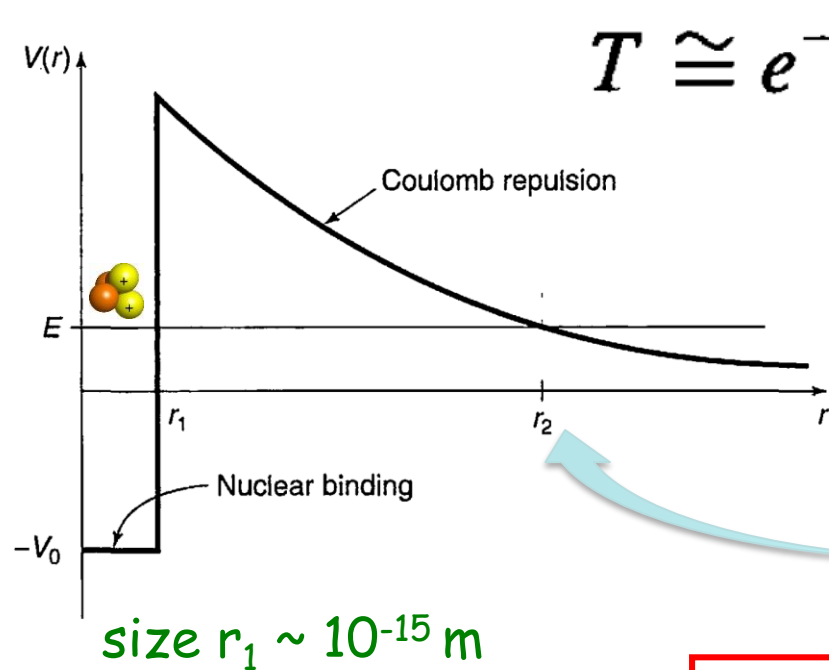
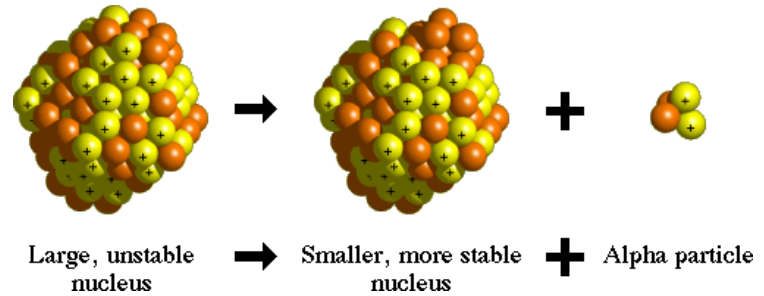


Famous example: Gamow's theory of alpha decay (1928).
 First use of QM in nuclear.



$$T \cong e^{-2\gamma}$$

$$\gamma \equiv \frac{1}{\hbar} \int_0^a |p(x)| dx$$

$$\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2Ze^2}{r_2} = E$$

Z=leftover nucleus

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\hbar} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \sqrt{2m \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2Ze^2}{r}}_{V(r)} - E \right)} dr$$

V(r)

Turns out, the integral can be done exactly (see book), and moreover it can be simplified considerably if $r_1 \ll r_2$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\hbar} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \sqrt{2m \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{2Ze^2}{r} - E \right)} dr \quad \longrightarrow \quad K_1 \frac{Z}{\sqrt{E}} - K_2 \sqrt{Zr_1}$$

Full integral
After some approximations

where

$$K_1 \equiv \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{\pi \sqrt{2m}}{\hbar} = 1.980 \text{ MeV}^{1/2}$$

$$K_2 \equiv \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^{1/2} \frac{4\sqrt{m}}{\hbar} = 1.485 \text{ fm}^{-1/2}$$

