

φ507 MidTerm Preview

Tues. 3/14/95

The φ507 MidTerm will be given 7-9 PM on Mon. 3/20/95 in AJM 230.
There will be no class lecture on that day.

The exam will be open-book, open-notes, and will consist of 5 problems worth 200 pts. total. Material covered is that in Secs. (1)-(5) of the Xerox notes for QM 507 (viz. Time-Dep. Perturbation Theory → QM Scattering Theory: Standard Approach). The problem areas are:

- ① Transitions in an atom undergoing nuclear decay.
 - ② Radial distance scales in a one-electron atom.
 - ③ The QM nature of $\mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{Q}$ as a rotational invariant.
 - ④ The Schrödinger limit of a Klein-Gordon plane wave.
 - ⑤ Scattering, via 1st Born Approximation, for a very simple potential.
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You may bring to the exam:

1. One QM text of your choice;
 2. Your copy of φ507 CLASS NOTES & copies of Problems & Solutions;
 3. A math reference table (or chair), calculator, and dictionary.
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Good luck in your studies. The hints are pretty good, this time.

Dick Robiscoe

This exam is open-book, open-notes, and is worth 200 points total. For each of the 5 problems, box the answer on your solution sheet. Number your solution pages in sequence, put your name on p.1, and staple the pages before handing in.

- ① [40pts]. Atomic tritium, ${}^3\text{H}_1$, is an isotope of hydrogen where the nucleus undergoes spontaneous β -decay: ${}^3\text{H}_1 \rightarrow {}^3\text{He}_2 + e + \bar{\nu}$, i.e. the atomic nucleus changes from $Z=1$ to $Z=2$ upon ejecting an electron. The energy of the ejected electron is typically ~ 10 keV, so it leaves the atom "quickly". A question of interest is: in what state will we find the He^+ ion that is left behind?
- (A) If the initial tritium atom is in its ground state ($n=1$), find the probability that the final He^+ ion is also in its ground state. HINT: the ground state wavefunction for a one-electron atom is: $\psi(r) \propto e^{-kr}$, $k = Z/a_0$ & $a_0 = \hbar^2/me^2$.
- (B) Why does the calculation in part (A) qualify for use of the sudden approximation?
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- ② [40pts]. For a one-electron atom in its ground state (use $\psi(r)$ per HINT in ①):
- (A) Evaluate the average value of the N^{th} power of the radius r , i.e. find $\langle r^N \rangle$ for $N = \text{integer}$ ($N=0, \pm 1, \pm 2$, etc.). Are there any restrictions on N ?
- (B) The "most probable" value of r is said to be $r_{\text{mp}} = a_0/Z$. Comment on how r_{mp} relates to any of the $\langle r^N \rangle$. How does r_{mp} qualify as a "most probable" r ?
- (C) Calculate the QM variance of r , i.e. $\Delta r = [\langle r^2 \rangle - \langle r \rangle^2]^{1/2}$. Compare this uncertainty in r with $\langle r \rangle$, or r_{mp} . Why is Δr so big?
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- ③ [40pts]. Vector operators \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} are Π -vectors w.r.t. a QM \times momentum operator \mathbf{J} , i.e. they satisfy the commutators: $[\mathbf{J}_\alpha, A_\beta] = i\hbar \epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} A_\gamma$, and likewise for \mathbf{B} . \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} need not be commuting operators.
- (A) For the scalar product, show that: $[\mathbf{J}, \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}] = 0$.
- (B) On the strength of $[\mathbf{J}, \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}] = 0$, one refers to $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$ as a "scalar invariant" under coordinate transformations. What does this reference mean?
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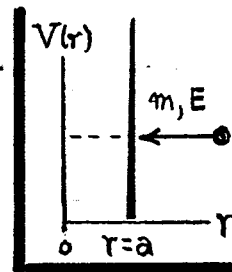
- ④ [40 pts.]. Let $\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ be a solution to the free-particle Klein-Gordon equation for a particle of mass m , i.e. suppose that Ψ satisfies

$$\left[\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - (mc/\hbar)^2 \right] \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = 0.$$

Transform this eqn to a new wavefn ϕ via: $\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \phi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} mc^2 t}$.

What condition must you impose so that -- to good approximation -- ϕ will satisfy the nonrelativistic Schrödinger equation? If the original Ψ is a simple plane wave solution, find a condition on the particle's energy such that ϕ (KG eqn) is also a fairly reliable ϕ (Schröd^r eqn).

