

Example Scattering off a hard sphere

$$V(r) = \begin{cases} \infty & r < r_0 \\ 0 & r > r_0 \end{cases}$$

1) Solve S.Eq.

2) Look at soln. for $r \rightarrow \infty$ and identify phase shifts.

$$R_e(r) = \begin{cases} 0 & r < r_0 \\ A_e j_e(kr) + B_e n_e(kr) & r > r_0 \end{cases}$$

Boundary condition at r_0 :

$$R_e(r_0) = 0 = A_e j_e(kr_0) + B_e n_e(kr_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{B_e}{A_e} = -\frac{j_e(kr_0)}{n_e(kr_0)} = -\tan \delta_e \quad \Rightarrow A_e = N \cos \delta_e \\ B_e = -N \sin \delta_e \\ N = \sqrt{A_e^2 + B_e^2}$$

Asymptotically

$$R_e(r) \xrightarrow[r \rightarrow \infty]{} \frac{1}{kr} \left[A_e \sin \left(kr - \frac{\ell\pi}{2} \right) - B_e \cos \left(kr - \frac{\ell\pi}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{N}{kr} \sin \left(kr - \frac{\ell\pi}{2} + \delta_e \right)$$

So we have

$$\boxed{\delta_e = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{j_e(kr_0)}{n_e(kr_0)} \right)} \quad (\text{hard sphere})$$

For s-waves this gives

$$\delta_0 = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\sin(kr_0)/kr_0}{-\cos(kr_0)/kr_0} \right) = \tan^{-1}(-\tan(kr_0)) = -kr_0$$

The hard sphere has pushed out the wavefunction, which starts to oscillate at $r=r_0$ instead of $r=0$
 \rightarrow phase shift $-\kappa r_0$.

In general: repulsive potentials give negative phase shifts
 (They slow down the particle, reducing the WKB phase)
 attractive potentials give positive phase shifts
 (true as long as $2\delta_e < \pi$)

For $\kappa r_0 = \pi$, $\alpha_0 = 0 \Rightarrow$ s-waves don't "see" the hard sphere at that energy!

- What is the low-energy limit of the hard-sphere phase shifts?

use $j_\ell(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^\ell}{(2\ell+1)!!}$

$$n_\ell(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow 0} -\frac{1}{(2\ell-1)!!} \frac{1}{x^{\ell+1}}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} j_\ell \\ n_\ell \end{array} \right\} \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow 0} \sim x^{2\ell+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tan \delta_\ell \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow 0} \delta_\ell = -\frac{(k r_0)^{2\ell+1}}{(2\ell+1)!!(2\ell-1)!!}$$

Scattering in high- ℓ states is suppressed;
 $\ell=0$ (isotropic scattering) dominates.

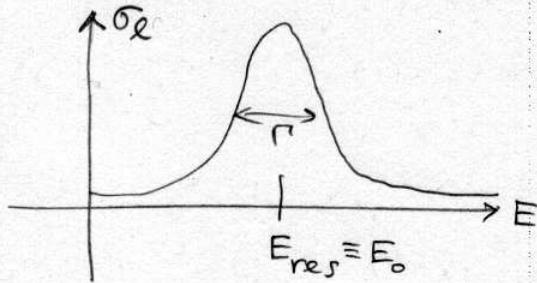
Note: $\sigma_{\ell=0} \sim \frac{\sin^2 \delta_0}{k^2} \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow 0} \text{const} \neq 0$ as $k \rightarrow 0$,

so the scattering cross section remains finite in the zero-energy limit!

Scattering resonances

Even though at low energies the partial cross section σ_e is generically small, $\sigma_e \propto k^{2l+1}$, sometimes the phase shift δ_e happens to rise very quickly from 0 to π (or from $n\pi$ to $(n+1)\pi$) over a narrow range of k (or E).