1 fm = 10^{-15} m is
the size of a
typical nucleus

As "m" we use the mass of an alpha
particle ~ 4 proton masses

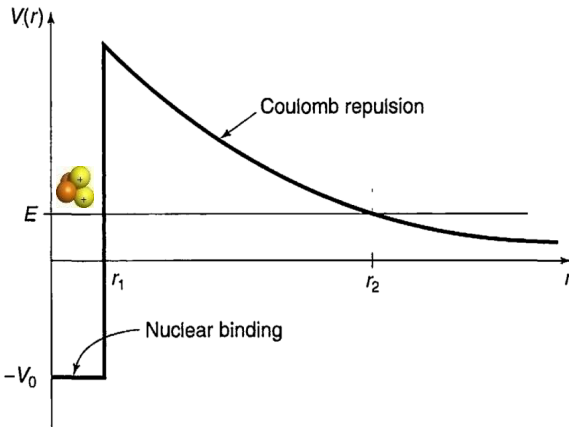
Z is the positive charge of the nucleus

If alpha particles have an average velocity "v" inside the well, then to travel from $r=0$ to $r=r_1$ it takes $t=r_1/v$, i.e. hits the walls with a period $2r_1/v$. At each collision the probability of remaining trapped is high $e^{+2\gamma}$ (or prob. of escape is low $e^{-2\gamma}$)

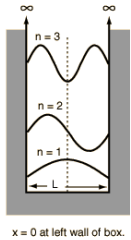
The lifetime then is $\tau = (2r_1/v) e^{+2\gamma}$.

Then, $\ln(\tau) = \ln(2r_1/v) + 2\gamma$ with

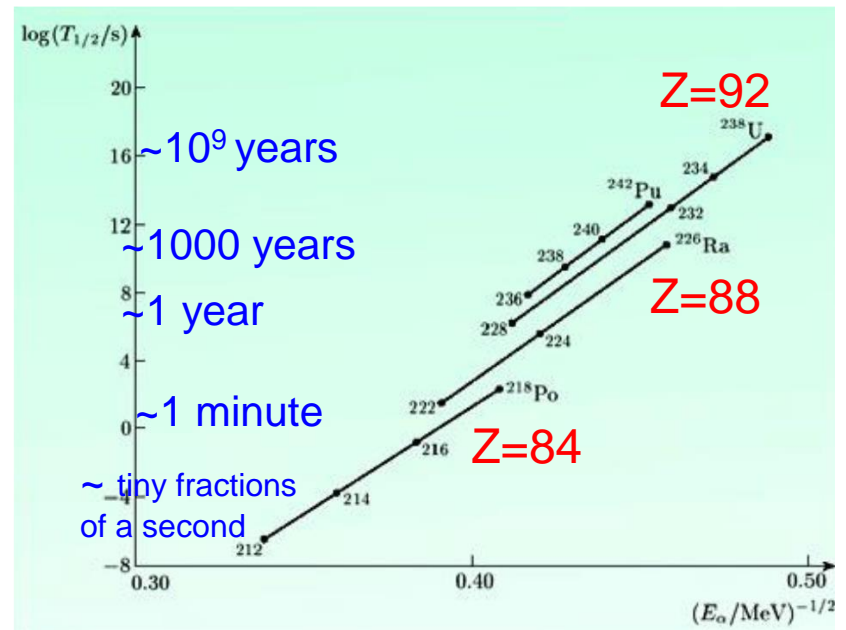
$$\gamma \sim K_1 \frac{Z}{\sqrt{E}} - K_2 \sqrt{Zr_1}$$