- ⑤ [40 pts.]. A particle of mass m and energy E is incident on a hard spherical shell of radius a , whose center is fixed at the origin. The shell's scattering potential is taken to be: $V(r) = V_0 a \delta(r-a)$, V_0 & $a = (+)$ ve constants, $r \geq 0$ the radial coordinate, and δ is the Dirac delta fn. Analyse the scattering by the first Born Approximation.



(A) What condition on V_0 (and a) ensures that the Born Approximation is valid at all incident energies E ? Assume this condition prevails in what follows.

(B) Find the differential scattering cross-section ($d\sigma/d\Omega$) as a fn of momentum transfer: $q \approx 2k \sin(\theta/2)$, $k = \sqrt{2mE/\hbar^2}$ the wavenumber, and θ the (colatitude) scattering angle. Sketch ($d\sigma/d\Omega$) vs. q over the allowed range of q .

NOTE: ($d\sigma/d\Omega$) vanishes at certain q -values. What physics is at work?

(C) Express the total scattering cross-section $\sigma = \int_{4\pi} (d\sigma/d\Omega) d\Omega$ as an integral over q (not Ω). The integral is not elementary. But find the leading terms in σ , including the E -dependence, in the low energy limit. HINT: prove and use the identity: $d\Omega = 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta = (2\pi/k^2) q dq$.

① [40pts.]. Atomic tritium decay: ${}^3\text{H}_1 \rightarrow {}^3\text{He}_2 + e + \bar{\nu}$; prob^y of He^+ ground state.

To set up the calculation, answer part (B) first.

(B) The electron bound in ${}^3\text{H}_1$ has an energy ~ 10 eV (13.6 eV to be precise) while the ejected electron travels away with $\sim 1000 \times$ that energy... so the ejected electron is moving $\sim 30 \times$ as fast as the orbiting electron, and it will leave the atom in a small fraction ($\sim 3\%$) of an orbital period. So the $Z=1 \rightarrow 2$ perturbation takes place on a time scale much faster than that of $\mathcal{H}_0({}^3\text{H}_1)$; this qualifies us to use the "sudden approxⁿ" (CLASS NOTES p. tD 19) for transitions.

(A) Normalize the wavefn: $\psi(r) = N e^{-\kappa r}$, $\kappa = Z/a_0$:

$$\rightarrow \int_0^\infty |\psi(r)|^2 \cdot 4\pi r^2 dr = 4\pi N^2 \int_0^\infty r^2 e^{-2\kappa r} dr = 4\pi N^2 \cdot \frac{2!}{(2\kappa)^3} = 1,$$

so// $N = (\kappa^3/\pi)^{1/2}$, and $\psi(r) = N e^{-\kappa r}$ is normalized. (1)

To estimate that both initial & final states are ground states when $Z=1 \rightarrow 2$, we need the overlap integral $\langle \psi_2 | \psi_1 \rangle$ i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \langle \psi_2 | \psi_1 \rangle &= \int_0^\infty \psi_2^* \psi_1 \cdot 4\pi r^2 dr = 4\pi \left(\frac{Z^3}{\pi a_0^3} \right)^{1/2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\pi a_0^3} \right)^{1/2} \int_0^\infty r^2 e^{-\frac{Zr}{a_0}} e^{-\frac{r}{a_0}} dr \\ &= \frac{4Z^{3/2}}{a_0^3} \int_0^\infty r^2 e^{-(\frac{Z+1}{a_0})r} dr = \frac{4Z^{3/2}}{a_0^3} \cdot 2! / \left(\frac{Z+1}{a_0} \right)^3 \end{aligned}$$

i.e. // $\langle \psi_2 | \psi_1 \rangle = 8Z^{3/2} / (Z+1)^3$. (2)

By the "sudden approxⁿ" [CLASS NOTES, p. tD 20, Eq (58)], the prob^y of $Z=1$ (ground) $\rightarrow Z=2$ (ground) is then...

$|\langle \psi_2 | \psi_1 \rangle|_{(Z=2)}^2 = 64 \cdot 2^3 / 3^6 = 512 / 729 = 0.702$

(3)

So this happens 70% of the time. The other 30% \Rightarrow get excited states of He^+

② [40 pts.]. Moments $\langle r^N \rangle$ for 1e atom ground state; r_{mp} & variance Δr .

We will use the normalized ground state wavefn from problem ①...

