Rotational structures of long-range diatomic molecules

Bo Gao

Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio 43606
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We present a systematic understanding of the rotational structure of a long-range (vibrationally highly-excited) diatomic molecule. For example, we show that depending on a quantum defect, the least-bound vibrational state of a diatomic molecule with $-C_n/r^n$ ($n > 2$) asymptotic interaction can have only $1, 2$, and up to a maximum of $n - 2$ rotational states. A classification scheme of diatomic molecules is proposed, in which each class has a distinctive rotational structure and corresponds to different atom-atom scattering properties above the dissociation limit.

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I. INTRODUCTION

How fast can we rotate a molecule before breaking it? How does a rotational series terminates at the dissociation limit? How many rotational levels are there for a diatomic molecule in its last (least-bound), or next-to-last, vibrational state? These intriguing, and closely related, questions are taken on a new dimension of practical importance as our ability to make large samples of long-range molecules (vibrational highly-excited molecules) [3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13], and even condensates of long-range molecules [14, 15, 16], continues to grow. To understand the properties of a long-range molecule, especially how it responds to external perturbations such as collision with other atoms, we need not only the properties of a particular molecular state, such as the least-bound $s$ state. We also need to know what are the states around it. It is this global structure of states that is the focus of this work.

One approach to this problem is to compute the universal spectra for each type of long-range interaction, $-C_n/r^n$, as we have done previously for $n = 6$ [17, 18] and $n = 3$ [19], and simply observe them. This would, however, be very tedious and can never be completely inclusive. Our approach here is based on the recognition that the global structure of states, not including specific values for binding energies, depends only on the zero-energy wave function, more specifically, on its number of nodes as a function of both the angular momentum quantum number $l$ and the exponent $n$ characterizing the long-range interaction.

Our results, and answers to the questions raised above, can be summarized in two simple formulas that will be derived later in the article. The first gives the dependence of the number of bound states on the angular momentum $l$ for a quantum system with $-C_n/r^n$ ($n > 2$) long-range interaction.

$$ N_l = \left[ N_0 + \mu C_n - \frac{1}{n - 2} \right] . \quad (1) $$

Here $[x]$ means the greatest integer less than or equal to $x$. $N_l$ is the number of bound states of angular momentum $l$. $N_0$ is the number of $s$ wave bound states. $\mu$ is a quantum defect, to be defined later, that has a range of $0 \leq \mu < 1$.

The second formula relates the quantum defect to the $s$ wave scattering length

$$ a_{0s} = \frac{a_{0s}}{\tan(\pi \mu) + \tan(\pi b)} . \quad (2) $$

Here $a_{0s} = a_0/\beta_n$ is the $s$ wave scattering length, $a_0$, scaled by the length scale $\beta_n = (2\mu C_n/h^2)^{1/(n-2)}$ associated with the long-range interaction; $b = 1/(n - 2)$; and

$$ a_{0s} = \frac{1}{\beta_n} \left[ \frac{\Gamma(1 - b)}{\Gamma(1 + b)} \right] , \quad (3) $$

is the mean $s$ wave scattering length of Gribakin and Flambaum [20], scaled by $\beta_n$.

The consequences of these results are easily understood and are discussed in Sec. II. Equation (1) is derived in Sec. III. It is another example of universal properties at length scale $\beta_n$, as discussed in a more general terms in two recent publications [21, 22]. This universal property is followed by all molecules in varying degrees. Deviations from it and other issues are discussed in Sec. IV. A primer of the angular-momentum-insensitive quantum-defect theory (AQDT) [17, 18], which is the foundation of this work, can be found in Appendix A.

II. DERIVATION OF EQUATION (1)

Equation (1) may be derived using two different methods. One is to apply AQDT [17, 18], the version for arbitrary $n > 2$ as outlined in [21] and Appendix A, to the zero-energy state of a diatomic molecule. This approach is discussed briefly in Appendix A. The other approach is the method of effective potential [21, 22]. It is this latter method that we present here, for the purpose of further promoting this powerful concept. While it makes no difference in this particular case, for more complex systems,
such as quantum few-body or quantum many-body systems where no analytic solutions are available, the method of effective potential may be the only way to uncover universal properties at different length scales. The results would, of course, be mostly numerical in those cases. But a numerical solution done right can indeed yield universal behavior.