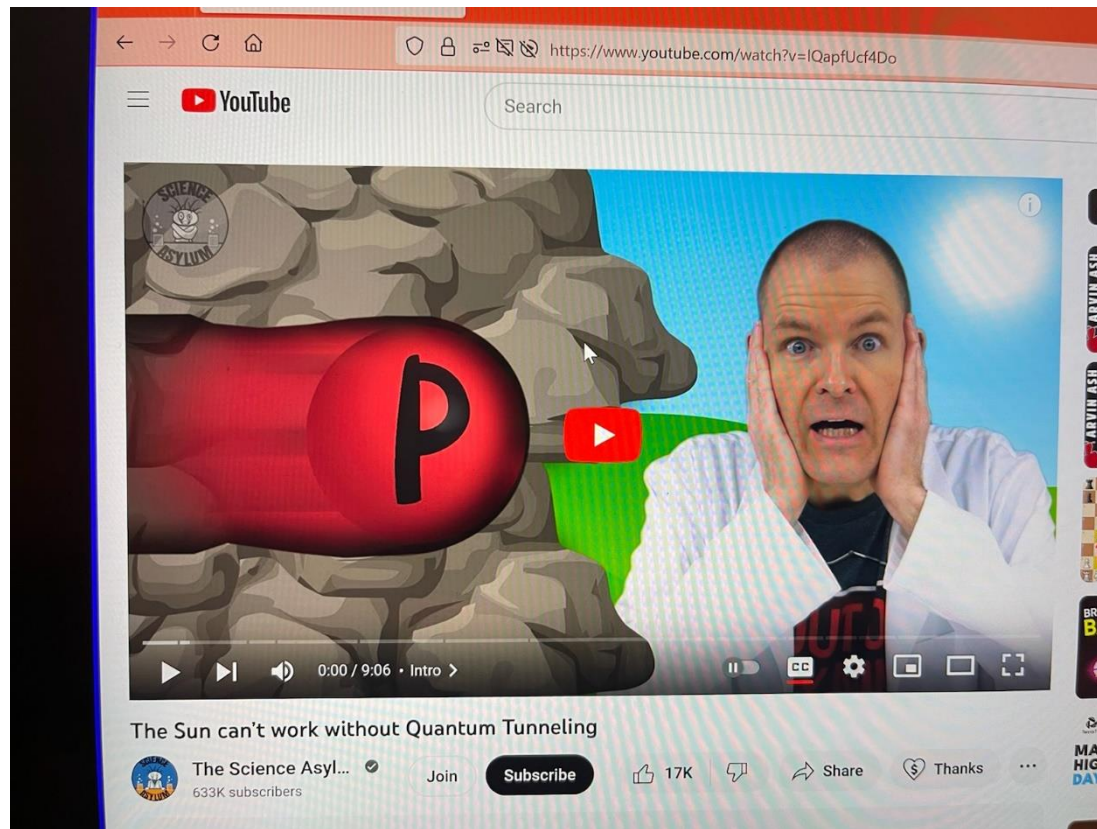
Note: the energy of the alpha particle is not arbitrary but resembles that of a square well.



Experiments confirm that lifetime depends \sim linearly on $1/\sqrt{E_\alpha}$ on a range of lifetimes from 10^9 years to tiny fractions of seconds! (Geiger-Nuttall law)



You may remember the video I asked you to watch last semester about how the sun proceeds with nuclear fusion ... **even though it is not hot enough to overcome the Coulombic barrier for the fusion of four protons into a He nucleus** (plus two neutrons plus two positrons ejected).

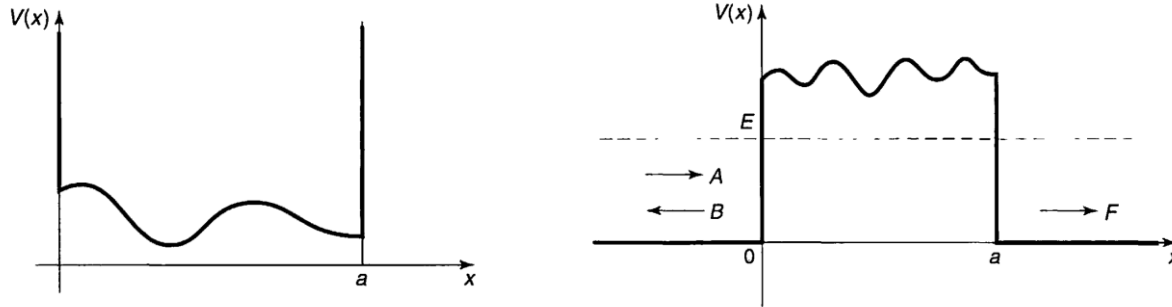


<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IQapfUcf4Do>

The Ch 9 portion of the lecture ended here. The next three pages (page 6,7,8) are only for completeness. It is not material that you need to know for Test 3 (final exam). Read if you like only.