→ $\psi(r) = N e^{-\kappa r}$, $\underline{\kappa} = \frac{Z}{a_0}$, and: $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$ if $N = (\kappa^3/\pi)^{1/2}$. (1)

And we will use the well-known integral (defⁿ of Gamma fn):

→ $\int_0^\infty x^n e^{-ax} dx = \Gamma(n+1)/a^{n+1} = n!/a^{n+1}$, $n = \text{integer} > -1$. (2)

(A) The required N^{th} moment is...

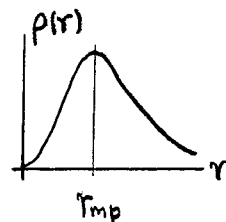
$$\langle r^N \rangle = \int_0^\infty r^N |\psi(r)|^2 \cdot 4\pi r^2 dr = 4\pi \cdot \left(\frac{\kappa^3}{\pi}\right) \int_0^\infty r^{N+2} e^{-2\kappa r} dr$$

by $\boxed{\langle r^N \rangle = 4\kappa^3 (N+2)! / (2\kappa)^{N+3} = \frac{(N+2)!}{2^{N+1}} \left(\frac{a_0}{Z}\right)^N}$. (3)

We've put in $\kappa = \frac{Z}{a_0}$. The moments do not exist for integers $N \leq -3$.

(B) $\langle r \rangle = \frac{3}{2} (a_0/Z)$ does not match $r_{mp} = (a_0/Z)$; neither does $\sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle} = \sqrt{3} (a_0/Z)$, or any of the $\langle r^N \rangle^{1/N}$ for (+)ve N . In fact r_{mp} does not take its name as "most probable r " from any of the $\langle r^N \rangle$. Instead, r_{mp} locates the maximum in the electron radial charge density:

→ $\rho(r) = e \cdot 4\pi r^2 |\psi(r)|^2 = \text{const} \times r^2 e^{-2\kappa r}$; ρ is MAX @ $r = r_{mp}$.



(4)

(C) The variance Δr is readily calculated from (3), using $N=1 \text{ \& } 2 \dots$

→ $\Delta r = [\langle r^2 \rangle - \langle r \rangle^2]^{1/2} = [3 - (3/2)^2]^{1/2} (a_0/Z)$, $\boxed{\Delta r = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} (a_0/Z)}$. (5)

Δr is "large" insofar as: $\Delta r / \langle r \rangle = 1/\sqrt{3} = 0.5774$, or $\Delta r / r_{mp} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = 0.8660$.

It must be so that $\Delta r = v(a_0/Z)$, with $v \sim 1$ a "large" fraction. Otherwise the e localization to Δr , which generates K.E. components $\Delta E \sim \frac{1}{2m} (\hbar/\Delta r)^2$, i.e. $\Delta E \sim \frac{1}{8v^2} (Z^2 e^2/a_0)$, would be enough to exceed the binding energy.

③ [40 pts]. Show that $[\vec{J}, \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}] = 0$, if $\vec{A} \neq \vec{B}$ are \vec{T} -vectors. Nature of $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$.

Consider the α component of the commutator. It can be written as...

$$\rightarrow [\vec{J}, \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}]_{\alpha} = \sum_{\beta} [J_{\alpha}, A_{\beta} B_{\beta}] = \sum_{\beta} \{ A_{\beta} [J_{\alpha}, B_{\beta}] + [J_{\alpha}, A_{\beta}] B_{\beta} \}. \quad (1)$$

We have used the commutator identity: $[P, QR] = Q[P, R] + [P, Q]R$. Since $\vec{A} \neq \vec{B}$ are both \vec{T} -vectors w.r.t. \vec{J} , then in Eq.(1) we can set...

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} [J_{\alpha}, B_{\beta}] &= i \sum_{\gamma} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} B_{\gamma}, \\ [J_{\alpha}, A_{\beta}] &= i \sum_{\gamma} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} A_{\gamma}. \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \begin{aligned} &\text{Here } \hbar=1, \text{ and } \epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} = \text{Levi-Civita density.}^* \\ &\text{The sum over } \gamma \text{ is redundant (but useful).} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \xrightarrow{\text{So}} [\vec{J}, \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}]_{\alpha} &= i \sum_{\beta, \gamma} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \{ A_{\beta} B_{\gamma} + A_{\gamma} B_{\beta} \} \\ &= i \left\{ \sum_{\beta, \gamma} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} A_{\beta} B_{\gamma} - \sum_{\gamma, \beta} \epsilon_{\alpha\gamma\beta} A_{\gamma} B_{\beta} \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

($\beta \neq \gamma$ interchanged here)

Each term on RHS of Eq.(3) is equivalent to $(\vec{A} \times \vec{B})_{\alpha}$. So, as required...

$$\boxed{[\vec{J}, \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}] = i \{ (\vec{A} \times \vec{B}) - (\vec{A} \times \vec{B}) \} = 0.} \quad (4)$$

This result is independent of whether $\vec{A} \neq \vec{B}$ commute with each other.

