

defect theory QDT

History and motivation

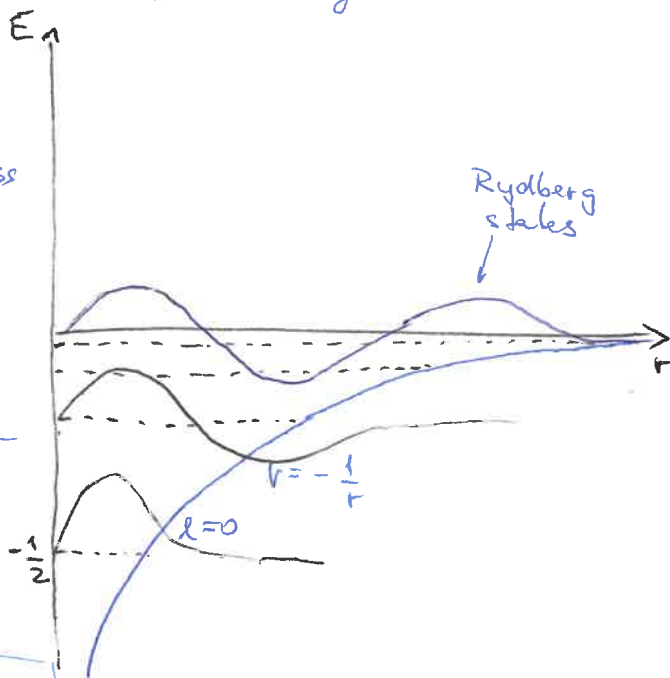
Non-relativistic energy of bound states in the point-charge field

$$E_n = -\frac{Z^2}{2M^2} = -R \frac{Z^2}{n^2}$$

$$R = \frac{m e^4}{2\hbar^2} ; m = \frac{m_e}{(1 + \frac{m_e}{M})}$$

m_e ... electron mass
 M ... nuclear mass

$$R = \frac{R(\infty)}{(1 + \frac{m_e}{M})} ; R(\infty) = \frac{m_e e^4}{2\hbar^2} \dots \text{Rydberg constant}$$



Transitions $m_0 \rightarrow m$ form series in spectra

$$\Delta E = (E_m - E_0) = \frac{R Z^2}{m^2} - \frac{R Z^2}{n^2} = \left[E_\infty - \frac{R Z^2}{n^2} = \Delta E \right]$$

edge \uparrow

Empiric formula before the quantum mechanics

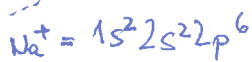
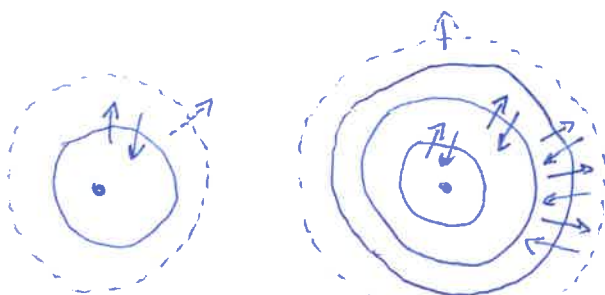
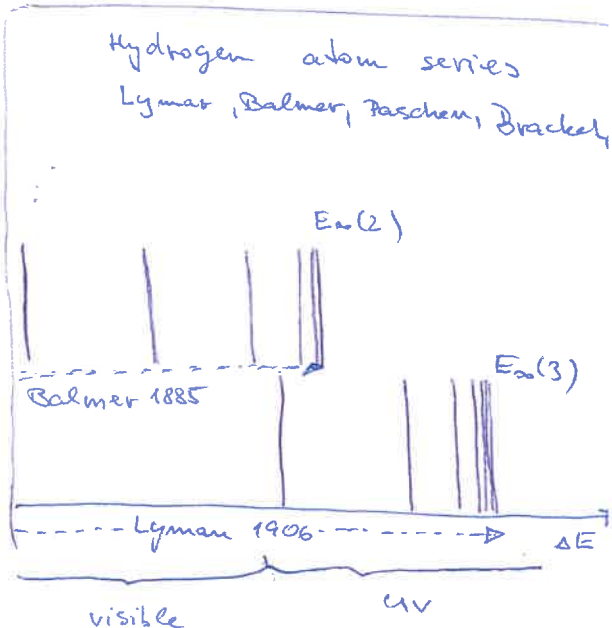
Energy levels of alkali atoms: Li, Na, K, ...