9.3: The connection region (not for Test3)

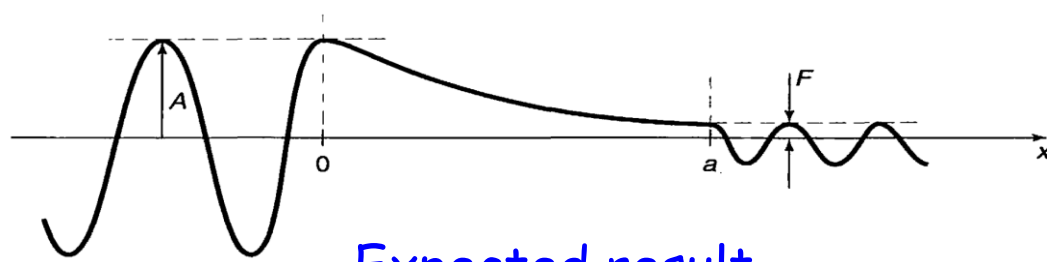
In many examples we use the WKB approximation in cases $V(x)$ has **vertical** walls.



But in most real situations, this is not the case, such as in alpha decay. We may try the "usual" procedure:

$$\psi(x) \cong \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{p(x)}} \left[B e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_v^0 p(x') dx'} + C e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_v^0 p(x') dx'} \right], & \text{if } x < 0, \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{|p(x)|}} D e^{-\frac{1}{\hbar} \int_0^x |p(x')| dx'}, & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$$

Naively we may simply be tempted to try to match coefficients at the boundary.



Expected result

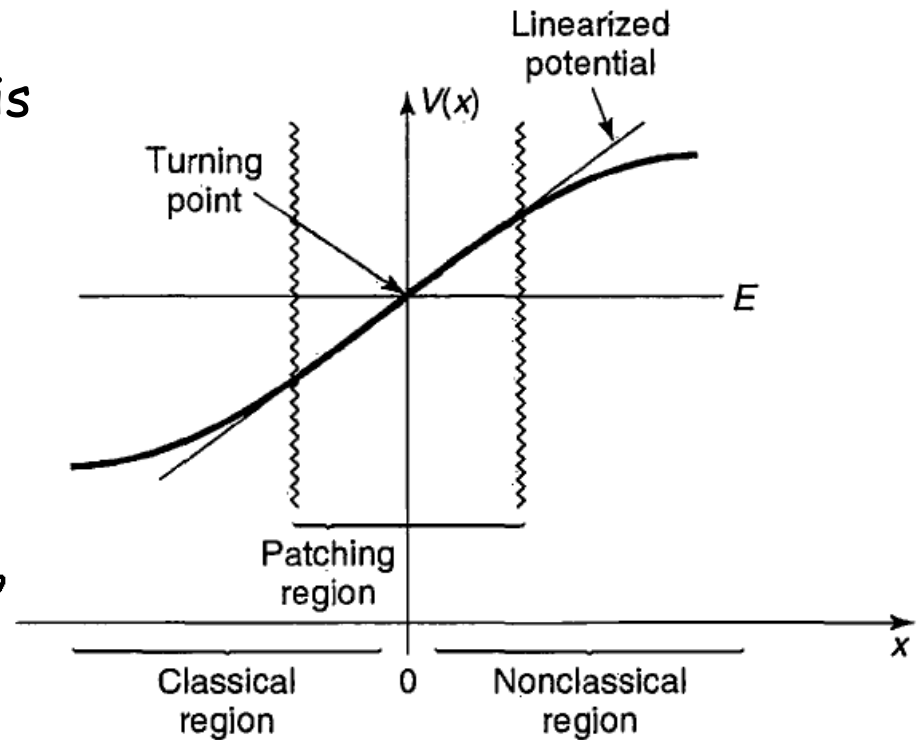
However, at exactly the "x" where we switch from classical to non-classical then $p(x) = V(x) - E$ is zero. Then, WKB wave functions explode. Not realistic!

$$\psi(x) \cong \frac{C}{\sqrt{|p(x)|}} e^{\pm \frac{i}{\hbar} \int |p(x)| dx}$$

In practice a "patching procedure" is followed, where a "third region" is introduced where the potential is linearized

