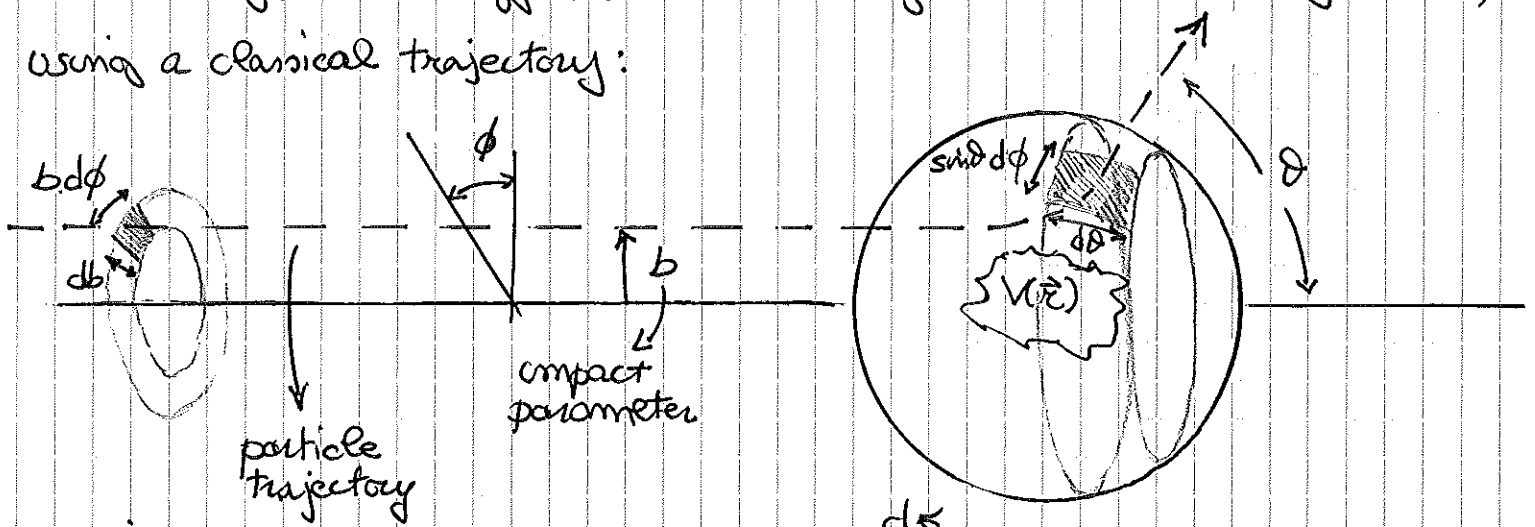


SCATTERING

While in 1-D we can describe the effect of localized potentials $V(x)$ in terms of reflection and transmission coefficients, the situation is a bit more complicated in 3-D, when particles can scatter at any angle. Let us define the differential scattering cross section as follows, using a classical trajectory:



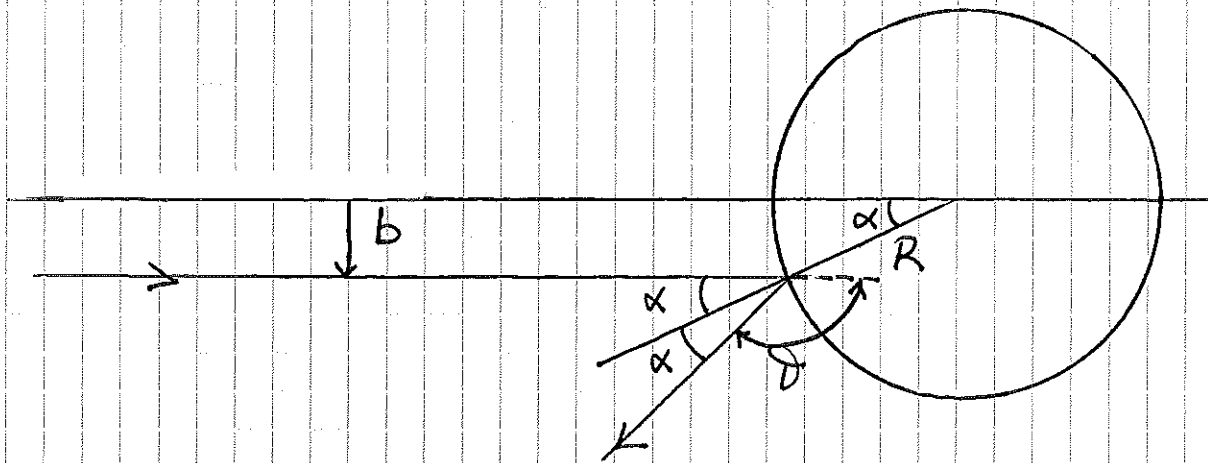
The differential scattering cross section $\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}$ tells us where, in θ and ϕ (in a system of polar coordinates centered where the scattering potential $V(\vec{r})$ is located), the particles coming from the infinitesimal area $b db d\phi$ are scattered by the potential $V(\vec{r})$. $d\sigma$ is the small area from which the particles originate, $d\Omega$ is the solid angle within which they are scattered. Clearly:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{b db d\phi}{\sin\theta d\theta d\phi} = \frac{b}{\sin\theta} \left| \frac{db}{d\theta} \right|$$

we add absolute value to keep this positive (note that $db/d\theta$ is generally negative: the smaller b , the more head-on the collision with the scatterer, the larger θ)

My problem typically consists in finding $b(\theta)$. Typically, $V(\vec{r}) = V(r)$, and there is no dependence on ϕ (the problem is cylindrically symmetric). Let me call $d\sigma = D(\theta) d\Omega$, and find $D(\theta)$ in a classical problem: the hard sphere.

NOTE: $d\sigma$ has dimensions of an area, while $d\Omega$ is a solid angle



$$b = \text{impact parameter} = R \sin \alpha$$

$$\theta = \text{scattering angle} = \pi - 2\alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow b = R \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\theta}{2}\right) = R \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

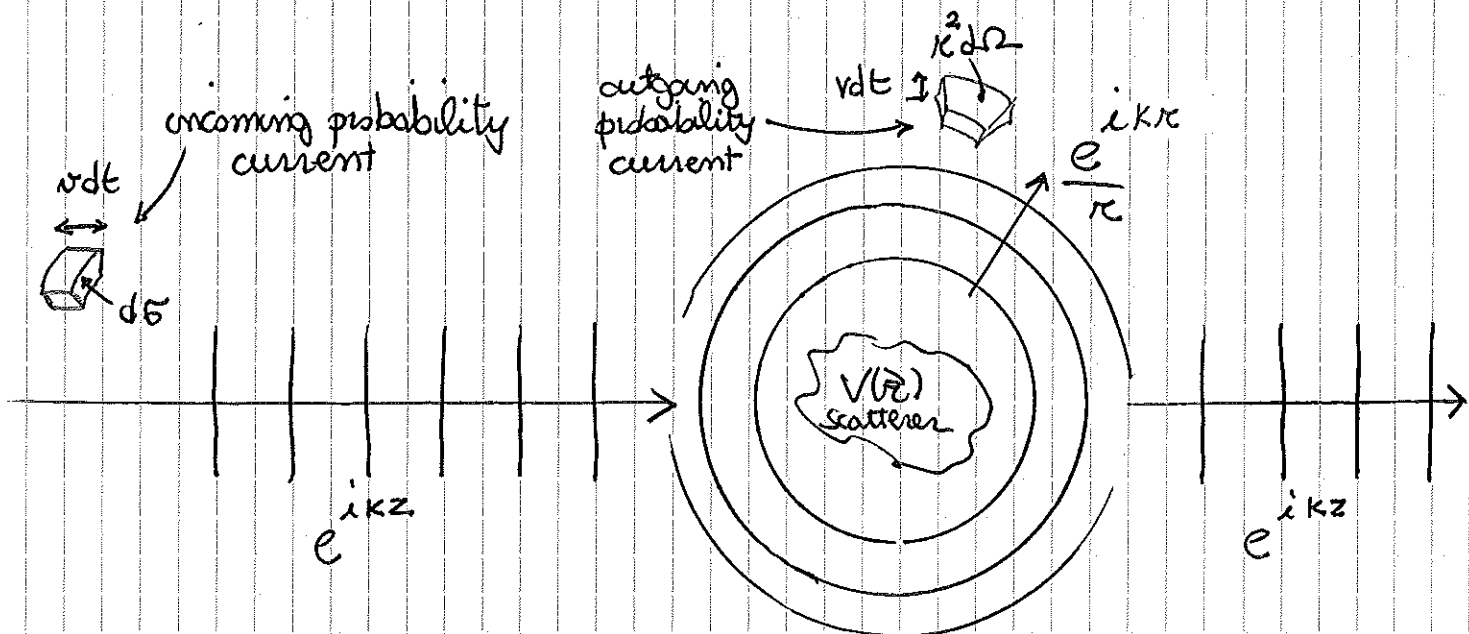
$$D(\theta) = \frac{b}{\sin \theta} \left| \frac{db}{d\theta} \right| = \frac{R \cos(\frac{\theta}{2})}{\sin \theta} \cdot R \cdot \frac{1}{2} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = \frac{R^2}{4}$$