Empirical formula

$$\Delta E = E_\infty - R \frac{Z^2}{(n-\mu)^2}$$

(Mulliken formula)

1889 Rydberg
 μ ... quantum defect



The single electron in the upper open shell "feels" the asymptotic Coulomb interaction with the remaining cation

Later and more accurate measurements have shown that the quantum defect μ is not an exact constant. It exhibits a weak energy dependence $\mu(E_n)$ (for simplicity let's assume a.u. and $R = \frac{1}{2}$)

$$E_n = -\frac{Z^2}{2} \frac{1}{(n - \mu_n)^2} = -\frac{Z^2}{2} \frac{1}{(n - \mu(E_n))^2} = -\frac{1}{2\nu^2}$$

$\nu \dots$ an effective (non-integer) quantum number $\nu = n - \mu$. $E_n \equiv 2E_n = -\frac{1}{\nu^2}$

Importance of quantum defects

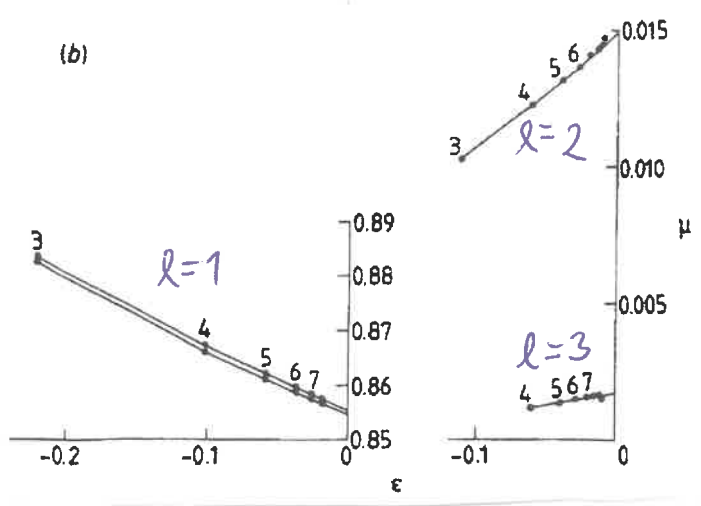
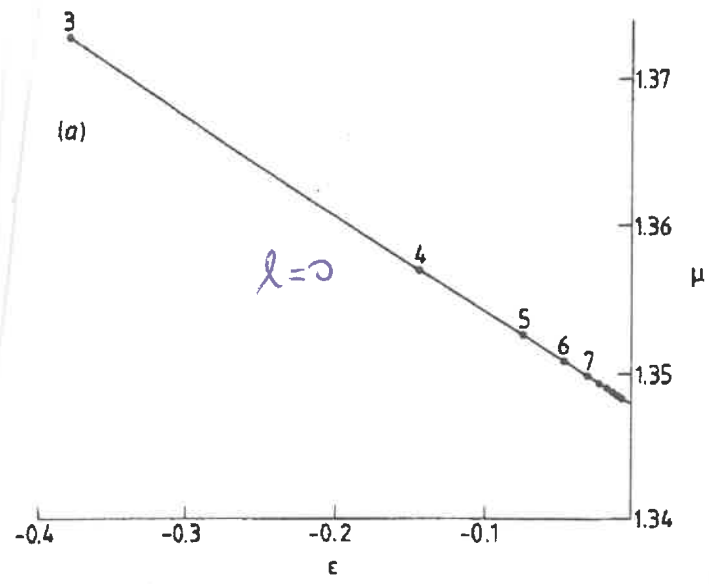
- fitting of the experimental transitions on

$$E_n = -\frac{Z^2}{2 [n - \mu(E_n)]^2}$$

gives $E_\infty \dots$ ionization potential

- identification of atoms
- series of simple (linear) curves can describe infinite of Rydberg states
- prediction of transitions that have not been observed yet
- transition to continuum, prediction of the phase shift (later)