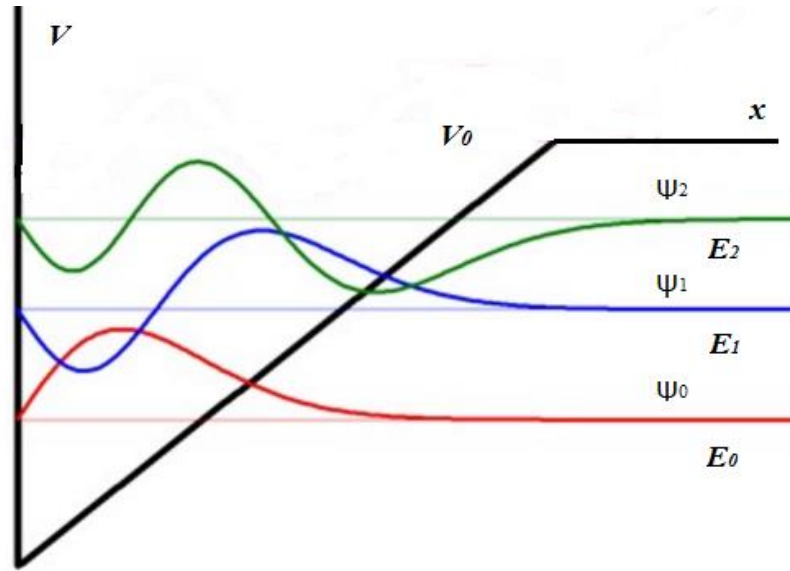
$$V(x) \cong E + V'(0)x$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi_p}{dx^2} + [E + V'(0)x] \psi_p = E \psi_p$$



A problem with a linear potential is exactly solvable and leads to the **Airy functions**, complicated functions usually given in an integral form. They are oscillatory on one side and exponential on the other.

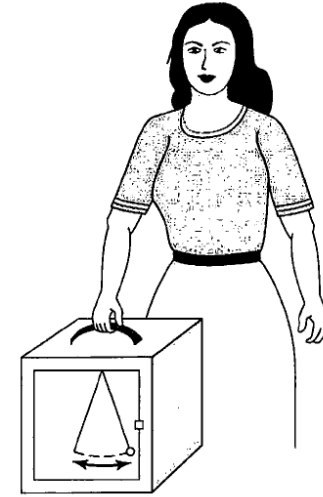
If we had a sharp wall on one side (not the actual problem at hand) the shape of the Airy functions is as shown (leading to bound states):



The WKB patching procedure would be too complicated to describe in detail, just be aware of its existence.

Section 11.5: The Adiabatic Approximation

Classical analog: a pendulum with zero friction oscillating in a plane. If abruptly you move the box, the pendulum will have a complicated motion.



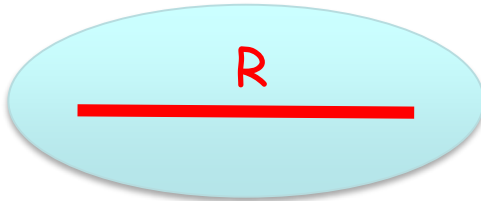
But if you "very slowly" rotate the box, the plane of oscillation will slowly rotate as well.

A very slow change in the boundary conditions of a problem defines an "adiabatic" process.

Often there are two characteristic times competing. One is internal, T_i , like the period of the pendulum that depends on gravity "g" and length of string "L". The other one is external, T_e , related in this example to the speed of rotation of the box. Adiabatic means $T_e \gg T_i$.

In QM, this is often used in describing **oscillations of molecules**. Like we did for the H_2^+ ion: we fixed R , the distance between hydrogens, and solved the electron problem. The results depend on R of course. Then, by making $R=R(t)$ we could have found **the frequencies of oscillations of the atoms**, precursor of finding "phonons" in crystals.

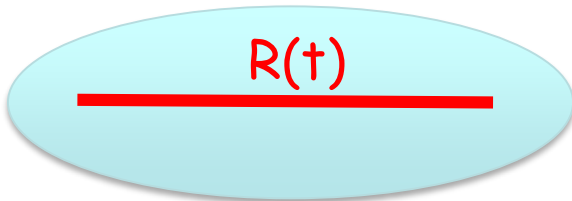
$$\psi = A [\psi_0(r_1) + \psi_0(r_2)] \text{ at } R \text{ fixed}$$



