the problem even further: in the  $E \approx 0$  limit,  $a$  encodes all the information we need about scattering.
- Geometrical interpretation: choose  $c = -1/a$  in

$$u_0^{(k=0)}(r) = 1 - \frac{r}{a}$$

- $a$  is simply the intercept of the outside wave function with the  $x$ -axis



# The effective range

- Another name for the scattering length expansion is the zero-range expansion
- What happens if the range of the potential is small, but non-negligible?
- We need the next term of the expansion in powers of  $k$  of  $k \cot \delta_0(k) = -1/a$
- $k \cot \delta_0(k)$  is an even function, thus the next term is certainly not linear in  $k$
- The result is

$$k \cot \delta_0(k) = -\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{2}r_0k^2 + \mathcal{O}(k^4)$$

# The effective range

- Consider a different normalization for  $u_0(r > R)$

$$u_0(r > R) = \cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kr) + \cos(kr)$$

- Let us take the  $l = 0$  radial equation, for two different wave functions  $u_{k_1}(r)$  and  $u_{k_2}(r)$ , labeled by their wave vectors  $k_1 = \sqrt{2mE_1}/\hbar$  and  $k_2 = \sqrt{2mE_2}/\hbar$ ,

$$u_{k_1}''(r) - U(r)u_{k_1}(r) + k_1^2 u_{k_1}(r) = 0,$$

$$u_{k_2}''(r) - U(r)u_{k_2}(r) + k_2^2 u_{k_2}(r) = 0.$$

- Next, we multiply the first equation by  $u_{k_2}$  and the second by  $u_{k_1}$  and take their difference,

$$u_{k_1}''(r)u_{k_2}(r) - u_{k_1}(r)u_{k_2}''(r) = (k_2^2 - k_1^2)u_{k_1}(r)u_{k_2}(r).$$

- We may write the LHS as

$$u_{k_1}''(r)u_{k_2}(r) - u_{k_1}(r)u_{k_2}''(r) = \frac{d}{dr} [u_{k_1}'(r)u_{k_2}(r) - u_{k_2}'(r)u_{k_1}(r)]$$

# The effective range

- Now we integrate from 0 to  $R$ ,

$$\left[ u'_{k_2}(r)u_{k_1}(r) - u'_{k_1}(r)u_{k_2}(r) \right]_0^R = (k_2^2 - k_1^2) \int_0^R dr u_{k_1}(r)u_{k_2}(r)$$

- The integral converges since  $A_0(r) = u_0(r)/r$  is finite at the origin ( $u_0(0) = 0$  independently of the energy).
- Next, we repeat the same procedure for the free-particle ( $V = 0$ ) radial equation with solutions denoted by  $g_{k_1}(r)$  and  $g_{k_2}(r)$ . The result is the same if we replace  $u$  by  $g$
- The free-particle solution is also given by

$$g(r) = \cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kr) + \cos(kr)$$

- Note that we do not require  $g(0) = 0$



# The effective range

- Finally, we take the difference between the results

$$\begin{aligned} & [g'_{k_2}(r)g_{k_1}(r) - g'_{k_1}(r)g_{k_2}(r)]_0^R - [u'_{k_2}(r)u_{k_1}(r) - u'_{k_1}(r)u_{k_2}(r)]_0^R = \\ & (k_2^2 - k_1^2) \int_0^R dr [g_{k_1}(r)g_{k_2}(r) - u_{k_1}(r)u_{k_2}(r)] \end{aligned}$$

- The radial solution,  $u_0(r)/r$ , is finite at  $r = 0$ , thus  $u_0(0) = 0$ .
- $g(r)$  and  $u(r > R)$  are equal for  $r \geq R$
- Then we are left with

$$g'_{k_2}(0)g_{k_1}(0) - g'_{k_1}(0)g_{k_2}(0) = (k_2^2 - k_1^2) \int_0^R dr [g_{k_1}(r)g_{k_2}(r) - u_{k_1}(r)u_{k_2}(r)]$$

# The effective range

- Using  $g(r) = \cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kr) + \cos(kr)$  in the RHS

$$k_2 \cot \delta_0(k_2) - k_1 \cot \delta_0(k_1) = (k_2^2 - k_1^2) \int_0^R dr [g_{k_1}(r)g_{k_2}(r) - u_{k_1}(r)u_{k_2}(r)]$$

- If we take the limit  $k_1 \rightarrow 0$ , we can write  $k_1 \cot \delta_0(k_1)$  in terms of the scattering length

$$k \cot \delta_0(k) = -\frac{1}{a} + k^2 \int_0^R dr [g_0(r)g_k(r) - u_0(r)u_k(r)]$$

- We define the next term  $r_0/2$  as

$$r_0 \equiv \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \rho(k) = 2 \int_0^R dr [g_0^2(r) - u_0^2(r)]$$

- $r_0$  is called effective range

# Shape-independent approximation

- The resultant expression is the shape-independent approximation

$$k \cot \delta_0(k) = -\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{2}r_0k^2 + \mathcal{O}(k^4)$$

- We are describing the phase shift  $\delta_0(k)$  without taking into account the microscopic parameters of the scattering potential

# Bound states

- Let us rewrite the scattered wave function at  $r \rightarrow \infty$  as

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}, \theta) \xrightarrow{\text{large } r} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2l+1)}{2ik} P_l(\cos \theta) \left[ S_l(k) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} - \frac{e^{-i(kr-l\pi)}}{r} \right]$$

- For  $l = 0$  and large distances, the radial wave function is proportional to

$$S_0(k) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} - \frac{e^{-ikr}}{r}$$

# Bound states

- For an arbitrary finite-ranged potential  $V$ , the radial solution at  $r > R$  for a bound state ( $E < 0$ ) obeys

$$u''(r) = -\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}u(r) = \kappa^2 u(r), \quad \kappa \equiv \frac{\sqrt{-2mE}}{\hbar}$$

- The solution can be written as

$$u(r > R) = \cancel{Ae^{\kappa r}} + Be^{-\kappa r}$$

- We conclude that the radial function for a bound state at large distances is

$$A(r) = \frac{u(r)}{r} \propto \frac{e^{-\kappa r}}{r} \quad (\text{large } r).$$