Na atom. Dependence of μ on the energy for $l=0, 1, 2$



First attempts for theoretical understanding

a) H-atom Sommerfeld (1916, 1920) - elliptic trajectories, Bohr atomic model. Bohr quantum condition gives $E_n = -1/n^2$

b) Alkali atoms 1 electron is excited on an elliptic trajectory and spends dominant time in the pure Coulomb field. Interaction is modified at the perihelium and hence precession. Sommerfeld 1920 obtained $E_n = -\frac{1}{(n-\mu)^2}$ but quantum defect μ depended on the frequency of the orbital precession.

Correct explanation comes in the modern quantum mechanics

by Hartree 1928

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + \frac{l(l+1)}{2r^2} + V(r) - E \right] F(E, r) = 0$$

$$V(r) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{2}{r}$$

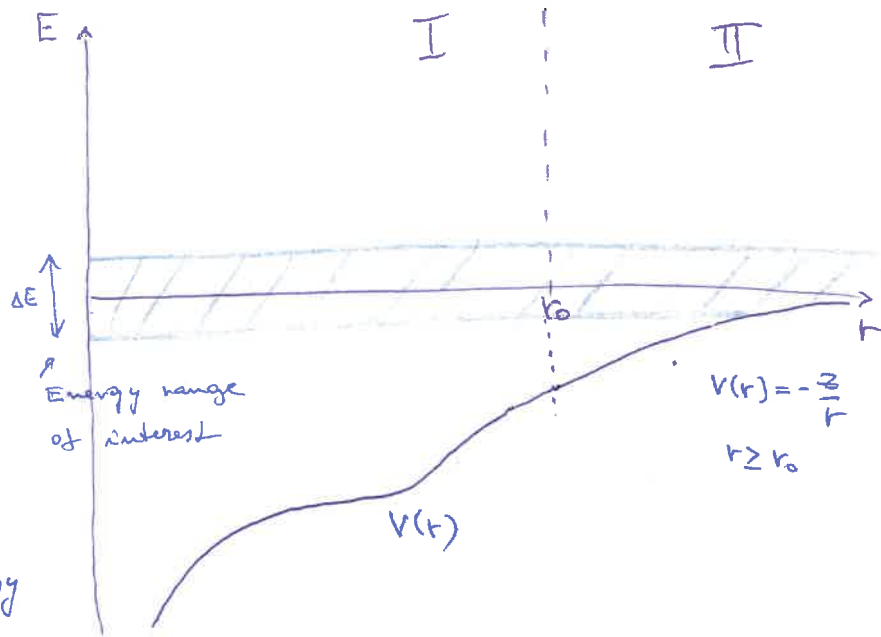
We have solutions in the region I and II

$$F_I(E, r) = 0 \text{ for } r \rightarrow 0$$

$$F_{II}(E, r) = 0 \text{ for } r \rightarrow \infty$$

At $E = E_n$ we have a smooth merge at r_0 .

→ $F_I(E, r)$ can be normalized such that it does not depend on the energy much at ΔE



→ Generally $F_{II}(E, r)$ will depend on the energy E in the region ΔE for $r > r_0$. This is because nodal points are added for the higher bound states. But at the point r_0 , if $|V(r_0)| \ll |E|$, then F_{II} can be normalized so, it does not depend on the energy at r_0 much.

→ General solution in the region II (not necessary bound) is written as a linear combination of 2 Coulomb functions $s(r)$ and $c(r)$. They are weakly dependent on the energy for $r \leq r_0$ in the energy interval ΔE .