Under the small rotation operator (rotation by $\delta\varphi$ about axis \hat{n}), viz.

$R(\delta\varphi) = 1 - i\delta\varphi(\hat{n} \cdot \vec{J})$, [Sakurai Eq.(3.1.15)], a scalar S transforms as

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} S \rightarrow S' &= R^{-1} S R = S + i\delta\varphi [\hat{n} \cdot \vec{J}, S], \text{ to 1st order in } \delta\varphi; \\ \xrightarrow{\text{So}} \delta S &= S' - S = i\delta\varphi [\hat{n} \cdot \vec{J}, S]. \end{aligned} \right. \quad (5)$$

If S is a "true scalar", it will be unaffected by such a rotation, i.e. $\delta S = 0$.

This requires $[\hat{n} \cdot \vec{J}, S] = 0 \dots$ or that S commute with each component of \vec{J} , i.e. $[\vec{J}, S] = 0$. Then $S = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}$ is a "true scalar" by virtue of Eq.(4).

* $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} = \pm 1$ if $\alpha\beta\gamma = \begin{cases} \text{even} \\ \text{odd} \end{cases}$ permutation of 123. Otherwise $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \equiv 0$.

④ [40 pts]. Find Schrödinger limit on Klein-Gordon plane waves.

1. The free-particle KG eqn is : $[\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2}(\partial^2/\partial t^2) - (mc/\hbar)^2]\psi(\vec{r}, t) = 0$ class notes p. fs 15.

If we substitute $\psi = \phi \exp(-\frac{i}{\hbar} mc^2 t)$, a straightforward calculation shows that

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{c^2}(\partial^2 \psi / \partial t^2) = \left[\frac{1}{c^2}(\partial^2 \phi / \partial t^2) - \frac{2im}{\hbar}(\partial \phi / \partial t) - (mc/\hbar)^2 \phi \right] e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} mc^2 t}. \quad (1)$$

Plugging this into the free-particle KG eqn for ψ , we find ϕ must satisfy

$$\rightarrow (\nabla^2 + \frac{2im}{\hbar} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}) \phi = \frac{1}{c^2}(\partial^2 \phi / \partial t^2), \text{ for KG } \phi. \quad (2)$$

2. The Schrödinger equation for a free particle of mass m and wavefn φ is :

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \varphi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t}, \text{ or } (\nabla^2 + \frac{2im}{\hbar} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}) \varphi = 0. \quad (3)$$

Comparison with Eq. (2) shows that the KG ϕ will satisfy the Schrödinger equation only if $\frac{1}{c^2}(\partial^2 \phi / \partial t^2) \rightarrow \text{negligible}$. More precisely, we need this term to be negligibly small compared the others... in particular :

$$\rightarrow \left| \frac{1}{c^2}(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2}) \right| \ll \left| \frac{2im}{\hbar}(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t}) \right|, \text{ or } \underline{\underline{\left| \frac{1}{\phi}(\partial \phi / \partial t) \right| \ll mc^2/\hbar.}} \quad (4)$$

3. A plane-wave solution to the free-particle KG eqn is $\psi(\vec{r}, t) = e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x} - Et)}$, where \vec{p} is the relativistic particle momentum and E is the total (relativistic) energy. Then the plane-wave version of $\phi = \psi \exp(\frac{i}{\hbar} mc^2 t)$ is :

$$\rightarrow \phi(\vec{r}, t) = \exp \left[\frac{i}{\hbar}(\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x} - \mathcal{E}t) \right], \quad \mathcal{E} = E - mc^2. \quad (5)$$

\mathcal{E} is the "conventional" (actually relativistic) kinetic energy for the particle.