# Bound states

- Scattered solution

$$S_0(k) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} - \frac{e^{-ikr}}{r}$$

- Bound state solution

$$\frac{e^{-\kappa r}}{r}$$

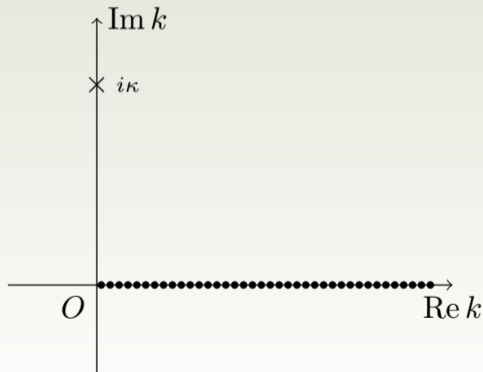
- By substituting  $k \rightarrow i\kappa$ , with  $k$  purely imaginary, we can connect the bound state with the scattered solution

$$\frac{e^{ikr}}{r} = \frac{e^{i(i\kappa)r}}{r} = \frac{e^{-\kappa r}}{r}$$

- $S_0(k)$  controls the ratio of the outgoing to the incoming wave
- In the bound state case, we have only the outgoing spherical wave, thus  $S_0(k) \rightarrow \infty$

# Bound states

- $S_l(k) = 1 + 2ikf_l(k) = e^{2i\delta_l(k)}$  is a complex function
- $S_0(k) \rightarrow \infty$  by substituting  $k \rightarrow i\kappa$  means it has a pole at  $k = i\kappa$



# Bound states

- In terms of the  $s$ -wave scattering amplitude  $f_0(k)$

$$f_0(k) = \frac{1}{k \cot \delta_0 - ik} = \frac{1}{-1/a - ik}$$

- We write  $S_0(k)$  as

$$S_0(k) = 1 + 2ikf_0(k) = \frac{-k - i/a}{k - i/a}$$

- This expression has a pole at  $k = i\kappa$  if we identify

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{a}$$

- In the zero-energy limit, the energy of a bound state and the scattering length are connected simply by

$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = -\frac{\hbar^2 \kappa^2}{2m} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2ma^2}$$

- A single parameter originated from the potential determines the bound-state energy



# Two-body scattering

- So far, we considered only the problem of a single particle being scattered by a finite-ranged potential  $V(r)$  located at  $r = 0$ .
- With a few modifications, we can use the results we obtained to describe two particles interacting through a pairwise potential which depends only on their spatial separation  $r$
- The Hamiltonian of a two-body system is separable in the center of mass (CM) and relative coordinates

$$H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_1} \nabla_{\mathbf{r}_1}^2 - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m_2} \nabla_{\mathbf{r}_2}^2 + V(\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2)$$

# Two-body scattering

- We define the CM and relative coordinates

$$\mathbf{R} = \frac{m_1 \mathbf{r}_1 + m_2 \mathbf{r}_2}{M} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2$$

- $H$  is now separable

$$\begin{aligned} H &= H_{\text{CM}} + H_r, \\ H_{\text{CM}} &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2M} \nabla_{\mathbf{R}}^2, \\ H_r &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_r} \nabla_{\mathbf{r}}^2 + V(r) \end{aligned}$$

- $m_r = m_1 m_2 / (m_1 + m_2)$  is the reduced mass

# Applications

- ① Spherically symmetric finite well
  - Analytical calculation of the  $s$ -wave scattering wave function
    - ① Scattering states ( $E > 0$ )
    - ② Bound states ( $E < 0$ )
  - Calculation of the scattering length and effective range
- ② Zero-range and finite-range approximations
  - Estimating bound state energies using the scattering length and effective range expansions

# Spherically-symmetric finite well

- One way of defining the spherical well is

$$V_{\text{sw}}(r) = \begin{cases} -V_0 & \text{for } r < R, \\ 0 & \text{for } r > R. \end{cases}$$

- $V_0$  has units of [energy]
- It will be clear in the numerical section that it is useful to redefine the potential as

$$V(r) = \begin{cases} -v_0 \frac{\hbar^2}{m_r R^2} & \text{for } r < R, \\ 0 & \text{for } r > R. \end{cases}$$

- $v_0$  is a dimensionless parameter related to the depth
- $R$  is the potential range

# Spherically-symmetric finite well ( $E > 0$ )

- Potential

$$V(r) = \begin{cases} -v_0 \frac{\hbar^2}{m_r R^2} & \text{for } r < R, \\ 0 & \text{for } r > R. \end{cases}$$

- $E > 0$  case

$$\left( \frac{d^2}{dr^2} - \frac{2m_r}{\hbar^2} V(r) + \frac{2m_r}{\hbar^2} E \right) u(r) = 0$$

→ Explicit forms for  $r < R$  and  $r > R$

$$u''(r) + (k_0^2 + k^2) u(r) = 0 \quad \text{for } r < R,$$

$$u''(r) + k^2 u(r) = 0 \quad \text{for } r > R,$$

→  $k^2 \equiv 2m_r E / \hbar^2$  and  $k_0^2 \equiv 2v_0 / R^2$

# Spherically-symmetric finite well ( $E > 0$ )

→ If  $r < R$

$$u(r) = A \sin \left( \sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} r \right) + B \cos \left( \sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} r \right)$$

- Since  $u_0(0) = 0$ , we set  $B = 0$

→ If  $r > R$

$$u_0(r) = \cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kr) + \cos(kr)$$

→ Hence, the solution is of the form

$$u(r) = \begin{cases} A \sin \left( \sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} r \right) & \text{for } r < R, \\ \cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kr) + \cos(kr) & \text{for } r > R. \end{cases}$$

# Spherically-symmetric finite well ( $E > 0$ )

- Logarithmic derivative at  $r = R^-$  and  $r = R^+$

$$\left[ r \frac{u'(r)}{u(r)} \right]_{r=R^-} = \left[ r \frac{u'(r)}{u(r)} \right]_{r=R^+}$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} \cos\left(\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} R\right)}{\sin\left(\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} R\right)} = \frac{k \cot \delta_0(k) \cos(kR) - k \sin(kR)}{\cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kR) + \cos(kR)}$$