→ Hartree has shown
$$F_{II}(E, r) = -\cos(\pi\nu) s(r) + \sin(\pi\nu) c(r); E = -\frac{2^2}{2r^2}$$

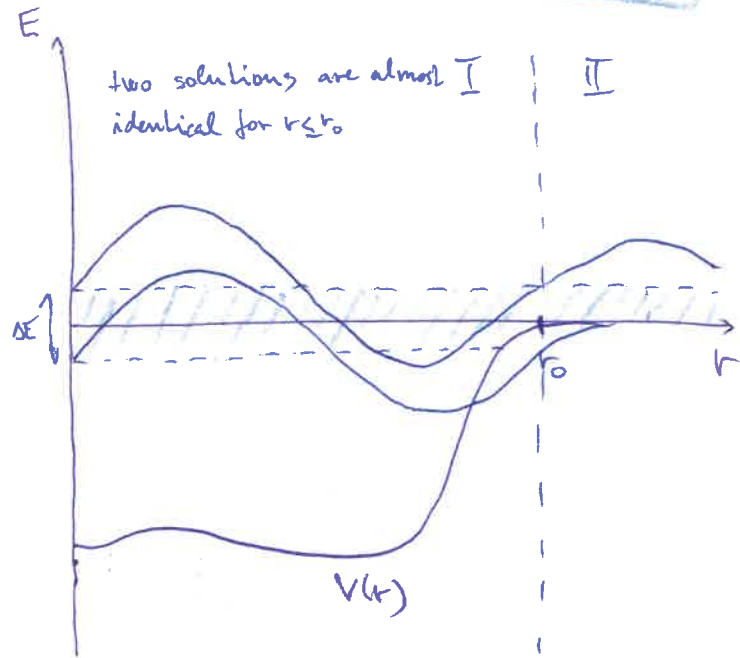
→ Seaton 1955 - 1960, extension of the QDT for $E > 0$, multichannel
Fano 1975, Greene 1979 - present - connection with the rovibrational frame transformation

For clarification an example is provided for a case without the Coulomb asymptotics

(what is meant by removal of the energy dependence by ~~the~~ ^{normalization} ~~term~~)

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + \frac{l(l+1)}{2r^2} + V(r) - E \right] u_l(r), \quad \text{No Coulomb!} \quad V(r) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

Solutions in II is a linear combination of the free solutions, i.e. Riccati-Bessel functions $\hat{j}_l(kr)$ and $\hat{n}_l(kr)$ ^{Neumann}



Unfortunately: $\hat{j}_l(kr) \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow 0} \frac{(kr)^{l+1}}{(2l+1)!!}$
 $\hat{n}_l(kr) \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow 0} -\frac{(2l-1)!!}{(kr)^l}$

This pair of independent solutions is UNSUITABLE for low energies as $\Delta(r)$ and $c(r)$

because they exhibit this artificial energy dependence. They do not traverse $E=0$ smoothly!

We can define: $f^0 \equiv \Delta(r) = \frac{1}{k^{l+1}} \hat{j}_l(kr)$ and $g^0 \equiv c(r) = k^l \hat{n}_l(kr)$

Solution of the Coulomb problem for QDT

(a search for analytic, smooth functions $\Delta(r)$ and $c(r)$)

Substitutions: $\rho = 2r; \quad \varepsilon = \frac{2E}{z^2} \quad \left[\frac{d^2}{d\rho^2} - \frac{l(l+1)}{\rho^2} + \frac{2}{\rho} + \varepsilon \right] F(\rho) = 0$

solutions are found in 2 progression forms

A.) Series

substitution $\lambda = l + 1/2 \Rightarrow \left[\frac{d^2}{d\rho^2} - \frac{\lambda^2 - 1/4}{\rho^2} + \frac{2}{\rho} + \varepsilon \right] F(\rho) = 0$

$F(z, \lambda, \rho) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(\varepsilon, \lambda) \rho^{n + \lambda + 1/2}$ gives recurrence

$a_n = -\frac{2a_{n-1} + \varepsilon a_{n-2}}{n(n+2\lambda)}$; $a_1 = -\frac{2a_0}{1+2\lambda}$

$a_0 =$ normalization, important in QDT!