When this happens, the cross section develops a characteristic peak structure as function of energy, called a scattering resonance:



If δ_e rises rapidly near $E_0 = \frac{\hbar^2 k_0^2}{2\mu}$, then

we can write

$$\delta_e = \delta_b + \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\Gamma/2}{E_0 - E} \right)$$

↑
"background phase", \propto energy independent over the region Γ

(at $E=E_0$, $\delta_e=\frac{\pi}{2}$;
 at $E \ll E_0$, $E_0 \gg \Gamma$, $\delta_e \approx n\pi$;
 at $E \gg E_0 + \Gamma$, $\delta_e \approx (n+1)\pi$)

Neglecting δ_b , we get

$$\sigma_e = \frac{4\pi}{k^2} (2l+1) \sin^2 \delta_e \underset{|E-E_0| \leq \Gamma}{\approx}$$

$$\frac{4\pi}{k^2} (2l+1) \sin^2 \left(\text{atan} \left(\frac{\Gamma/2}{E_0 - E} \right) \right)$$

$$\operatorname{arctg} \frac{1}{x} = \operatorname{arctg}(x) = \operatorname{arcsin} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin(\operatorname{arctg}(\frac{\Gamma/2}{E_0 - E})) = \sin(\operatorname{arcsin} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(\frac{E_0 - E}{\Gamma/2})^2}})$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma/2}{\sqrt{(E_0 - E)^2 + \Gamma^2/4}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\sigma_e \approx \frac{4\pi}{k^2} (2l+1) \frac{\Gamma^2/4}{(E_0 - E)^2 + \Gamma^2/4}}$$

Breit-Wigner formula

The maximum cross section at the resonance energy is

$$\sigma_e^{\max} = \frac{4\pi}{k^2} (2l+1), \text{ i.e., it exhausts the unitarity bound.}$$

In deriving this we assumed that, near E_0 , Γ can be treated as a constant. But Γ should really be k -dependent. The k -dependence can be deduced by noting that, for $k \rightarrow 0$,

$$\sigma_e \sim \frac{1}{k^2} \sin^2 \delta_e \approx \frac{1}{k^2} \delta_e^2 \sim \frac{(kr_0)^{4l+2}}{k^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma/2 = (kr_0)^{2l+1} \gamma \quad \text{where } \gamma \text{ has units of energy and is constant.}$$

So a better approximation that is valid over a wider region in energy is

$$\boxed{\sigma_e = \frac{4\pi}{k^2} (2l+1) \frac{\gamma^2 (kr_0)^{4l+2}}{(E - E_0)^2 + \gamma^2 (kr_0)^{4l+2}}}$$

This dampens, for $l \neq 0$, σ_e at low energies by a factor k^{4l} (only s-wave scattering survives), except at

the resonance energies E_0 where it is compensated by a similar factor in the denominator.

As l goes up, the resonances get sharper (if you hold γ fixed).

What exactly is going on at a resonance? How is this related to the properties of the solution of the Schrödinger equation? Let's look at the S-matrix:

Near a resonance we have

$$\begin{aligned} S_e(k) &= e^{2i\delta_e(k)} = \frac{e^{i\delta_e}}{e^{-i\delta_e}} = \frac{\cos\delta_e + i\sin\delta_e}{\cos\delta_e - i\sin\delta_e} \\ &= \frac{1 + i\tan\delta_e}{1 - i\tan\delta_e} = \frac{1 + i\frac{\Gamma/2}{E_0 - E}}{1 - i\frac{\Gamma/2}{E_0 - E}} = \frac{E - E_0 - i\Gamma/2}{E - E_0 + i\Gamma/2} \end{aligned}$$

Let us think of this S_e as a function of complex k .

This function obviously has a pole at

$$\boxed{E = E_0 - i\frac{\Gamma}{2}} \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{k = k_0 - i\frac{\gamma}{2}}$$

where $\frac{\hbar^2 k_0^2}{2\mu} = E_0$ and $\gamma = \frac{\mu\Gamma}{\hbar^2 k_0}$ (assuming that Γ and γ are small enough that we can drop terms $\sim \Gamma^2$).

Since Γ and γ are small compared with E_0 and k_0 , respectively, the pole is close to the real axis.

So the peak in S_ℓ on the real axis arises from a pole nearby in the complex plane; the closer the pole is to the real axis ($\gamma \rightarrow 0$), the narrower (sharper) the resonance becomes.

What is the meaning of a pole of the S-matrix in the complex plane?

(assuming a finite range potential)

Consider a bound state of \hat{H} . To be normalizable, its wave function must fall off at large r exponentially:

$$R_{\text{rel}}(r) \xrightarrow[r \rightarrow \infty]{} \frac{A e^{-kr}}{r}$$

For generic k values the solution reads

$$R_{\text{rel}}(r) \xrightarrow[r \rightarrow \infty]{} \frac{A e^{-kr}}{r} + \frac{B e^{+kr}}{r}$$

but this is not normalizable; only for specific discrete k values, corresponding to the energy eigenvalues, does the B -term disappear.