- Solving for the phase shift  $\delta_0(k)$  **without any approximation**

$$\delta_0(k) = -kR + \arctan \left[ \frac{k \tan\left(\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} R\right)}{\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2}} \right]$$

# Spherically-symmetric finite well ( $E > 0$ )

- Scattering length

- To calculate the scattering length  $a$ , we need to take the  $k \rightarrow 0$  limit
- Rearrange the log derivative so that we collect factors of  $k \cot \delta_0(k)$
- Keep track of the orders employed in the approximation

$$\cos(kR) = 1 + \mathcal{O}(k^2)$$

$$\sin(kR) = kR + \mathcal{O}(k^3)$$

- Repeating last slides' equation:

$$\frac{\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} \cos\left(\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} R\right)}{\sin\left(\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} R\right)} = \frac{k \cot \delta_0(k) \cos(kR) - k \sin(kR)}{\cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kR) + \cos(kR)}$$

- Taking the  $k \rightarrow 0$  limit:

$$\sqrt{k_0^2} \cot\left(\sqrt{k_0^2} R\right) = \frac{-1/a}{-R/a + 1}$$



# Spherically-symmetric finite well ( $E > 0$ )

- Solving for  $a$ :

$$a = R - \frac{\tan(\sqrt{k_0^2}R)}{\sqrt{k_0^2}}$$

- The result is:

$$a = R - \frac{\tan(\sqrt{k_0^2}R)}{\sqrt{k_0^2}} = R \left( 1 - \frac{\tan(\sqrt{2v_0})}{\sqrt{2v_0}} \right)$$

- It is clear that  $a$  depends only on the parameters of the potential, its depth  $v_0$  and range  $R$
- Note that  $\tan(x) \rightarrow \infty$  for  $x = \frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi$ ,  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$
- So the first divergence ( $n = 0$ ) of  $a$  appears at

$$v_0 = \frac{\pi^2}{8}$$

# Spherically-symmetric finite well ( $E < 0$ )

- $E < 0$  case
- Repeat the same procedure or  $k = i\kappa \rightarrow E = \hbar^2 k^2 / 2m_r = -\hbar^2 \kappa^2 / 2m_r$

$$\left( \frac{d^2}{dr^2} - \frac{2m_r}{\hbar^2} V(r) - \frac{2m_r}{\hbar^2} |E| \right) u(r) = 0$$

- Solution for  $u(r)$

$$u(r) = \begin{cases} A' \sin\left(\sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2} r\right) & \text{for } r < R, \\ B' e^{-\kappa r} & \text{for } r > R \end{cases}$$

- Match the logarithmic derivatives at  $r = R$ ,

$$\frac{\sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2} \cos\left(\sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2} R\right)}{\sin\left(\sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2} R\right)} = \frac{-\kappa e^{-\kappa R}}{e^{-\kappa R}}$$

# Spherically-symmetric finite well ( $E < 0$ )

- After some manipulations,

$$\tan\left(\sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2} R\right) + \frac{\sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2}}{\kappa} = 0$$

- This is a transcendental equation that shows where the bound-state energies are located
- Note that the term  $\sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2}/\kappa$  is always positive
- $\tan\left(\sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2} R\right)$  must be negative if we want the equation to have solution(s). That is to say:

$$\frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi < \sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2} R < \pi + n\pi, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

# Spherically-symmetric finite well ( $E < 0$ )

- The first bound state is  $n = 0$ . Thus

$$\frac{\pi}{2R} < \sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2} < \frac{\pi}{R}$$

- $k_0 > \sqrt{k_0^2 - \kappa^2}$
- Since  $k_0 = \sqrt{2v_0}/R$ , we have

$$v_0 > \frac{\pi^2}{8}$$

- This result shows that there are no bound states if  $v_0$  is not above a certain threshold value
- This is the same threshold value that makes  $|a| \rightarrow \infty$
- The conclusion is that the scattering length diverges when a bound state appears

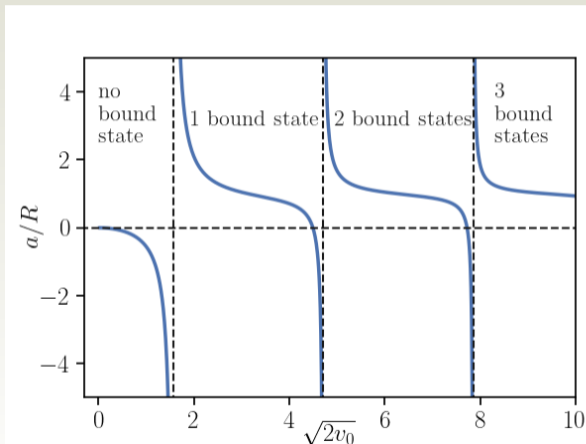
# Spherically-symmetric well - bound states and scattering length

$$a = R \left( 1 - \frac{\tan(\sqrt{2v_0})}{\sqrt{2v_0}} \right)$$

- $a$  diverges for:

$$\sqrt{2v_0} = \pi/2 + n\pi \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

- This coincides with the location of the bound states



# Spherically-symmetric finite well - effective range

- First, we need to determine the normalization constant of the scattering solution

$$u(r) = \begin{cases} A \sin \left( \sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} r \right) & \text{for } r < R, \\ \cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kr) + \cos(kr) & \text{for } r > R \end{cases}$$

- To determine the constant  $A$ , we impose the continuity of  $u(r)$  at  $r = R$

$$A = \frac{\cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kR) + \cos(kR)}{\sin \left( \sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} R \right)}$$

# Spherically-symmetric finite well - effective range

- The normalized solution is written as

$$u(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{\cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kR) + \cos(kR)}{\sin(\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} R)} \sin\left(\sqrt{k^2 + k_0^2} r\right) & \text{for } r < R, \\ \cot \delta_0(k) \sin(kr) + \cos(kr) & \text{for } r > R. \end{cases}$$

- The effective range is defined in the  $k \rightarrow 0$  limit of  $u(r)$ :

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow 0} u(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{(1-R/a)}{\sin(k_0 R)} \sin(k_0 r) & \text{for } r < R, \\ 1 - r/a & \text{for } r > R. \end{cases}$$