Clearly, $F(\varepsilon, -\lambda, \rho)$ is also a solution. Expect troubles for $\lambda \rightarrow -(l+1/2)$

B) Series

$$\epsilon = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{g^2}{\alpha^2} ; \lambda = \frac{2g}{\alpha}$$

$$y(\alpha, \lambda, \epsilon) = \frac{(\alpha \epsilon)^{\lambda+1/2} e^{-\alpha \epsilon}}{\Gamma(\lambda+1/2+\alpha)} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(\lambda+1/2+\alpha+n)}{\Gamma(2\lambda+1+n)} \frac{\epsilon^n}{n!}$$

solution, proof by the direct insertion.

absolutely and uniformly converging series \Leftrightarrow the product $e^{-\alpha \epsilon} \times \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \dots$

can be rearranged to the form A.) Then the first term:

$$\frac{(\alpha \epsilon)^{\lambda+1/2}}{\Gamma(\lambda+1/2+\alpha)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\lambda+1/2+\alpha)}{\Gamma(2\lambda+1)} = a_0 \epsilon^{\lambda+1/2} \Rightarrow a_0 = \frac{\epsilon^{\lambda+1/2}}{\Gamma(2\lambda+1)}$$

\leftarrow Does not depend on energy.
 \Rightarrow Solution does not depend on the energy for $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$

We have found the regular QDT solution $\lambda_\epsilon(t)$

From A.) Series it is clear the $a_n(\epsilon)$ is a polynomial of the order $n-1$ in the energy ϵ . That means, that series A.) can be rearranged to

$$F(\epsilon, \lambda, g) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n(\rho, \lambda) \epsilon^n \dots \text{analyticity in } \epsilon$$

Search for the irregular solution $c_\epsilon(t)$

- very complicated

Why?

1.) $y(\alpha, -\lambda, \epsilon)$ is a good candidate, because it is really independent from $y(\alpha, \lambda, \epsilon)$ except for $\lambda = \pm(l+1/2)$

Using series B) it is easy to show that

$$y(\alpha, -l-1/2, \epsilon) = A(\alpha, l) y(\alpha, l+1/2, \epsilon), \text{ where } A(\alpha, l) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+l+1)}{\alpha^{2l+1} \Gamma(\alpha-l)} = \frac{\epsilon}{\Gamma(1+\rho^2 \epsilon)}$$

$\Rightarrow y(\alpha, -l-1/2, \epsilon)$ and $y(\alpha, l+1/2, \epsilon)$ are linearly dependent

2) Special linear combination and limit

$$\eta(\alpha, -l-1/2, \epsilon) = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow -l-1/2} \eta(\alpha, \lambda, \epsilon)$$

$$\eta(\alpha, \lambda, \epsilon) = \frac{A(\alpha, \lambda) \cos(2\pi \lambda) y(\alpha, \lambda, \epsilon) - y(\alpha, -\lambda, \epsilon)}{\sin(2\pi \lambda)}$$

Linear combination is still a solution
 In the limit $\frac{0}{0}$, higher order remains as the solution

3.) η is non-analytic in $\epsilon \rightarrow g = \eta - G$, however G still contains part of $\lambda(t)$
 $\rightarrow h = -g + A \lambda(t)$ and h is almost the sought $c(t)$

Asymptotic forms of $s_e(r)$ and $c_e(r)$

$\epsilon > 0$

$$s_e(r) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{\pi k}\right)^{1/2} \sin(kr - \frac{l\pi}{2} + \sigma_e(k))$$

$$c_e(r) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{\pi k}\right)^{1/2} \cos(kr - \frac{l\pi}{2} + \sigma_e(k))$$

$\epsilon = k^2$

$\sigma_e(k) = \frac{1}{k} \ln(2kr) + \arg \Gamma(l+1-i/k)$

$\epsilon < 0$

$$s_e(r) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^l \left[\frac{\sin \pi \nu}{(2\nu)^{1/2} \pi k} \xi_\nu(\rho) - \cos \pi \nu \left(\frac{\nu^3}{2}\right)^{1/2} K \Theta_\nu(\rho) \right]$$

$$c_e(r) \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^l \left[\frac{\cos \pi \nu}{(2\nu)^{1/2} \pi k} \xi_\nu(\rho) - \sin \pi \nu \left(\frac{\nu^3}{2}\right)^{1/2} K \Theta_\nu(\rho) \right]$$