$$\sigma = \text{Total cross section} = \int D(\theta) d\Omega = \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_0^{\pi} d\theta \sin \theta \underbrace{D(\theta)}_{R^2/4} = \pi R^2$$

This is what we expect: the cross section represents the area occupied by the scatterer as "seen" by the particle. By "seeing", we mean that if the particle enters that area, its direction gets modified (it scatters in some direction).

If we stare at a sphere of radius R , we indeed see an area πR^2 projected by the sphere.

The situation is similar in quantum mechanics: we look at probability currents.



The idea is that my incoming plane wave, $\propto e^{ikz}$, will produce an outgoing spherical wave upon encountering the potential $V(\vec{r})$. We hence look for solutions of Schrodinger's equation in the form:

$$\psi(r, \theta) \approx \psi_{\text{incoming}} + \psi_{\text{scattered}} = A \left(e^{ikz} + f(\theta) \frac{e^{iKr}}{r} \right)$$

valid for large r , away from the scattering potential. In that region, $K = \sqrt{2mE}/\hbar$, and all the info I need about $d\sigma/d\Omega$ is contained in $f(\theta)$:

$$dP = \text{probability of being in volume } d\sigma \cdot v dt = |\psi_{\text{incoming}}|^2 dV = |A|^2 v dt d\sigma$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \text{probability of being in scattered volume } r^2 d\Omega = |\psi_{\text{scattered}}|^2 dV = |A|^2 |f(\theta)|^2 v dt \cdot \\ &\quad \underbrace{r^2 d\Omega}_{\text{area subtended by solid angle}} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{1}{r^2}}_{\substack{\downarrow \text{spherical} \\ \text{wave function} \\ \propto \frac{1}{r}}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = |f(\theta)|^2$$

Let us study a centrally symmetric potential, $V(r)$, i.e., no dependence on θ or φ . The radial Schrodinger equation is:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} + V(r)u + \frac{\hbar^2 \ell(\ell+1)}{2mr^2} u = Eu$$

Let us now assume that $V(r)$ is localized stronger than $1/r^2$ (e.g., $1/r^3$; note: Coulomb potential, $\propto 1/r$, does NOT satisfy this condition).

Then, for large r , we can approximately write:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} + \frac{\hbar^2 \ell(\ell+1)}{2mr^2} u = Eu$$

The solutions to this equation that are outgoing waves are the spherical

Hankel's functions of the first kind:

$$H_{\ell}^{(1)}(Kr) \xrightarrow{\text{for large } r} \frac{(-i)^{\ell+1}}{Kr} e^{iKr}$$

The general solution is a sum of solutions for all values of l and m :

$$\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = A \left(e^{ikz} + \sum_{l,m} c_{lm} H_e^{(1)}(kr) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) \right)$$

↑ incoming wave
↑ scattered wave
↓ solution of Schrödinger's angular equation

Since $V(r)$ is not depending on ϕ , and e^{ikz} , the incoming wave, is also not depending on ϕ , the problem has an azimuthal symmetry \Rightarrow the solution cannot depend on ϕ , hence only terms with $m=0$ can appear in the sum.

