

Lee 40:

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Energy Eigenstates for Central Potentials

A rotationally invariant system has a central potential:

$$[H, L_x] = [H, L_y] = [H, L_z] = 0 \iff V(x, y, z) = V(r)$$

In the coordinate basis Schrodinger equation reads:

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2\mu} \left[\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sin\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2\theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} \right] \Psi_E(r, \theta, \phi) + V(r) \Psi_E(r, \theta, \phi) = E \Psi_E(r, \theta, \phi)$$

This is a separable problem and we have:

$$\Psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r) \Theta(\theta) \Phi(\phi)$$

The three ordinary differential equations for R , Θ , Φ

are:

$$\frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} \Phi(\phi) = -m^2 \Phi(\phi) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(periodicity with respect to } \phi) \\ \uparrow \\ m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \end{array}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{d}{d\theta} \sin\theta \frac{d}{d\theta} \Theta(\theta) - \frac{m^2}{\sin^2\theta} \Theta(\theta) = \overset{(l=0, 2, 4, \dots)}{\underbrace{-l(l+1)}_{\uparrow}} \Theta(\theta)$$

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2\mu} \left[\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} r^2 \frac{d}{dr} R(r) - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} R(r) \right] + V(r) R(r) = E R(r)$$

The first two equations are just eigenvalue problems for L_z and L^2 because (in the coordinate basis),

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

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

Note that $\Phi(\phi)$ depends on one integer m , $\Theta(\theta)$ depends on two integers m, l , and $R(r)$ depends on three parameters. We therefore show them as:

$$\Phi_{lm}(\phi), \quad \Theta_{lm}(\theta), \quad R_{El, m}(r)$$

The two integers l, m (related to the total orbital angular momentum and its z component) are used to uniquely specify degenerate energy eigenstates.

$\Phi_{lm}(\phi)$ is simply $e^{im\phi}$. $\Theta_{lm}(\theta)$ are the so called

"associated Legendre polynomials".

$$\Theta_{lm}(\theta) \propto P_{lm}(\cos\theta)$$

These are obtained from Legendre polynomials P_l .

Recall that P_l are orthonormal polynomials such that,

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} P_l(x) P_l(x) (1-x^2) dx = 0$$

$$P_l(-x) = (-1)^l P_l(x)$$

The associated polynomials are obtained according to:

$$P_{lm}(x) = (1-x^2)^{m/2} \frac{d^m P_l(x)}{dx^m} \quad m > 0$$

$$P_{lm}(x) = (-1)^m P_{l-m}(x) \quad m < 0$$

The product of $\Theta_{lm}(\theta)$ and $\Phi_m(\varphi)$ is nothing but

the "spherical harmonics $Y_{lm}(\theta, \varphi)$ ". They satisfy

the orthonormality condition:

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi Y_{lm}(\theta, \varphi) Y_{l'm'}(\theta, \varphi) \sin\theta d\theta d\varphi = \delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'}$$

They are given by:

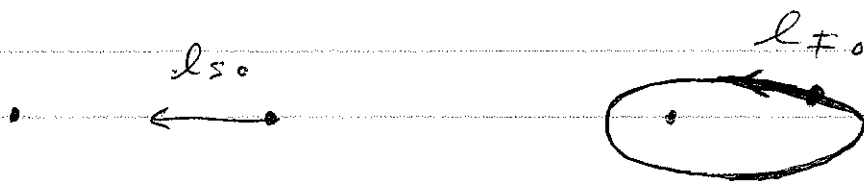
$$Y_{lm}(\theta, \varphi) = \left[\frac{(2l+1)(l-m)!}{4\pi(l+m)!} \right]^{1/2} (-1)^m e^{im\varphi} P_{lm}(\cos\theta)$$

Next we consider $R_{E\ell}(r)$. The relevant differential equation is:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \left[\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} - \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{r^2} \right] R_{E\ell}(r) + V(r) R_{E\ell}(r) = E R_{E\ell}(r)$$

Note that for $\ell \neq 0$ (non-zero total angular momentum), there exists a term $+\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{r^2} R_{E\ell}$ in the equation. This amounts to an effective repulsive potential.

It can be understood physically. For an attractive potential $V(r)$ the particle falls to the center if it has no angular momentum. The angular momentum will change the trajectory from radial to elliptical, and hence the particle will miss the center.



The differential equation looks much simpler by making

a re-definition $R_{El}(r) = \frac{U_{El}(r)}{r}$. Then we find:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{d^2 U_{El}}{dr^2} + \left[\frac{l(l+1)\hbar^2}{2\mu r^2} + V(r) \right] U_{El} = E U_{El}$$

↓
effective potential

This is just a one-dimensional Schrödinger equation

($0 \leq r < +\infty$) with an effective potential that includes

a $\frac{l}{r^2}$ term for non-zero angular momentum.