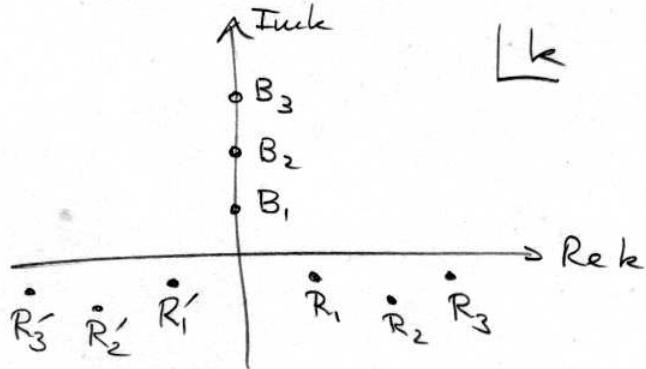
Compare this to scattering states at $E > 0$, which behave asymptotically as

$$R_{\text{rel}}(r) \xrightarrow[r \rightarrow \infty]{} \frac{A e^{ikr}}{r} + \frac{B e^{-ikr}}{r}$$

Their phase shift and S-matrix factors are determined by (see discussion of p. 120)

$$e^{2i\delta_e(k)} = S_e(k) = \frac{A}{B} = \frac{\text{outgoing wave amplitude}}{\text{incoming wave amplitude.}}$$

Using this definition for the bound state (which has $B=0$) we see that a bound state corresponds to a pole of the S-matrix at $k=ix$, i.e. for purely imaginary k :



So resonances are also some weird kind of bound state, in the sense that they are complex poles of the S-matrix. The real bound state wave functions have time dependence

$$e^{-iE_B t/\hbar} \quad (E_B = -\frac{\hbar^2 k_B^2}{2\mu} < 0);$$

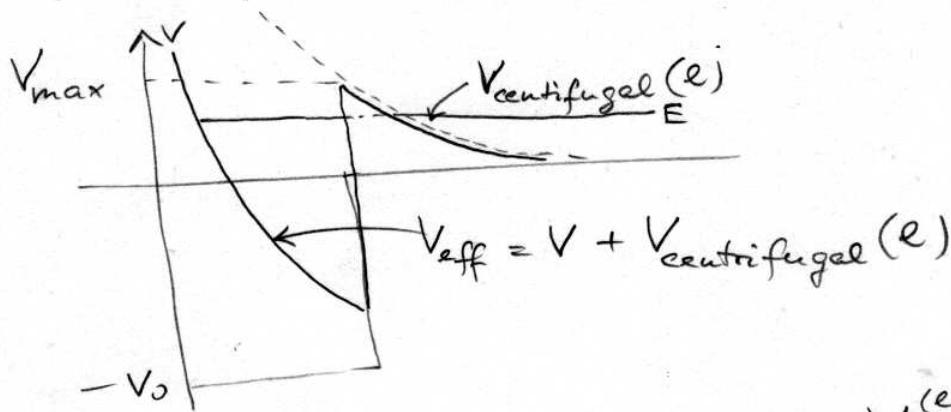
Correspondingly, the resonance at $E = E_0 - i\Gamma/\hbar$ corresponds to a wave function with time dependence

$$e^{-i(E_0 - \frac{i\Gamma}{2})t/\hbar} = e^{-iE_0 t/\hbar} e^{-\Gamma t/2\hbar} \quad (E_0 = \frac{\hbar^2 k_0^2}{2\mu} > 0)$$

This describes a state with positive energy $E_0 > 0$ whose norm decays exponentially with half-life $t \sim \frac{\hbar}{\Gamma}$. \Rightarrow A pole at $E = E_0 - i\Gamma/2$ describes an unstable "bound" state of energy $E_0 > 0$ and lifetime $\tau = \frac{\hbar}{\Gamma}$. (Due to the finite lifetime,

the energy of the state is not sharply defined, as seen by the width of the peak in the cross section $\sigma_{\text{tot}}(E)$.)

How can a positive energy particle form a metastable bound state? Consider a square well:



$$\text{At nonzero } l, \text{ the effective potential } V_{\text{eff}}^{(l)}(r) = V(r) + \frac{l(l+1)}{2mr^2}$$

develops a "pocket" that can sustain unstable quasi-bound states at $E > 0$ whose decay is inhibited by a potential barrier. The lifetime is controlled by the tunnelling rate through the barrier.

As l increases, $V_{\text{centrifugal}}$ increases and tunnelling is suppressed \rightarrow the resonances get sharper. For $l=0$ there are no resonances in this potential.