# Spherically-symmetric finite well - effective range

- The effective range is given by the integral

$$r_0 = 2 \int_0^R dr \left[ \left(1 - \frac{r}{a}\right)^2 - \left(1 - \frac{R}{a}\right)^2 \frac{\sin^2(k_0 r)}{\sin^2(k_0 R)} \right]$$

- Replacing  $a$  in favor of  $R$  and  $k_0$ :

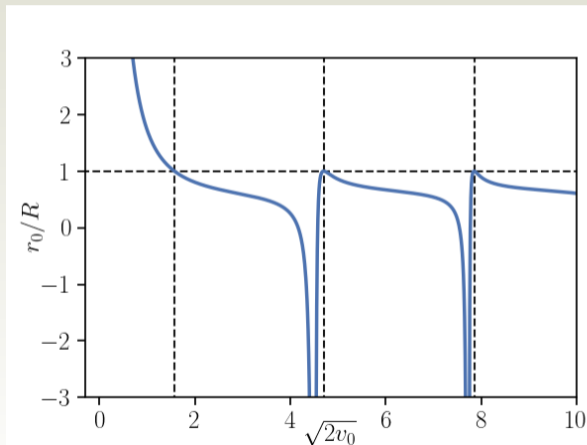
$$r_0 = R \left( 1 - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{k_0 R}{\tan(k_0 R) - k_0 R} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{k_0 R \tan(k_0 R) - (k_0 R)^2} \right)$$

- This shows that  $r_0$  also depends only on parameters of the potential



# Spherically-symmetric finite well - effective range

$$r_0 = R \left( 1 - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{k_0 R}{\tan(k_0 R) - k_0 R} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{k_0 R \tan(k_0 R) - (k_0 R)^2} \right)$$



# Applications

- ① Spherically symmetric finite well
  - Analytical calculation of the  $s$ -wave scattering wave function
    - ① Scattering states ( $E > 0$ )
    - ② Bound states ( $E < 0$ )
  - Calculation of the scattering length and effective range
- ② Zero-range and finite-range approximations
  - Estimating bound state energies using the scattering length and effective range expansions

# Zero-range and finite-range approximations

- The equation derived in the bound states slide allows us to estimate the bound state energy with the zero-range approximation  $\kappa = 1/a$ ,

$$E_{zr} = -\frac{\hbar^2 \kappa^2}{2m_r} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_r a^2}$$

- To take the effective range into account, we write the  $s$ -wave scattering amplitude as

$$f_0(k) = \frac{1}{k \cot \delta_0(k) - ik} = \frac{1}{-1/a + r_0 k^2/2 - ik}$$

- And  $S_0(k)$  as

$$S_0(k) = 1 + 2ikf_0(k) = \frac{-i/a - k + ir_0 k^2/2}{-i/a + k + ir_0 k^2/2}$$

- Making  $k \rightarrow i\kappa$

$$S_0(k) = \frac{-1/a - \kappa - r_0 \kappa^2/2}{-1/a + \kappa - r_0 \kappa^2/2}$$

# Zero-range and finite-range approximations

- Now we can identify the bound state as pole in the  $S$ -matrix by solving

$$-1/a + \kappa - r_0\kappa^2/2 = 0$$

- which yields the solution

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{r_0} \left( 1 \mp \sqrt{1 - \frac{2r_0}{a}} \right)$$

- Now choosing the appropriate root to compute the bound state energy

$$E_{fr} = -\frac{\hbar^2\kappa^2}{2m_r} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_r r_0^2} \left( 1 - \sqrt{1 - \frac{2r_0}{a}} \right)^2$$

# Zero-range and finite-range approximations

- Example: Helium dimer

- $E_d = -1.62$  mK (found solving the full Schrödinger equation),  $a = 90.4$  Å,  $r_0 = 8.0$  Å

→ Zero-range approximation

$$\frac{E_{zr}}{k_b} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{k_b \times 2m_r a^2} = -1.48 \text{ mK} \quad (92\%)$$

→ Finite-range approximation

$$\frac{E_{fr}}{k_b} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{k_b \times 2m_r r_0^2} \left(1 - \sqrt{1 - \frac{2r_0}{a}}\right)^2 = -1.63 \text{ mK} \quad (101\%)$$

- Both the zero- and finite-range results successfully describe the physical system because  $kR \sim 0.1$

# Zero-range and finite-range approximations

- Example: Deuteron

- $E_d c^2 = -2.224 \text{ MeV}$ ,  $a = 5.4112 \text{ fm}$ ,  $r_0 = 1.7436 \text{ fm}$ .

→ Zero-range approximation

$$E_{zr} c^2 = -\frac{\hbar^2 c^2}{2m_r a^2} = -1.416 \text{ MeV} \quad (64\%)$$

→ Finite-range approximation

$$E_{fr} c^2 = -\frac{\hbar^2 c^2}{2m_r r_0^2} \left(1 - \sqrt{1 - \frac{2r_0}{a}}\right)^2 = -2.223 \text{ MeV} \quad (100\%)$$

- The range of the potential needed to be taken into account because  $kR \sim 0.4$
- We should emphasize that the scales are very different in both examples
- $^4\text{He}$  dimer: spatial scale of Å ( $10^{-10} \text{ m}$ ) and the energy is of the order of  $10^{-7} \text{ eV}$
- Deuteron: the lengths are in the femtometer ( $10^{-15} \text{ m}$ ) scale, while the energy is of a few MeV ( $10^6 \text{ eV}$ )
- This exemplifies how universal are these low-energy scattering results

# Numerical Procedure

- Analytical expressions for the low-energy scattering parameters are only available for a few potentials
- Even in those cases, the calculations may be cumbersome, as we saw for the spherical well
- In general, we need to calculate  $a$  and  $r_0$  numerically
- We will describe two methods to solve the Schrödinger equation numerically
  - 1 Second-order central difference
  - 2 Numerov's method

# Numerical Procedure

- We wish to compute the quantities  $a$  and  $r_0$
- To do so, we need to compute the radial solution inside and outside the potential range
  - $u_0(r < R)$ : needs to be computed numerically
  - $u_0(r > R) = 1 - r/a$