The method of effective potential is very simple. It states that for a physical observable that depends only on states around the threshold, such as the number of nodes of the zero-energy wave function that we are looking at here, its universal behavior at length scale $\beta_n$ can be derived from any potential that has the right asymptotic behavior and is strongly repulsive at short distances. Specifically, a universal result at length scale $\beta_n$ is obtained from the corresponding result for the effective potential by taking a proper limit to eliminate the shorter length scales while keeping the short-range $K$ behavior.

Specifically, a universal result at length scale $\beta_n$ is attained from the corresponding result for the effective potential by taking a proper limit to eliminate the shorter length scales while keeping the short-range $K$ behavior.

We take here, for simplicity, a hard-sphere with an attractive tail (HST),

$$V_{\text{HST}}(r) = \begin{cases} \infty, & r \leq r_0 \\ -C_n/r^n, & r > r_0 \end{cases},$$

as our effective potential. Its number of bound levels for angular momentum $l$ is given by (21) and Appendix A,

$$N_{\text{HST}}(l) = \begin{cases} m, & j_{\nu_0,m} \leq y_0 < j_{\nu_0,m+1} \\ 0, & y_0 < j_{\nu_0,1} \end{cases},$$

where $y_0 = [2/(n-2)](\beta_n/r_0)^{\nu_0/2}$, $\nu_0 = (2l+1)/(n-2)$, and $j_{\nu_0,m} (m \geq 1)$ is the m-th zero of the Bessel function $J_{\nu_0}(x)$.

Its $K^c$ parameter at zero energy is given by (21) and Appendix A.

$$K_{\text{HST}}^c(0, l) = -\frac{J_{\nu_0}(y_0)}{J_{\nu_0}(y_0) \sin(\pi \nu_0/2) + Y_{\nu_0}(y_0) \cos(\pi \nu_0/2)},$$

where $J$ and $Y$ are the Bessel functions.

In the limit of $r_0 \to 0^+$ that eliminates the shorter length scale (see 22 for a more precise definition), $y_0 \to 1$, and the roots of the Bessel function are given by 24.

$$j_{\nu_0,m} \to (m + \nu_0/2 - 1/4)\pi.$$

$K^c(0, l)$ becomes an $l$-independent constant

$$K^c(0, l) \to K^c = \tan(\nu_0 + \pi/4).$$

Define the quantum defect, $\mu^c(\epsilon, l)$, to be a parameter in a range of $0 \leq \mu^c < 1$ and related to $K^c$ by

$$K^c(\epsilon, l) = \tan \left[ \pi \mu^c(\epsilon, l) + \frac{\pi}{2(n-2)} \right].$$

It is clear that $\mu^c(0, l)$ also becomes an $l$-independent constant

$$\mu^c(0, l) \to \mu^c = \frac{y_0}{\pi} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{2(n-2)} - j.$$

where $j$ is an integer chosen such that $\mu^c$ falls in the range of $0 \leq \mu^c < 1$.

Combining these results, the number of bound states of angular momentum $l$ can be written in the limit of $r_0 \to 0^+$ as

$$N_{\text{HST}}(l) \to m, \; m \leq j + \mu^c - \frac{1}{n-2}l < m + 1.$$

In other words,

$$N_{\text{HST}}(l) \to m, \; m \leq j + \mu^c - \frac{1}{n-2}l.$$
make our statements unnecessarily complex without introducing any new physics. In specific applications, all one needs to do is to exclude states that cannot satisfy the symmetry requirement (see, for example, [27]), as needed.