$\epsilon = -\frac{1}{\nu^2}, \nu = \frac{1}{k}$

$\Theta_\nu(\rho) = \left(\frac{2\rho}{\nu}\right)^\nu e^{-\rho/\nu}$

$\xi_\nu(\rho) = \left(\frac{2\rho}{\nu}\right)^{-\nu} e^{\rho/\nu}$

$k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} \Gamma(\nu+l+1) \Gamma(\nu-l)}$

Once we have the pair $s_e(r)$ and $c_e(r)$ of the 2 independent solutions that are not energy-dependent in the limit $r \rightarrow \infty$, we can expand the

Hartree problem

$\epsilon \geq 0$

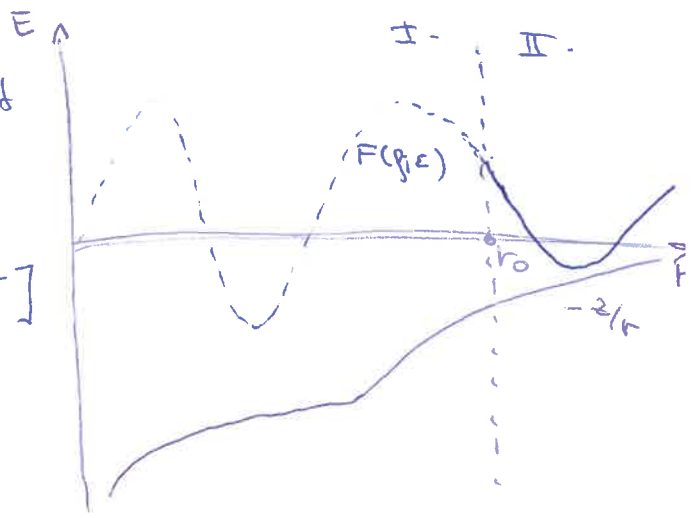
$F_{II}(\rho, \epsilon) \xrightarrow{\rho \geq \rho_0} s(r) + c(r) K$

$F_{II}(\rho, \epsilon) \rightarrow \frac{1}{(\pi k)^{1/2}} \left[\sin(kr - \frac{l\pi}{2} + \sigma) + \cos(kr - \frac{l\pi}{2} + \sigma) \tan \delta \right]$

$F_{II}(\rho, \epsilon) \rightarrow \frac{1}{(\pi k)^{1/2}} \frac{1}{\cos \delta} \left[\sin(kr - \frac{l\pi}{2} + \sigma + \delta) \right]$

$\delta \dots$ short-range phase shift

parametrization of $k = \tan \delta$



$\epsilon \leq 0$

Smooth transition through the zero energy gives the same linear combination

$F_{II}(\rho, \epsilon) \xrightarrow{\rho \geq \rho_0} s(r) + c(r) K$

$F_{II}(\rho, \epsilon)$ is a linear combination of $s(r)$ and $c(r)$, both exponentially growing (and decaying). The exponentially growing part: $\frac{(-1)^l}{(2\nu)^{1/2} \pi k} \xi_\nu(\rho) [\sin \pi \nu + \cos \pi \nu K]$

must disappear for the bound states, i.e. $\sin \pi \nu + \cos \pi \nu K = 0 \iff \tan \pi \nu = -\tan \delta$

If we write $\delta = \pi \mu$ then $\nu = n - \mu; \epsilon = -1/\nu^2 = -1/(n-\mu)^2$

Phase shift δ for positive energies becomes quantum defect $\pi \mu$ for negative energies. Seaton's theorem

Difficulties of the Seaton's theorem lie in finding the irregular solution and deriving asymptotic behaviors of $s_e(r)$ and $c_e(r)$ for positive and negative energies. We can apply it to the non-Coulomb problem, where the functions are known.