# Second-order central difference

- Consider the function  $u(r)$  on a discrete set of points  $r_i = i\Delta r$ ,  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N$  and  $\Delta r \ll 1$
- Let us take two Taylor expansions of  $u(r)$  around the points  $r \pm \Delta r$

$$u(r + \Delta r) = u(r) + (\Delta r)u'(r) + \frac{(\Delta r)^2}{2}u''(r) + \frac{(\Delta r)^3}{6}u'''(r) + \dots,$$

$$u(r - \Delta r) = u(r) - (\Delta r)u'(r) + \frac{(\Delta r)^2}{2}u''(r) - \frac{(\Delta r)^3}{6}u'''(r) + \dots$$

- The difference of the two Taylor expansions yields an expression for the first derivative, while their sum results in the second derivative

$$\left. \frac{du}{dr} \right|_{r=r_i} = \frac{u_{i+1} - u_{i-1}}{2\Delta r} + \mathcal{O}[(\Delta r)^3]$$

$$\left. \frac{d^2u}{dr^2} \right|_{r=r_i} = \frac{u_{i+1} - 2u_i + u_{i-1}}{(\Delta r)^2} + \mathcal{O}[(\Delta r)^4]$$

# Second-order central difference

- We want to solve the zero-energy Schrödinger equation inside the potential range

$$\left( \frac{d^2}{dr^2} - \frac{2m_r}{\hbar^2} V(r) \right) u_0^{(k=0)}(r) = 0$$

$$\left. \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} \right|_{r=r_i} \approx \frac{u_{i+1} - 2u_i + u_{i-1}}{(\Delta r)^2}$$

- Substituting the central difference second derivative into  $u''(r)$

$$u_{i+1} = 2u_i - u_{i-1} + \frac{2m_r(\Delta r)^2}{\hbar^2} V(r_i)u_i$$

# Second-order central difference

$$u_{i+1} = 2u_i - u_{i-1} + \frac{2m_r(\Delta r)^2}{\hbar^2} V(r_i)u_i$$

- If we know the value of the radial solution for two consecutive points,  $r_{i-1}$  and  $r_i$ , we can calculate the value for the next point  $u_{i+1}$ 
  - $u(0) = 0$
  - $u(\Delta r) = 1$
- This choice allows us to find a solution without worrying about the normalization
- Algorithm:
  - 1 Set  $u_0 = 0$ ,  $u_1 = 1$ , and  $i = 1$
  - 2 Compute  $u_{i+1}$
  - 3 If  $r_i \geq R + \Delta r$ , stop. Else, increment  $i$  by one
  - 4 Go to step 2

# Numerov's method

- The second-order central difference is one possible discretization for a numerical second derivative
- There are other alternatives if we want to improve the precision of our algorithm
- Numerov's method is a numerical technique capable of solving differential equations of second order when the first-order term is not present:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\xi(x)y(x) + s(x)$$

- The  $s$ -wave zero-energy radial equation is of this form, with  $y \rightarrow u$ ,  $x \rightarrow r$ ,  $s = 0$ , and

$$\xi(r) = -\frac{2m_r}{\hbar^2}V(r)$$

# Numerov's method

- The method provides a solution of the form

$$y_{i+1} = \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{12} \xi_{i+1}\right)} \left\{ 2y_i \left(1 - \frac{5(\Delta x)^2}{12} \xi_i\right) - y_{i-1} \left(1 + \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{12} \xi_{i-1}\right) + \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{12} (s_{i+1} + 10s_i + s_{i-1}) \right\} + \mathcal{O}[(\Delta x)^6]$$

- The algorithm is mostly unchanged if we use Numerov's method instead of the second-order central difference

# Dimensionless quantities

- Schrödinger's equation contains relatively small quantities
  - $\hbar \sim 10^{-34}$  J s (or  $\sim 10^{-15}$  eV s)
  - Typical masses, length, and energy scales are also small
- We wish to make Schrödinger's equation dimensionless
- Instead of this

$$\left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} - \frac{m_r}{\hbar^2} E + \frac{m_r}{\hbar^2} V(r) \right) u_0(r) = 0$$

- we want to solve this

$$\left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\bar{r}^2} - \bar{E} + \bar{V}(\bar{r}) \right) \bar{u}(\bar{r}) = 0$$

- “ $\hbar = m_r = 1$ ”

# Dimensionless quantities

- First, we choose a length scale  $\ell$ 
  - The convenient value of  $\ell$  depends on the system under study; for atomic physics, it may be 1 Å; for nuclear physics, we may use 1 fm or any other length scale that makes sense for a particular problem
- Then the dimensionless scaled distance is

$$\bar{r} = \frac{r}{\ell}$$

- The radial function  $u(r)$  has units of  $[\text{length}]^{-1/2}$  (remember that  $\int dr |u(r)|^2 = 1$ )

$$\bar{u}(\bar{r}) = \frac{u(r)}{\ell^{-1/2}}$$

# Dimensionless quantities

- The second derivative becomes

$$\frac{d^2}{dr^2} = \frac{1}{\ell^2} \frac{d^2}{d\bar{r}^2}$$

- Going back to the equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_r \ell^2} \frac{d^2 \bar{u}}{d\bar{r}^2} + V(\bar{r})\bar{u} = E\bar{u}$$

- We can also define an energy scale

$$\epsilon = \frac{\hbar^2}{m_r \ell^2}$$

- And now we define the dimensionless energy and potential

$$\bar{E} = \frac{E}{\epsilon}, \quad \bar{V} = \frac{V}{\epsilon}$$

- Finally

$$\boxed{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 \bar{u}}{d\bar{r}^2} + \bar{V}(\bar{r})\bar{u} = \bar{E}\bar{u}}$$



# Scattering length and effective range

- After following the numerical solution for  $u_0(r)$ , we're ready to compute the scattering length and the effective range
- Scattering length
  - We recall that logarithmic derivative of the wave function outside the potential range is given by

$$\left. \frac{g'_0(r)}{g_0(r)} \right|_{r=R^+} = \frac{1}{R-a}$$

→ This should be equal to the logarithmic derivative of  $u_0(r)$  at  $r = R^-$

$$\left. \frac{g'_0(r)}{g_0(r)} \right|_{r=R^+} = \frac{1}{R-a} = \left. \frac{u'_0(r)}{u_0(r)} \right|_{r=R^-}$$