The physical implications of Eq. (11) can be easily understood by noting that \( N_0 - 1 \) is the maximum vibrational quantum number, \( v_{\text{max}} \), while \( N_1 - 1 \) is the maximum vibrational quantum number, \( v_{\text{max},l} \), that can support a rotational state of angular momentum \( l \). A vibrational state \( v \) can have all \( l \) for which \( v_{\text{max},l} \geq v \). Letting \( L_{\text{max},v} \) to be the maximum rotational quantum number for vibrational state \( v \), we have from Eq. (11)

\[
v = \left[ v_{\text{max}} + \mu^c - \frac{1}{n-2} L_{\text{max},v} \right],
\]

which can be written as

\[
L_{\text{max},v} = (n-2)(v_{\text{max}} - v) + [(n-2)\mu^c],
\]

where the square bracket in the second term, \([x]\), again denotes the greatest integer less than or equal to \( x \).

This result suggests the classification of molecules into \( n-2 \) classes, each corresponding to an equal interval of \( b = 1/(n-2) \) in the quantum-defect space. For class \( i \) with \( ib \leq \mu^c < (i+1)b \), we have \( i \leq (n-2)\mu^c < i+1 \), and therefore

\[
L_{\text{max},v}(i) = i + (n-2)(v_{\text{max}} - v).
\]

Thus each class of molecules corresponds to a unique rotational structure that terminates at \( L_{\text{max},v}(i) \). This classification is summarized in Table I. In particular, it means that the least-bound vibrational state can have 1 (Class 0), 2 (Class 1), and up to a maximum of \( n - 2 \) (Class \( n-3 \)) rotational states, depending on the quantum defect of the molecule. For the next-to-last vibrational state, add \( n - 2 \) rotational states to each class, and so on for lower vibrational states.

What makes this classification useful is that each class not only has a distinctive rotational structure, it also corresponds to distinctive atom-atom scattering properties above the dissociation limit. First, each class of molecules corresponds to a distinctive (non-overlapping) range of scattering length, which can be determined from Eq. (2) and is summarized in Table II.

Equation (4) derives easily from the definition of the mean scattering length \( 2a_0 \), Eq. (3), the definition of the quantum defect, Eq. (2), and the following rigorous relation between \( K^c \) and the s wave scattering length (21) and Appendix A:

\[
a_0 = \frac{b^2k_1(1 - b)}{K^c(0, 0) + \tan(\pi b/2)},
\]

which is similar to the relation between scattering length and a semiclassical phase as derived by Gribakin and Flambaum [27]. These equations combine to give

\[
a_0 = \frac{\tan(\pi \mu^c(0, 0)) + \tan(\pi b)}{\tan(\pi \mu^c(0, 0))},
\]

which is the exact relation between scattering length and quantum defect. It is the more rigorous way to write Eq. (2), applicable even when the system deviates from the universal behavior (see Sec. IV and Appendix A).

With the correspondence between quantum defect and scattering length, our classification of molecules can translate into other general statements, such as, a) The least-bound vibrational state of a diatomic molecule with \( a_0 \geq 2a_0 \) has only a single rotational state. b) The least-bound vibrational state of a diatomic molecule with negative scattering length has \( n - 2 \) rotational states. It is worth noting that molecules with negative scattering length all fall into a single class, Class \( n-3 \), while molecules with positive scattering length separate into \( n - 3 \) classes, from Class 0 to Class \( n-4 \). A similar feature was first noted by Gribakin and Flambaum [27].

The different scattering properties for different classes are not restricted to the s wave. In fact, more interesting differences occur for higher partial waves. For example, Class 0 does not have a p wave bound state for the last vibrational level. This p state, which would have been bound for \( \mu^c \geq b \), does not disappear completely. It shows itself as a p wave shape-resonance above the threshold, which actually becomes infinitely narrow (infinitely long-lived) as one approaches \( \mu^c = b \) from the side of Class 0. In general, a Class \( i \) system is the one that has a shape-resonance of \( l = i + 1 \) closest to the threshold. The detailed properties of these resonances are however beyond the scope of this article (see, e.g. [17, 26, 28, 29]).