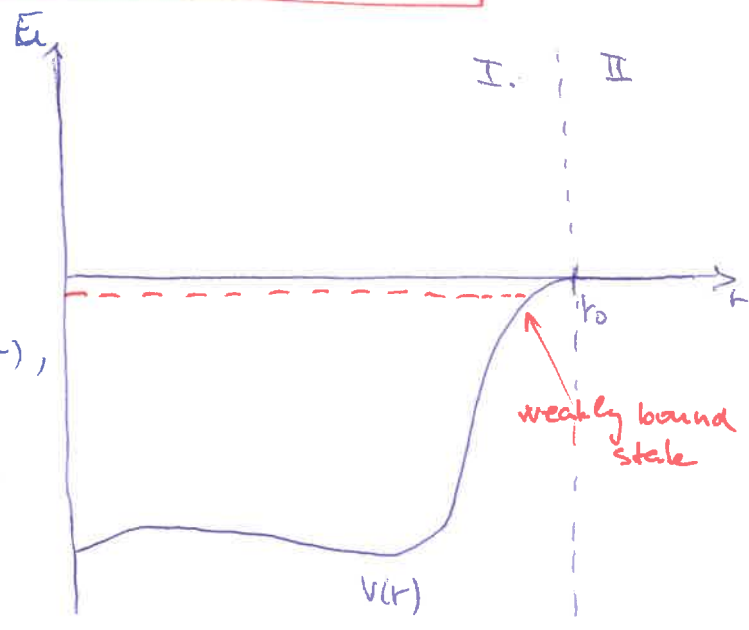
Non-Coulomb problem, Bessel asymptotics

Analytic pair of functions

$$f_e^0 \equiv s_e = \frac{1}{k^{l+1}} \hat{j}_e(kr)$$

$$g_e^0 \equiv c_e = k^l \hat{n}_e(kr)$$

We will use f_e^0 and g_e^0 instead of $s_e(r)$ and $c_e(r)$, because $s_e(r)$ and $c_e(r)$ are typically used for the Coulomb functions. For simplicity we also assume $l=0$.



For $\epsilon \geq 0$

$$f_e^0(r) = \frac{1}{k} \hat{j}_0^0(kr) = \frac{\sin kr}{k} = \frac{1}{2ik} [e^{ikr} - e^{-ikr}]$$

$$g_e^0(r) = \hat{n}_0^0(kr) = \cos kr = \frac{1}{2} [e^{ikr} + e^{-ikr}]$$

Solution in the sector II

$$F_{II}^*(k,r) = f^0 + g^0 k^0$$

$$k^0 = \frac{d}{dr} \ln \mu_0 = \frac{d}{dr} \delta^0$$

analytic phase shift δ^0

For $\epsilon \leq 0$

$$\epsilon = -\alpha^2; k = i\alpha; \alpha \geq 0$$

$$f^0(r) = -\frac{1}{2\alpha} [e^{-\alpha r} - e^{\alpha r}]$$

$$g^0(r) = \frac{1}{2} [e^{-\alpha r} + e^{\alpha r}]$$

solution in sector II :

$$F_{II}^*(k,r) = f^0 + g^0 k$$

For a possible bound state, the exponential part of $F_{II}^*(k,r)$

$$\frac{e^{\alpha r}}{2} \left[\frac{1}{\alpha} + \frac{d}{dr} \delta^0 \right]$$

must disappear. Therefore, $\frac{d}{dr} \delta^0 = -\frac{1}{\alpha}$ for the bound state

$$\epsilon = -\alpha^2 = -\frac{1}{\left(\frac{d}{dr} \delta^0\right)^2} = -\frac{1}{a_0^2}$$

$\frac{d}{dr} \delta^0 =$ scattering length from the effective range theory

The ~~the~~ analytic (short-range) phase shift is not the physical phase shift δ .

Physical δ is defined by asymptotics: $kF = j^1 + \hat{n} \frac{k^0 k}{\frac{d}{dr} \delta}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dr} \delta = k \frac{d}{dr} \delta^0$$

