

## Relation between the bound state radius and the scattering length: Relativistic effects

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(Received 8 February 1991)

Relativistic effects on the relation between the root-mean-square radius  $r_D$  of the bound state and the scattering length  $a$  are examined for models which simulate the triplet  $S$  state of the two-nucleon system. Two models are considered; one is based on the one-body Dirac equation and the other on the two-body Dirac equation. The relation is expressed as  $(r_D/a)^2 = (c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \dots)/8$ , where  $x \equiv ar_0$ ;  $a$  is related to the binding energy and  $r_0$  is the effective range. This expansion is compared with the corresponding expansion of the nonrelativistic Schrödinger case. The first three terms are shape independent. The  $c_0$  ( $=1$ ) and  $c_1$  ( $=0$ ) are the same as those of the nonrelativistic case but a relativistic correction appears in  $c_2$ .

### I. INTRODUCTION

Recently several papers have appeared examining the relation between the root-mean-square (rms) radius of the deuteron  $r_D$  and the scattering length  $a$  (commonly denoted by  $a_t$ ) of the triplet  $S$  state of the two-nucleon system [1–7]. The interest in this problem was inspired by the remark by Klarsfeld *et al.* [1] that the values of  $r_D$  and  $a$ , calculated on the basis of a number of realistic nucleon-nucleon potentials, exhibit a linear relation; when  $a$  is plotted against  $r_D$  one obtains a straight line. It is interesting that the experimental  $(r_D, a)$  point lies distinctly off the calculated line. The discrepancy, although only about 1%, is believed to be significant.

When the relativistic interaction consists of a strongly attractive Lorentz scalar and a strongly repulsive (zeroth component of) Lorentz vector, there could be significant relativistic effects even at low energies [8,9]. This observation motivated the analysis of relativistic effects on the  $r_D/a$  ratio [2]. Within limited one-dimensional model calculations, however, relativistic effects were found to be too small to remedy the discrepancy. Incidentally it was then conjectured that the discrepancy is a signature of nonlocality of the nucleon-nucleon interaction. Later analyses support this conjecture [3,4,6].

Through nonrelativistic (NR) model calculations Bhaduri *et al.* [4] found that, when  $r_D/a$  is expressed in the form of the expansion,

$$(r_D/a)^2 = (c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \dots)/8, \quad (1.1)$$

where  $x = r_0/a$  and  $r_0$  is the effective range, the first three coefficients are shape independent:

$$c_0 = 1, \quad c_1 = 0, \quad c_2 = \frac{1}{4}. \quad (1.2)$$

The dependence on the shape of the potential begins to appear through  $c_3$ . Since  $x \simeq 0.36$ , Eq. (1.1) together with Eq. (1.2) explains why  $r_D/a$  is almost shape independent. The expansion has been further elucidated by

Sprung *et al.* [5] and by Kermodé *et al.* [6].

The purpose of this paper is to obtain relativistic versions of the expansion (1.1). Unlike Ref. [2] we consider three-dimensional models in this paper. However, we will point out an interesting difference between one and three dimensions. We consider two models, I and II. In model I we use the one-body Dirac equation with an external central potential. Model II is based on the two-body Dirac equation with an instantaneous interaction. Unlike in NR quantum mechanics, relativistic two-body problem cannot simply be reduced to a one-body problem; hence the one-body Dirac equation of model I can only simulate the two-nucleon system. The two-body Dirac equation of model II does describe the two-body system but the equation is not exactly covariant. Nevertheless, we hope to be able to get a feel for relativistic effects through these models.

### II. THE rms RADIUS VERSUS SCATTERING LENGTH: NONRELATIVISTIC CASE

Before discussing the relativistic models, let us review the relation between  $r_D$  and  $a$  in the NR case. We consider an  $S$  state which contains only one bound state (which simulates the deuteron). The  $S$  matrix has a pole at  $k = i\alpha$ , which corresponds to the bound state. The binding energy is  $\alpha^2/2\mu$ , where  $\mu = m/2$  is the reduced mass;  $m$  is the nucleon mass. The effective range expansion for the scattering phase shift  $\delta$  can be done in two ways:

$$k \cot \delta = -\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{2}r_0k^2 - Pr_0^3k^4 + \dots \quad (2.1)$$