The critical values of \( \mu^c = ib \) that are the boundaries between different classes correspond to having bound or quasibound states of angular momenta \( l = i + (n-2)j \) (\( j \) being a non-negative integer) right at the threshold (Appendix A). They have vibrational quantum numbers of \( v = v_{\text{max}} - j \), respectively. This is a generalization of some of the results in [15] to the case of arbitrary \( n > 3 \). Note that the wave functions for zero-energy bound or quasibound states are well defined and are given in the region of long-range potential by (Appendix A)

\[
u_{r=0}(r) = Ar_i^{1/2} J_{\nu_0}(y),
\]

where \( Ar_i^{1/2} J_{\nu_0}(y) \)
where $r_s = r/\beta_n$ is a scaled radius, and $y = [2/(n - 2)]r_s^{-(n-2)/2}$. This wave function has an asymptotic behavior of $1/r$ at large $r$, thus representing a true, normalizable, bound state for $l > 0$, and a quasibound (not normalizable) state for $l = 0$. The fact that $s$-wave wave function in the effective-range theory becomes completely meaningless when $a_0 = \infty$ is only a limitation of the theory, not a reflection of any physical reality.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

We discuss here some special cases, deviations from the universal behavior, and how they might be treated.

A. The case of $n = 3$

Our result is applicable to $n = 3$, even though the scattering length has no definition in this case (for any $l$) \[34,33\]. Specifically, it predicts that quantum systems with $n = 3$ have only a single class (Class 0) with $L_{max,\nu} = v_{max} - v$. In other words, the last vibrational state for $n = 3$ has a single rotational state, an $s$ state. The next-to-last vibrational state has two rotational states, and so forth. This prediction is confirmed by the analytic solution for $-C_3/r^3$ potential [13,31].

B. The special case of LJ(n,2n-2) potentials

For a set of Lennard-Jones potentials LJ(n,2n-2) ($n > 2$) defined by $V_{LJn}(r) = -C_n/r^n + C_{2n-2}/r^{2n-2}$, the number of bound levels for any $l$ is given by \([17]\) and Appendix [A]

\[N_{LJn}(l) = \begin{cases} \left[2/3 - \nu_0^2\right], & \nu_0 \geq (\nu_0 + 1)/2, \\ 0, & \nu_0 < (\nu_0 + 1)/2 \end{cases}\]

where $\nu_0 = (2l + 1)/(n - 2)$, and the square bracket $[x]$ again means the greatest integer less than or equal to $x$. $\nu_0 = (\beta_n/\beta_{2n-2})^{n-2}/[2(n-2)]$, where $\beta_{2n-2}$ is the length scale associated with the $C_{2n-2}/r^{2n-2}$ interaction. Thus for the LJ(n,2n-2) potential, the universal dependence of the number of bound states on $l$, as specified by Eq. \([14]\), is exact, true even when $\beta_{2n-2}$ is comparable to $\beta_n$ and the corresponding potentials are so shallow as to support only a single or a few bound states.

This result implies that to break the universal dependence on $l$, one needs not only a short-range interaction, but the behavior of this interaction also has to be different from LJ(n,2n-2).

C. Deviations from the universal behavior

The key to understand qualitatively the deviations from the universal behavior is to recognize the origin of this universality. The universal $l$-dependence originates from the $l$-independence of $K^c(0,l)$ \[17\] and Appendix [A], which is a result of both the small mass ratio $m_e/\mu$, where $m_e$ is the electron mass and $\mu$ is the reduced mass of the molecule (not to be confused with the quantum defect $\mu^c$), and the condition of $\beta_n \gg r_0$ where $r_0$ is a representative of other length scales in the system. (For HST potential, it coincides with the $r_0$ that we used earlier.)

With this understanding, it is clear that the universal behavior of Eq. \([14]\) should be followed by all molecules to some degree. The mass ratio $m_e/\mu$ is always small and can be taken for granted. (This is why we don’t always mention it.) And almost by definition, $\beta_n$ is the longest length scale in the problem, otherwise it would not, and should not have been called the long-range interaction.