Before discussing solutions for given $V(r)$, let us

examine the asymptotic behavior of the solutions.

The operator on the left-hand side of the above equation is Hermitian. This results in a requirement

that (U_1 and U_2 two solutions):

$$\left(U_1^* \frac{dU_2}{dr} - U_2^* \frac{dU_1}{dr} \right) \Big|_0^{+\infty} = 0$$

which implies that $U \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$, or $U \rightarrow e^{\pm ikr}$ as

$r \rightarrow \infty$, is required by the normalization condition; bound states

$$\int_0^\infty |R_{El}|^2 r^2 dr = \int_0^\infty |U_{El}|^2 dr = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{bound states} \\ \delta\text{-function} & \text{unbound states} \end{cases}$$

This already fixes the asymptotic behavior of

$R_{El}(r)$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$:

$$R_{El}(r) \rightarrow \frac{e^{\pm ikr}}{r} \quad \text{or} \quad 0 \quad r \rightarrow \infty$$

Once we have this, the Hermiticity requires that:

$$U(r) = \text{const.} \quad r \rightarrow 0$$

This constant must be zero. Otherwise we will have singularities in the equation for $R_{El}(r)$. Thus;

$$U_{El}(0) = 0$$

So far, we have not made any specification of the potential. More information about $U(r)$ at small and large distances can be found if we know the

asymptotic behavior of $V(r)$.

1- $r^2 V(r) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow 0$. For this class of potentials, $V(r)$ is shallower than $\frac{1}{r^2}$ at small distances. In the equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 U_{El}}{dr^2} + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2mr^2} U_{El} + V(r) U_{El} = E U_{El}$$

We can drop the $V(r) U$ and $E U$ terms as $r \rightarrow 0$.

This results in a simple equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 U}{dr^2} + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2mr^2} U = 0 \Rightarrow U \propto r^{l+1} \text{ or } r^{-l-1}$$

Note that r^{-l-1} is not acceptable because it blows up at $r=0$. As we saw, $U(0)=0$, and hence we find:

$$U(r) \rightarrow r^{l+1} \quad r \rightarrow 0$$

2- $r V(r) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$. For this class of potentials,

We can simply neglect the $\frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{r^2} U$ and

$V(r) U$ terms, hence finding:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{d^2 U}{dr^2} = EU$$

The solutions are:

$U(r) \rightarrow e^{\pm ikr}$	$k = \frac{\sqrt{2\mu E}}{\hbar}$	$E > 0$
$U(r) \rightarrow e^{-kr}$	$k = \frac{\sqrt{-2\mu E}}{\hbar}$	$E < 0$

Note that e^{+kr} in the case $E < 0$ is not acceptable because of the general behavior expected at large distances.

These are the same solutions that one finds for

$V(r) = 0$. However, the condition $r V(r) \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$

is necessary for the solutions to be effectively

the same as that for $V = 0$ at large distances.

To understand this better, let's consider the case

with $E > 0$. Since V_{eff} falls off rapidly, we can use the WKB approximation at sufficiently large distance:

$$U(r) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{P(r)}} \exp \left[\pm \frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{r_0}^r \sqrt{2\mu(E - V_{\text{eff}})} dr' \right]$$

Note that $P(r) = \sqrt{2\mu(E - V_{\text{eff}})} \approx \sqrt{2\mu E}$ at large distances. The integral in the exponent becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{r_0}^r \sqrt{2\mu(E - V_{\text{eff}})} dr' &\approx \int_{r_0}^r \sqrt{2\mu E} dr' - \int_{r_0}^r \frac{\sqrt{2\mu E} V_{\text{eff}}}{2E} dr' \\ &= \sqrt{2\mu E} (r - r_0) - \int_{r_0}^r \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{2E}} V_{\text{eff}} dr' \end{aligned}$$

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

The integral of the first term is convergent and amounts to an overall phase. Now, if $V(r) \propto \frac{1}{r}$, as $r \rightarrow \infty$ the integral will be divergent $\propto \ln r$:

$$- \int_{r_0}^r \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{2E}} \frac{1}{r} dr' = -\sqrt{\frac{\mu}{2E}} \ln \left(\frac{r}{r_0} \right)$$

Therefore, the exponential function will be:

$$U(r) \rightarrow e^{\pm ikr} e^{\mp i\sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left(\frac{v}{2E} \right)} \ln r}$$

This implies that the particle will never become completely free. This happens for a Coulomb potential and any potential shallower than $\frac{1}{r}$.

For example, the fact that a charged particle feels the Coulomb force no matter how far it is from the center ($r=0$) is the physical reason why the cross-section for Rutherford scattering of electrons of a proton is ∞ .