For ϕ of Eq. (5), the condition in Eq. (4) prescribes

$$\boxed{\mathcal{E} \ll mc^2}, \text{ for KG } \phi \text{ to } \simeq \text{ satisfy Schrödinger Equation.} \quad (6)$$

Only very slowly moving m 's, @ $v \ll c$, will qualify as Schrödinger-like.

⑤ [40 pts]. Analyse scattering from potential $V(r) = V_0 a \delta(r-a)$, via Born Approxn.

(A) 1. Let $k = \sqrt{2mE/\hbar^2}$ be m 's incident wave#. Born Approxn validity requires:
 $\rightarrow \left| \int_0^\infty [e^{2ikr} - 1] V(r) dr \right| \ll \hbar v = \hbar^2 k/m \leftarrow$ Davydov Eq. (106.16), or Class notes p. ScT 10, Eq. (22). (1)

... for $V(r) = V_0 a \delta(r-a)$, Eq. (1) $\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\sin ka}{ka} \right) V_0 \ll \frac{1}{2m} (\hbar/a)^2$. (2)

Born Approxn is good at all energies (even $E \rightarrow 0$) if $V_0 \ll \frac{1}{2m} (\hbar/a)^2$. (3)

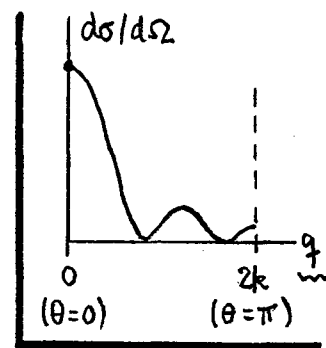
(B) 2. By class notes p. ScT (13), Eq. (31), the differential scattering cross-section is:

$\rightarrow \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{m}{2\pi\hbar^2} \right)^2 |\tilde{V}(q)|^2$, w// $q = 2k \sin(\theta/2)$ \int q = momentum transfer, θ = scattering angle. (4)

and// $\tilde{V}(q) = \frac{4\pi}{q} \int_0^\infty r V(r) \sin qr dr = [4\pi V_0 a^3] \left(\frac{\sin qa}{qa} \right)$ for the given: $V(r) = V_0 a \delta(r-a)$. (5)

In (5), $[4\pi V_0 a^3] = \int_0^\infty V(r) \cdot 4\pi r^2 dr = \underline{\Lambda}$, the "volume" of $V(r)$. So we get...

$$\boxed{\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{m\Lambda}{2\pi\hbar^2} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\sin qa}{qa} \right)^2} \quad \int \text{w// } \Lambda = 4\pi V_0 a^3, \quad q = 2k \sin(\theta/2). \quad (6)$$



By the inequality in (3), the coefficient $(m\Lambda/2\pi\hbar^2)^2 \ll a^2$.

$(d\sigma/d\Omega)$ vs. q is sketched at right--the scattering varies when

$qa = n\pi$, $n=1,2,\dots$ (and $q \leq 2k$). At these points, there is a sort

of resonance condition, where an integral # of half-wavelengths of q fit inside the scattering potential, i.e. $\underline{n \cdot \frac{1}{2} (2\pi/q) = a}$, and $V(r)$ appears to be transparent.

(C) 3. The solid \angle $d\Omega = 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta = (2\pi/k^2) q dq$ [prob. ●], so the total cross-section is:

$$\rightarrow \sigma = \int_{4\pi} (d\sigma/d\Omega) d\Omega = \left(\frac{m\Lambda}{2\pi\hbar^2} \right)^2 \frac{2\pi}{k^2} \int_0^{2k} \left(\frac{\sin qa}{qa} \right)^2 q dq = \frac{2\pi}{k^2 a^2} \left(\frac{m\Lambda}{2\pi\hbar^2} \right)^2 \int_0^{2ka} \frac{dx}{x} \sin^2 x. \quad (7)$$

The integral is not an elementary fn. When $a \rightarrow 0$ ($ka \ll 1$), put $\sin^2 x \approx [x(1 - \frac{x^2}{6})]^2$

so that $\int_0^{2ka} (\sin^2 x) \frac{dx}{x} \approx \int_0^{2ka} x(1 - \frac{x^2}{3}) dx = 2(ka)^2 [1 - \frac{2}{3}(ka)^2]$. Then leading terms in σ :

$$\boxed{\sigma \approx 4\pi (m\Lambda/2\pi\hbar^2)^2 \left[1 - \frac{2}{3} k^2 a^2 \right]} \quad (8)$$

σ falls off slowly with energy (at low energy).