→ We already have  $u(R)$  and  $u(R \pm \Delta r)$ . Thus the derivative may be computed as

$$u'_{\text{num}}(R) = \left. \frac{du(r)}{dr} \right|_{r=R} = \frac{u(R + \Delta r) - u(R - \Delta r)}{2\Delta r}$$

# Scattering length and effective range

- Scattering length

→ Now solving for  $a$

$$a = R - \frac{2\Delta r u(R)}{u(R + \Delta r) - u(R - \Delta r)}$$

→ This expression depends on the ratio of the radial solution, so we ignored the normalization

- Effective range

→ On the other hand, the effective range assumes a particular normalization choice

→ We multiply  $u(r)$  by a constant  $C$  such that

$$C = \frac{g(R)}{u(R)} = \frac{(1 - R/a)}{u(R)}$$

→ The effective range is found by computing the integral

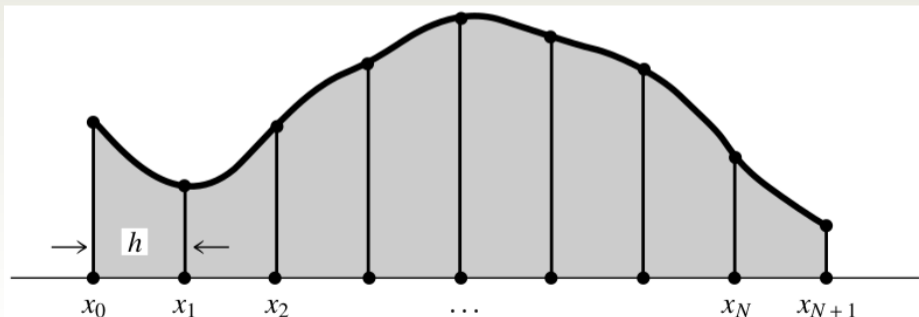
$$r_0 = 2 \int_0^R dr [g_0^2(r) - u_0^2(r)]$$

# Numerical integration

- The task is essentially to compute numerically an integral of the form

$$I = \int_{x_1}^{x_N} f(x) dx$$

- $f(x)$  is known only at a discrete set of equally spaced points,  $f(x_i) \equiv f_i$ , where  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$ .



# Numerical integration

- Trapezoidal rule:

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x)dx = h \left[ \frac{1}{2}f_1 + \frac{1}{2}f_2 \right] + \mathcal{O}(h^3 f'')$$

- Using it  $N - 1$  times for the intervals:  $(x_1, x_2), (x_2, x_3), \dots, (x_{N-1}, x_N)$

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_N} f(x)dx = h \left[ \frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2 + f_3 + \dots + f_{N-1} + \frac{1}{2}f_N \right] + \mathcal{O} \left( \frac{(x_N - x_1)^3 f''}{N^2} \right)$$

# Numerical integration

- Simpson's rule:

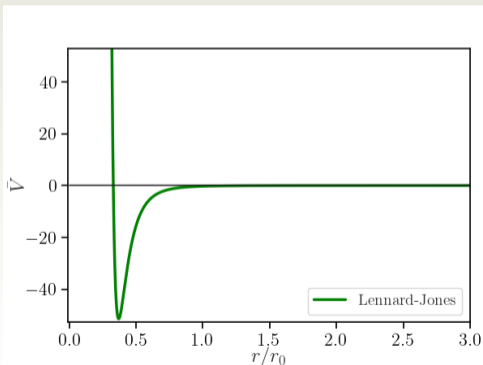
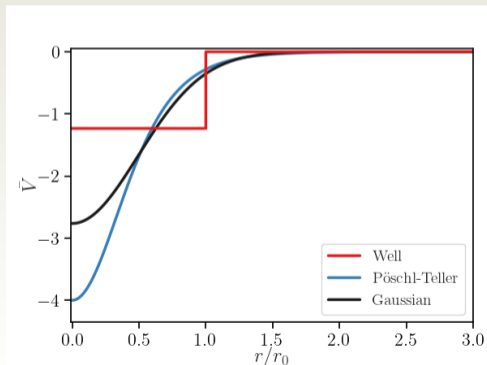
$$\int_{x_1}^{x_3} f(x) dx = h \left[ \frac{1}{3}f_1 + \frac{4}{3}f_2 + \frac{1}{3}f_3 \right] + \mathcal{O}(h^5 f^{(4)})$$

- Repeatedly:

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_N} f(x) dx = h \left[ \frac{1}{3}f_1 + \frac{4}{3}f_2 + \frac{2}{3}f_3 + \frac{4}{3}f_4 + \cdots + \frac{2}{3}f_{N-2} + \frac{4}{3}f_{N-1} + \frac{1}{3}f_N \right] + \mathcal{O} \left( \frac{(x_N - x_1)^5 f^{(4)}}{N^4} \right)$$

# Examples

- We chose four potentials to illustrate the numerical procedure
  - Spherical well
  - Modified Pöschl-Teller
  - Gaussian
  - Lennard-Jones



# Potentials - Spherical well

→ To make the comparison with other potentials easier, we redefine

$$V_{\text{sw}}(r) = \begin{cases} -v_{\text{sw}} \frac{\hbar^2 \mu_{\text{sw}}^2}{m_r}, & \text{for } r < R, \\ 0, & \text{for } r > R, \end{cases}$$

- $v_{\text{sw}}$  is a dimensionless parameter related to the depth

- $\mu_{\text{sw}} = 1/R$

→ As we saw,  $\epsilon = \frac{\hbar^2}{m_r \ell^2}$  makes Schrödinger's equation dimensionless

→ We can compare our numerical solutions with the analytical ones to check the correctness of the program

# Potentials - Modified Pöschl-Teller (mPT)

$$V_{\text{PT}}(r) = -v_{\text{PT}} \frac{\hbar^2}{m_r} \frac{\mu_{\text{PT}}^2}{\cosh^2(\mu_{\text{PT}} r)}$$

- Very difficult analytical solution for the eigenfunctions
- There is an analytical expression for  $a$  in terms of the parameters of the potential

$$a\mu_{\text{PT}} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cot\left(\frac{\pi\lambda}{2}\right) + \gamma + \Psi(\lambda),$$