It is also clear that the universal behavior is best followed by the states with highest vibrational quantum numbers. For example, consider our prediction of $L_{max,\nu}(i) = i + (n - 2)(v_{max} - v)$. For the least-bound vibrational state, $v = v_{max}$, it would only require $l$-independence of $K^c$ over a range of $\Delta l = n - 2$. In comparison, the same result applied to $v = v_{max} - 9$ would require $l$-independence of $K^c$ over 10 times that range, which generally becomes considerably worse (depending also on $n$, and other details of the short-range interaction).

As far as predictions for the last few vibrational states (long-range molecules) are concerned, there is no need to worry about deviation except when $\mu^c$ is very close to one of the critical values of $\mu^c = ib$, where a small $l$-dependence may mean the difference between a bound state and a shape resonance.

Whenever necessary, the deviation from universal behavior can be easily handled within the AQDT framework. All we need is to count the nodes of the zero-energy wave functions more carefully! As discussed in Appendix [A], AQDT is an exact formulation and an excellent platform for exact numerical calculations. This also applies to node-counting: integrate the Schrödinger equation at zero energy and count the nodes up to a distance where $K^c(0,l)$ has converged to a desired accuracy. One computes $K^c(0,l)$ by matching the integrated wave function to that given by Eq. \([A3]\) at different radii $r$. As a function this matching radius, $K^c(0,l)$ converges to a $r$-independent constant when the potential becomes $-C_n/r^n$ and the wave function becomes that of Eq. \([A5]\). Adding to that the number of nodes beyond this distance, which can now be calculated analytically, gives one the total number of nodes. This way, one would never miss a node which could potentially be at infinity.

One could also try to find if there are any systematics in the deviation by going to the next, shorter, length scale. Any such attempt would however be necessarily
system-specific and will be deferred to specific applications. Examples of the universal rotational structure for \( n = 6 \) can already be found in \([17,18]\), though they were not discussed explicitly. It was the simple structures observed there that motivated this work.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we have shown that the rotational structure of a long-range molecule follows a simple universal behavior that is characterized by two parameters, the exponent \( n \) of the long-range interaction \(-C_n/r^n\), and a quantum defect, which is related in a simple way to the s wave scattering length [whenever it is well defined \((n > 3)\)]. The resulting classification scheme gives a simple qualitative description of both the rotational structure of a long-range molecule and the corresponding atom-atom scattering properties above the dissociation threshold.

Finally, getting back to one of the questions at the beginning that we have not answered explicitly: how fast can we rotate a molecule before breaking it? The answer is, of course, \( L_{\text{max},\nu} \) units of angular momenta, which is generally a very small number for long-range molecules.

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APPENDIX A: AQDT: A PRIMER

We give here a brief review of the angular-momentum-insensitive quantum defect theory (AQDT) \([17,18]\). The focus will be on the conceptual aspects, and issues directly related to this particular work. We point out that there are a number of different quantum-defect formulations for diatomic systems \([27,28,29,30,31]\). There are also quantum-defect analysis \([32,33]\), and numerical methods that incorporate the concepts of quantum-defect theory \([34]\). Only our formulation is briefly reviewed here.

Consider a radial Schrödinger equation

\[
\left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2\mu r^2} + V(r) - \epsilon \right] u_{\ell}(r) = 0,
\]

(A1)

where \( V(r) \) becomes \(-C_n/r^n \) beyond a distance \( r_0 \). \((r_0 \) does not have to have a precise value like the case of HST. It is a representative of length scales associated with interactions of shorter range, introduced to simplify our discussion.)