Same type of wave function

$$\psi = A [\psi_0(r_1) + \psi_0(r_2)]$$

simply at new $R(t)$

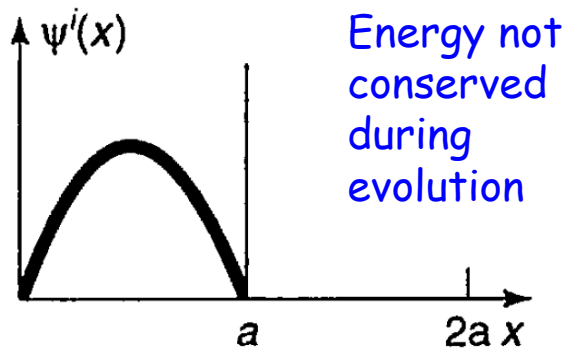


Solving the electronic problem first, and then addressing the oscillations in a fixed electronic cloud is called the **Born-Oppenheimer approximation**.

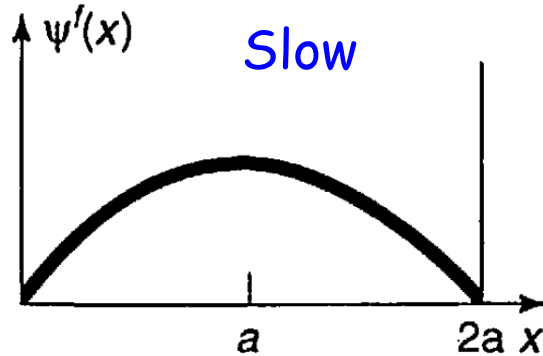
More specifically, if the electron was initially in the ground state, it **remains in the ground state** that smoothly changes its shape as R changes slowly. **This uses the Adiabatic Approximation !**

In general: if the particle is initially at eigenstate n -th of initial H , then in an adiabatic problem it remains in the eigenstate n th of the final H .

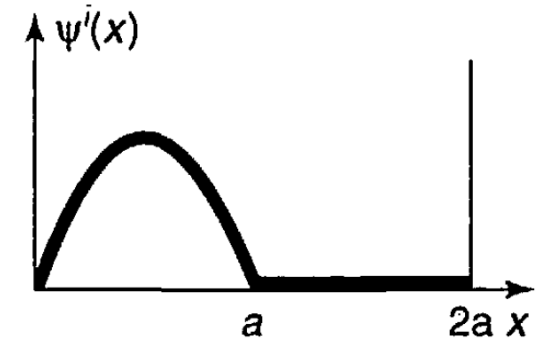
Now consider an abrupt switch from a to $2a$.



$$\psi^i(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{a}x\right)$$



$$\psi^f(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2a}x\right)$$



The initial wave function is neither even nor odd, thus it will have a nonzero overlap with all the eigenstates!

Moreover, after the wall abruptly is moved to $2a$, the energy is conserved in the new problem. The electron will never be 100% in the ground state.

Definitely the wave function $\psi(t)$ will NOT be

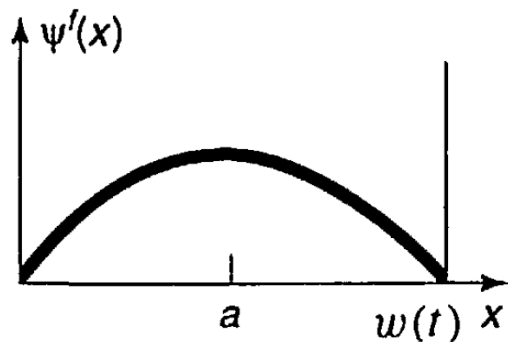
$$\psi^f(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2a}x\right)$$

The adiabatic theorem is complicated to prove but we will try. Specifically it says that in an adiabatic process the eigenstates - assume a discrete energy spectrum so that you can follow each one - evolve as:

$$\Psi_n(t) = e^{i\theta_n(t)} e^{i\gamma_n(t)} \psi_n(t)$$

For example, consider the square well again, with a wall moving with constant velocity v .

$$w(t) \equiv a + vt$$



$$\psi_n(x, t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{w}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{w}x\right)$$

In addition, there are two phase factors, according to the theorem: the dynamical and the geometrical (related to the Berry phase).