- $v_{\text{PT}} = \lambda(\lambda - 1)/2$ ,  $\gamma$  is the Euler-Mascheroni constant and  $\Psi$  is the digamma function
- The  $|a| \rightarrow \infty$  case corresponds to  $\lambda = 2$  ( $\cot(\pi)$  diverges) or  $\lambda = -1$  ( $\Psi(-1)$  diverges), that is,  $v_{\text{PT}} = 1$
- For this particular case ( $|a| \rightarrow \infty$ ), the  $s$ -wave zero-energy radial function takes a relatively simple form

$$u_0(r) = \frac{\tanh(\mu_{\text{PT}} r)}{\tanh(\mu_{\text{PT}} R)}$$



# Potentials - mPT

- We can also calculate the effective range by performing the integral. In this case ( $|a| \rightarrow \infty$ ),  $g_0(r) = 1 - r/a = 1$ , so that

$$r_0 = 2 \int_0^R dr \left[ 1 - \frac{\tanh^2(\mu_{\text{PT}} r)}{\tanh^2(\mu_{\text{PT}} R)} \right] = 2 \left[ R - \frac{R}{\tanh^2(\mu_{\text{PT}} R)} + \frac{1}{\mu_{\text{PT}} \tanh(\mu_{\text{PT}} R)} \right]$$

- Since  $1/\mu_{\text{PT}} \sim R$  and the  $\tanh(x)$  function converges rapidly to 1 as we increase  $x$ , we may set  $\tanh(\mu_{\text{PT}} R) = 1$ . Thus we have that  $r_0 = 2/\mu_{\text{PT}}$  for  $v_{\text{PT}} = 1$

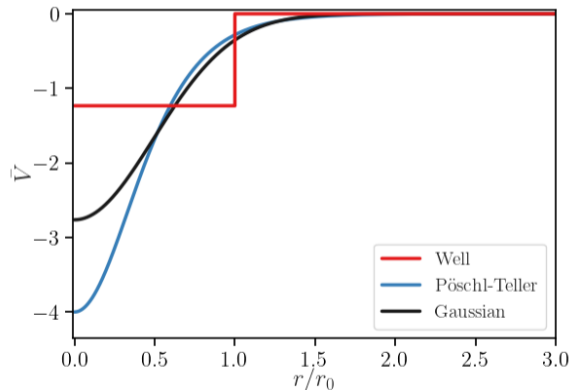
# Potentials

- Spherical well
- Modified Pöschl-Teller

$$V_{\text{PT}}(r) = -v_{\text{PT}} \frac{\hbar^2}{m_r} \frac{\mu_{\text{PT}}^2}{\cosh^2(\mu_{\text{PT}} r)}$$

- Gaussian

$$V_{\text{g}}(r) = -v_{\text{g}} \frac{\hbar^2}{m_r} \mu_{\text{g}}^2 e^{-r^2 \mu_{\text{g}}^2}$$

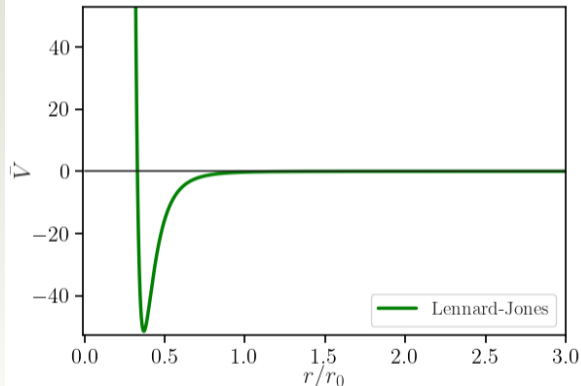


- The potential range  $R$  is not well defined for the mPT and the gaussian potentials  
→ Look for a value of  $R$  such that the potential is negligible  $|V(R)| \leq \varepsilon$

# Potentials

- Lennard-Jones

$$V_{\text{LJ}}(r) = \frac{\hbar^2}{m_r} \left[ \frac{C_{12}}{r^{12}} - \frac{C_6}{r^6} \right]$$



- Note that  $V_{\text{LJ}}(0)$  diverges and  $V(\Delta r)$  is very large
  - We can safely set the boundary condition  $u(0) = 0$  but computing  $u(\Delta r)$  may lead to instabilities
  - Define a range  $0 \leq r < r_{\text{min}}$  where  $u(r) = 0$  and start the integration at  $r = r_{\text{min}}$

# Tuning the parameters

- The four potentials we presented have two parameters.
- Spherical well, mPT, Gaussian are purely attractive
  - one parameter is associated with the depth of the potential ( $v_{sw}$ ,  $v_{PT}$ , and  $v_g$ )
  - and another with its range ( $\mu_{sw}$ ,  $\mu_{PT}$ , and  $\mu_g$ ).
- The LJ potential has a repulsive core and an attractive region
  - $C_6$  controls the attractive interaction
  - $C_{12}$  controls the repulsive interaction
- Typically, the scattering length and effective range are known, and we want to tune the parameters of a particular potential to reproduce the desired  $a$  and  $r_0$  values
- Since we want to match two values and have two free parameters, the correspondence is one-to-one (with the restriction of how many bound states we want)

# Tuning the parameters

- To tune the parameters, we follow the following procedure
  - 1 Start with a guess  $(v_1, v_2)$ .
  - 2 Compute  $a$  and  $r_0$
  - 3 Keep  $v_2$  fixed. Vary  $v_1$  until  $a$  has the desired value. Increasing the depth of the potential will decrease the value of the scattering length (until it diverges and changes from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$ ).
  - 4 Keep  $v_1$  fixed at the value found in step 3. Vary  $v_2$  until  $r_0$  has the desired value. Increasing the range of the potential will increase  $r_0$ .
  - 5 If  $a$  and  $r_0$  match the desired values, stop. Else, go to step 3 and use the value of  $v_2$  found in step 4.