In AQDT, the wave function in the region of long-range interaction \((r \geq r_0)\) is written as a linear superposition of a pair of reference functions

\[
u_{\ell}(r) = A_{\ell}[f_{\ell,i}(r_s) - K^c(\epsilon, l)g_{\ell,i}(r_s)] ,
\]

(A2)

which also serves to define the short-range K matrix \(K^c(\epsilon, l)\). The functions \(f^c\) and \(g^c\) are solutions for the long-range potential \(-C_n/r^n\) \([31,32]\). Their notations reflect the fact that with proper scaling and normalization, \(f^c\) and \(g^c\) depend only on a scaled radius \(r_s = r/\beta_n\) and on energy only through a scaled energy \(\epsilon_s = \frac{\epsilon}{(\hbar^2/2\mu)(1/\beta_n)^2} \).

Note that for the purpose of cleaner notation for arbitrary \(n\), we have abandoned the factor of 16 used previously for \(n = 6\) \([17,18,26,39]\), and the factor of 4 used previously for \(n = 3\) \([19,31]\).

Much of the art of a quantum defect theory \([40,41,42,43]\) is in choosing \(f^c\) and \(g^c\) that best reflect the underlying physics. For a molecule, the wave function at short distances is nearly independent of \(l\) because the rotational energy is small compared to electronic energy (originated from the small mass ratio \(m_e/\mu\)). AQDT takes advantage of this fact by picking a pair of solutions for \(-C_n/r^n\) potential that have not only energy-independent, but also \(l\)-independent behavior at short distances (possible because \(n > 2\)) \([17,21,22]\):

\[
f_{\ell,i}(r_s) \underset{r \leq r_0}{\text{\( \sim \)}} (2/n)^{1/2} r_s^{n/4} \cos(y - \pi/4) ,
\]

(A4)

\[
g_{\ell,i}(r_s) \underset{r \leq r_0}{\text{\( \sim \)}} - (2/\pi)^{1/2} r_s^{n/4} \sin(y - \pi/4) ,
\]

(A5)

where \(y = [2/(n - 2)] r_s^{(n-2)/2}\).

With this choice of reference pairs, matching to wave function at short distances yields an \(K^c\) that is nearly independent of \(l\), provided that \(r_0\) is much smaller than \(\beta_n\), so that the reference functions at this point are well represented by their \(l\)-independent form of Eqs. \(A4-A5\).

An approximately \(l\)-independent \(K^c\) thus reflects the underlying physics that for long-range molecules and atom-atom scattering at low energies, the angular momentum dependence is most important only at large distances where its effects can be incorporated analytically. This is the physical origin of why a single parameter in AQDT is often capable of describing a multitude of angular momentum states \([17,18,21]\). The results of this work is but one reflection of the resulting systematics.

The approximate energy-independence of \(K^c\) under the same condition of \(\beta_n \gg r_0\) is fairly standard \([40,42]\). It is both because the reference functions have been chosen to be energy-independent at short distances, and because the short-range wave function varies with energy on a scale of \((\hbar^2/2\mu)(1/r_0^2)\), much greater than the corresponding energy scale associated with the long-range interaction, which is \((\hbar^2/2\mu)(1/\beta_n)^2\) \([19]\).

In a multichannel theory that takes into account the hyperfine structures of atoms (starting from the formulation in \([27]\)), the concepts of AQDT, and the concept
of $l$-independence in particular, remain unchanged and lead to an even greater reduction in the number of parameters required for a complete characterization of the system \[44, 45\].

We emphasize that AQDT is an exact formulation that does not require either the energy-independence or the $l$-independence of $K^c$. It is simply the best framework, especially conceptually, to take advantage of them when they are there ($\beta_n \gg r_0$). The parameterizations that we often use to extract universal behaviors should not distract from the fact that AQDT also provides an excellent platform for exact numerical calculations, whether single channel \[21\] or multichannel. This is especially true close to the dissociation limit, where matching to analytic solutions for $-C_n/r^n$ potential to obtain $K^c(\epsilon, l)$ converges much faster than to matching to free-particle solutions to obtain the standard $K$ matrix. The calculations in \[21\] are all based on this platform. [AQDT may even be the best method to calculate the scattering length when it is close to infinity.]