Since:

$$Y_l^0(\theta, \phi) = \sqrt{\frac{2l+1}{4\pi}} P_l(\cos\theta)$$

← Legendre polynomial

and defining:

$$a_l = \text{partial wave amplitude} = c_{l0} \frac{(-i)^{l+1}}{k \sqrt{4\pi} (2l+1)}$$

we can write, for large r :

$$\psi(r, \theta) = A \left(e^{ikz} + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (2l+1) a_l P_l(\cos\theta) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \right)$$

Comparing this expression with what we started with, we get:

$$f(\theta) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} a_l (2l+1) P_l(\cos\theta)$$

and:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \mathcal{I}(\theta) = |f(\theta)|^2 = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{l'=0}^{\infty} a_l a_{l'}^* (2l+1)(2l'+1) P_l(\cos\theta) P_{l'}(\cos\theta)$$

We can simplify this expression using the orthogonality relation of Legendre polynomials:

$$\int P_l(\cos\theta) P_{l'}(\cos\theta) d\Omega = \frac{4\pi}{(2l+1)} \delta_{ll'}$$

and use it to find a compact expression for the total cross section:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \boxed{\sigma} &= \int d\Omega D(\theta) = \int d\Omega \sum_e \sum_{e'} a_e a_{e'}^* (2l+1)(2l'+1) P_l(\cos\theta) P_{l'}(\cos\theta) = \\
 &= \sum_e \sum_{e'} a_e a_{e'}^* (2l+1)(2l'+1) \int d\Omega P_l(\cos\theta) P_{l'}(\cos\theta) = \\
 &= \sum_e \sum_{e'} a_e a_{e'}^* (2l+1)(2l'+1) \frac{4\pi}{2l+1} \delta_{ee'} = \\
 &= \boxed{\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} |a_l|^2 4\pi (2l+1)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Our job is to find the partial wave amplitudes a_e .

Let us look at the case of a quantum hard sphere:

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

We can use the following identity:

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

↘ Bessel functions

obtaining: (here we understand why the definition of a_e kept a $(2l+1)$ term around)

$$\psi(r, \theta) = A \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} i^l (2l+1) \left(j_l(kr) + i k a_l H_l^{(1)}(kr) \right) P_l(\cos\theta)$$

The boundary condition is:

$$\psi(R, \theta) = 0$$

Since $P_l(\cos\theta)$ are orthonormal, this means that each term in the sum has to be individually equal to 0. This gives us the value of a_e !

We obtain:

$$a_l = \frac{i j_l(kR)}{k H_l^{(1)}(kR)}$$

This is still an exact solution. Let us look at what happens for low-energy scattering, i.e., k small and $kR \ll 1$:

$$j_l(kR) \approx \frac{2^l l!}{(2l+1)!} (kR)^l$$

$$H_l^{(1)}(kR) \approx -i \frac{(2l)!}{2^l l!} (kR)^{-l-1}$$

(compare with Griffiths table 4.4, noting that $H_l^{(1)}(kR) = j_l(kR) + i n_l(kR)$)
wins over $j_l(kR)$ for small kR

Finally:

$$a_l = \frac{-1}{k} \frac{1}{(2l+1)} \left(\frac{2^l l!}{(2l)!} \right)^2 (kR)^{2l+1}$$

Since $kR \ll 1$, the $l=0$ term dominates:

$$\sigma = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (2l+1) 4\pi |a_l|^2 \approx 4\pi |a_0|^2 = \frac{4\pi}{k^2} (kR)^2 = \underline{\underline{4\pi R^2}}$$

Instead of seeing only the projected area, in ^{the} quantum case the incoming wave sees the whole surface!

Interesting example: the total proton-proton cross section is $100 \text{ mb} = 100 \text{ millibarn} = 10 \text{ fm}^2$

The proton radius is 1 fm , and $4\pi R_{\text{proton}}^2 \approx 10 \text{ fm}^2$!