# Results

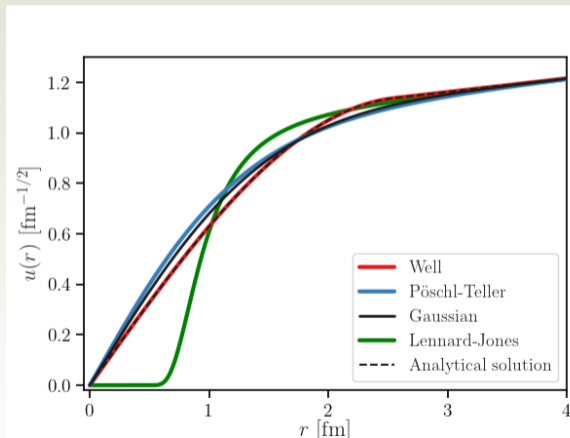
- We present 3 cases:  $a < 0$ ,  $|a| \rightarrow \infty$ , and  $a > 0$ , which correspond to three very distinct physical situations.
  - $a < 0$ 
    - \* Example: neutron-neutron interaction ( $a = -18.5 \text{ fm}$ ,  $r_0 = 2.7 \text{ fm}$ )
  - $|a| \rightarrow \infty$ 
    - \* Example: unitary Fermi gas
  - $a > 0$ 
    - \* Example: deuteron ( $a = 5.4 \text{ fm}$ ,  $r_0 = 1.7 \text{ fm}$ )

System	$a$ (fm)	$r_0$ (fm)
<b>Neutron-neutron</b>	$-18.5$	$2.7$
<b>Unitarity</b>	$\pm\infty$	$1.0$
<b>Deuteron</b>	$5.4$	$1.7$

# Results

- $a < 0$

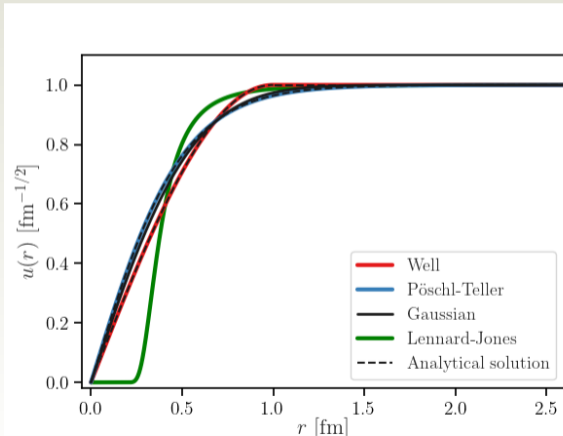
Potential	$v$	$\mu$ (fm <sup>-1</sup> )	$a$ (fm)	$r_0$ (fm)
<b>Neutron-neutron</b>				
Well	1.1096	0.3918	-18.52	2.7
mPT	0.9071	0.7991	-18.51	2.7
Gaussian	1.2121	0.5672	-18.55	2.7



# Results

•  $|a| \rightarrow \infty$

Potential	$v$	$\mu$ (fm $^{-1}$ )	$a$ (fm)	$r_0$ (fm)
<b>Unitarity</b>				
Well	1.2337	1.0000	$\sim -10^5$	1.0
mPT	1.0000	2.0000	$\sim 10^9$	1.0
Gaussian	1.3420	1.4349	$\sim -10^5$	1.0

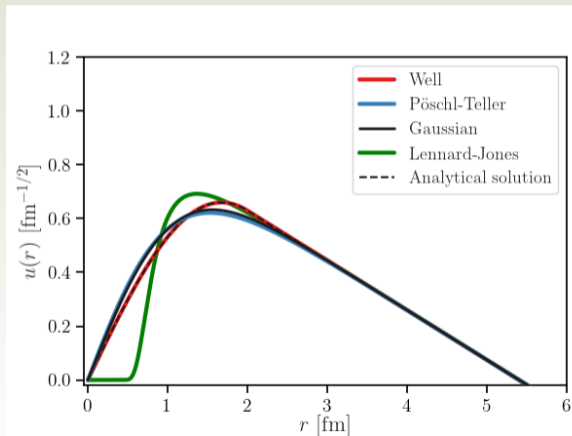




# Results

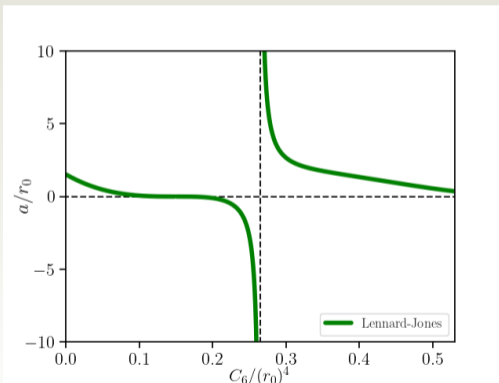
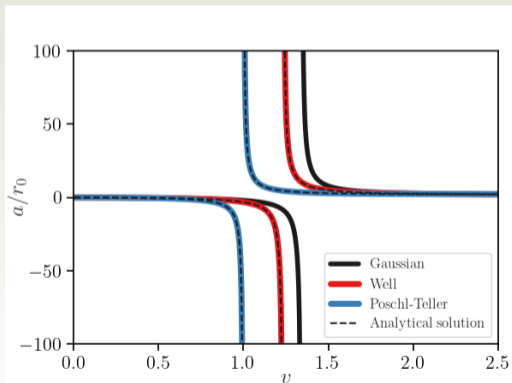
- $a > 0$

Potential	$v$	$\mu$ (fm $^{-1}$ )	$a$ (fm)	$r_0$ (fm)
<b>Deuteron</b>				
Well	1.2337	1.0000	$\sim -10^5$	1.0
mPT	1.0000	2.0000	$\sim 10^9$	1.0
Gaussian	1.3420	1.4349	$\sim -10^5$	1.0



# Results

- Scattering length as a function of the strength of the attractive potential



# Conclusions

- We presented quantum scattering theory fundamentals focusing on the low-energy limit
- In this context, we introduced two significant quantities: the scattering length and the effective range
- To illustrate how these two parameters behave in a concrete example, we derived analytical expressions for both in the case of the spherical well
- We also showed how the energy of a bound state could be calculated using zero- and finite-range expressions applied to a  $^4\text{He}$  dimer and the deuteron
- We described a numerical procedure that can be used to compute the scattering length and effective range of any spherically symmetric finite-ranged two-body potential
  - Examples: spherical well, modified Pöschl-Teller, Gaussian, and Lennard-Jones potentials
- Now, you can extend what you learned to your choice of physical systems, and apply the method to other potentials