A major task of AQDT is, of course, finding the reference functions. This is in general highly nontrivial \[31, 39\], especially analytically. No solution is yet available for $n = 5$ at $\epsilon \neq 0$. This difficulty is however not a problem here as we need only the zero-energy reference functions, which can be easily found for arbitrary $n$ and $l$ \[17, 46\].

$$
\begin{align*}
 f_{e=0}^c(r) &= \frac{2(n-2)^{1/2}}{r_s^{3/2}}[J_n(y_0) \cos(\pi \nu_0/2) - Y_n(y_0) \sin(\pi \nu_0/2)], \quad (A6) \\
 g_{e=0}^c(r) &= \frac{2(n-2)^{1/2}}{r_s^{3/2}}[J_n(y_0) \sin(\pi \nu_0/2) + Y_n(y_0) \cos(\pi \nu_0/2)], \quad (A7)
\end{align*}
$$

where $\nu_0 = (2l+1)/(n-2)$. With these reference functions, the zero-energy wave function can be written either as

$$
 u_{e=0}(r) = A[f_{e=0}^c(r) - K^c(0, l)g_{e=0}^c(r)], \quad (A8)
$$

or as

$$
 u_{e=0}(r) = A[f^c_{s=1/2}[J_{n}^c(y_0) \cos(\alpha_1) + Y_{n}^c(y_0) \sin(\alpha_1)], \quad (A9)
$$

where $\alpha_1 = \pi[\mu^c(0, l) - lb]$ with the quantum defect $\mu^c(\epsilon, l)$ being defined in terms of $K^c(\epsilon, l)$ by Eq. \[3\].

The parameters $K^c$ and $\mu^c$ both represent the same physics. $K^c$ is more convenient in computation, while $\mu^c$ is able to represent all quantum systems in a finite parameter space of $[0, 1]$. In comparison, $K^c$ can take any value from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$.

Equation \[5\] is simply a result of number-counting the wave function, given exactly by Eq. \[A9\], from $r_0$ to infinity ($y = 0$ to $y_0$) \[24\]. Equation \[6\] is obtained simply by imposing the boundary condition $u_{e=0}(r = r_0) = 0$.

Equation \[7\] is obtained by comparing the asymptotic behavior the $u_{e=0}(r)$ for $l = 0$ at large $r$ with the corresponding expansion that defines the s wave scattering length.

$$
 u_{e=0}(r) \rightarrow A(r - a_0) . \quad (A10)
$$

The derivation of Eq. \[3\] in AQDT is straightforward. In the limit of $r_0 \ll \beta_n$, the number of nodes of the zero-energy wave function inside $r_0$ is an $l$-independent constant [to a degree measured by the $l$-independence of $K^c(0, l)$]. Counting the number of nodes of the outside wave function, Eq. \[A9\], from $r_0$ to infinity ($y = 0$ to $y_0$) \[24\], and ignoring the $l$-dependence of $\mu^c(0, l)$ leads to Eq. \[3\]. From this derivation, it is clear that deviation from the universal behavior is measured by the degree to which $\mu^c(0, l)$ or $K^c(0, l)$ is independent of $l$.

Having a bound or quasibound state right at the threshold corresponds to the boundary condition of $u_{e=0}(r) \rightarrow 0$ (a finite constant for $l = 0$) in the limit of $r \rightarrow \infty$. Define

$$
 x_l(\epsilon) \equiv \tan[\pi \mu^c(\epsilon, l) - \pi lb] . \quad (A11)
$$

From Eq. \[A9\], the condition for a bound-state at the threshold is clearly

$$
 x_l(0) = \tan[\pi \mu^c(0, l) - \pi lb] = 0 , \quad (A12)
$$

which translates into $\mu^c(0, l) = lb$ for having bound or quasibound states of angular momenta $l = i + (n-2)j$ right at threshold, with corresponding wave functions given by Eq. \[A8\]. In terms of $K^c$, the same condition takes the form of

$$
 K^c(0, l) = \tan \left[ \frac{1}{n-2} \left( l + \frac{1}{2} \right) \pi \right] , \quad (A13)
$$

which is a generalization of the condition in \[18\] to the case of arbitrary $n$. Note that the conditions expressed in the form of Eqs. \[A12\] and \[A13\] are exact, with no assumption on the $l$-independence of either parameter. The universal behavior corresponds to when the $l$-dependence can be ignored ($\beta_n \gg r_0$).

The $x_l(\epsilon)$ parameter defined by Eq. \[A11\] has also other applications. For example, for $\mu^c(0, l) \gg lb$, $x_l(0) \gg 0$ is a convenient expansion parameter for describing bound states of angular momenta $l = i + (n-2)j$ that are close to the threshold. $x_l(\epsilon)$ is also closely related to the $K^c_l(\epsilon)$ matrix used in \[26\], simply by $K^c_l(\epsilon) = -x_l(\epsilon)$. With this relation, all the results of \[26\] can be rewritten in terms of either $K^c$ or $\mu^c$. Making use of the $l$-independence of either parameter in these results leads, for example, to the relation between $p$ and $s$ wave scattering lengths. This has been left as an exercise, with the answer to be provided elsewhere.

Reference \[26\] offers an important lesson on the importance of picking reference functions. The $f^s$ and $g^0$ functions in \[26, 34\] which define $K^0$, differ from $f^c$ and $g^c$ only by trivial linear transformation. But because the resulting $K^0_l(\epsilon) = -\tan[\pi \mu^c(\epsilon, l) - \pi lb]$ did depend on $l$, relationships between scattering and bound spectra of different angular momenta were not recognized until
The analytic results for $N_{l\text{In}}(l)$, Eq. (24), and $K_{l\text{In}}(0,l)$ given in [21] [and therefore $\mu_{l\text{In}}(0,l)$, and of course $\alpha_0$] are derived from the zero-energy solution of the radial Schrödinger equation, Eq. (A1), for the class of potentials defined by Eq. (19). Instead of giving all the boring math details, we prefer to simply note its relationship to the harmonic oscillator solution, as they have the same underlying mathematical structure.

Upon a transformation $x = (r/\beta_n)^{\alpha}$ and $u_l(r) = x^{-(\alpha-1)/(2\alpha)}v_l(x)$ with $\alpha = -(n-2)/2$, the corresponding equation at zero energy becomes

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2 d^2}{2\mu dx^2} + \frac{\hbar^2 \gamma (\gamma + 1)}{2\mu x^2} + \frac{1}{2} \mu \omega^2 x^2 - E_c\right] v_l(x) = 0,$$

with $\gamma + 1/2 = [2/(n-2)](l+1/2)$. Thus for the class of potentials given by Eq. (19), the solution of the radial Schrödinger equation at zero energy is equivalent to the solution of a 3-D isotropic harmonic oscillator with an effective angular momentum $\gamma$, an effective frequency determined by $\hbar \omega = (\hbar^2/2\mu)(2/\alpha)(\beta_{2n-2}/\beta_n)^{n-2}(1/\beta_n)^2$, at an effective energy (not zero) $E_c = (\hbar^2/2\mu)(1/\alpha^2)(1/\beta_n)^2$. From this correspondence, both results are easily deduced. For example, the number of bound states is simply the number of harmonic oscillator states below, and including $E_c$.

**APPENDIX B: DERIVATION OF THE RESULTS FOR LJ(N,2N-2) POTENTIALS**

The analytic results for $N_{l\text{In}}(l)$, Eq. (24), and $K_{l\text{In}}(0,l)$ given in [21] [and therefore $\mu_{l\text{In}}(0,l)$, and of course $\alpha_0$] are derived from the zero-energy solution of the radial Schrödinger equation, Eq. (A1), for the class of potentials defined by Eq. (19). Instead of giving all the boring math details, we prefer to simply note its relationship to the harmonic oscillator solution, as they have the same underlying mathematical structure.
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