$$= -\alpha + \frac{1}{2}r_d(k^2 + \alpha^2) - \dots \quad (2.2)$$

The parameters in the two expansions are related by

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{2}\alpha^2r_0 + P\alpha^4r_0^3 + \dots, \quad (2.3)$$

$$r_d = r_0 + 4P\alpha^2r_0^3 + \dots \quad (2.4)$$

Following Ref. [6], we put the rms radius of the bound state into the form

$$\left(\frac{r_D}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{\int_0^\infty \rho(\alpha, r)(r/2)^2 dr}{a^2 \int_0^\infty \rho(\alpha, r) dr} = \frac{1 - 4\alpha^3 I_2(\alpha)}{8(\alpha a)^2 [1 - 2\alpha I_0(\alpha)]}, \quad (2.5)$$

where

$$I_0(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty [e^{-2\alpha r} - \rho(\alpha, r)] dr, \quad (2.6)$$

$$I_2(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty [e^{-2\alpha r} - \rho(\alpha, r)] r^2 dr. \quad (2.7)$$

The  $\rho(\alpha, r)$  is related to the bound state wave function  $u(\alpha, r)/r$  by

$$\rho(\alpha, r) = u^2(\alpha, r), \quad (2.8)$$

where  $u(\alpha, r)$  is such that  $u(\alpha, r) \rightarrow e^{-\alpha r}$  as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , and  $\int_0^\infty \rho(\alpha, r) dr = 1$ .

Kermode *et al.* [6] derived the expansion

$$\left(\frac{r_D}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{8} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{4}(\alpha r_0)^2 + c_3(\alpha r_0)^3 + \dots \right], \quad (2.9)$$

where

$$c_3 = (1 - 2J + 8P)/4, \quad (2.10)$$

$$J = I_2(0)/I_0(0)^3. \quad (2.11)$$

Obviously  $c_3$  is shape dependent. Actually, Kermode *et al.* [6] gave an expression for  $r_D/a$  rather than for  $(r_D/a)^2$ ; moreover, their expansion is with respect to  $\alpha r_0/2$ . Their  $a_3$  is related to our  $c_3$  by  $a_3 = 4c_3$ . Note that Eq. (2.9) is an expansion in terms of  $\alpha r_0$  rather than  $r_0/a$  which Bhaduri *et al.* [4] adopted; the  $c_3$ 's of Eqs. (1.1) and (2.9) are slightly different, but their relation can easily be obtained by using Eq. (2.4).

In arriving at Eq. (2.9) there were two important steps, namely,

$$I_0(\alpha) = r_d/2, \quad (2.12)$$

and that  $I_2(\alpha)$  is finite when  $\alpha \rightarrow 0$  as implied by Eq. (2.10). Equation (2.12) arises in the derivation of expansion (2.2). For the behavior of  $I_2(\alpha)$  when  $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ , we know of no example of the bound  $S$  state such that  $I_2(\alpha)$  diverges. We point out in Sec. III that relativistic corrections appear in these two steps, resulting in a correction of order  $\alpha^2$  in Eq. (2.9).

### III. ONE-BODY DIRAC EQUATION

We consider the Dirac equation (in natural units  $c = \hbar = 1$ )

$$[\alpha \cdot \mathbf{p} + \beta(\mu + S) + V]\psi = E\psi, \quad (3.1)$$

where  $S$  and  $V$  are a Lorentz scalar and the zeroth component of a Lorentz vector, respectively. The  $S$  and  $V$  are both central potentials, and can be local or nonlocal. For the mass we take  $\mu = m/2$  so that the NR reduction of Eq. (3.1) becomes the two-body Schrödinger equation. The angular part of Eq. (3.1) can be separated, and the  $\psi$  is reduced to a two-component form [10]. We denote the radial part of  $\psi$  by  $g(r)/r$  and  $f(r)/r$ , which are the upper and lower components, respectively.

Let us examine the effective range expression for scattering. We introduce auxiliary functions  $\mathcal{g}(r)$  and  $\mathcal{f}(r)$  which are defined by

$$\mathcal{g}(r) = \frac{\sin(kr + \delta)}{\sin \delta}, \quad \mathcal{f}(r) = \frac{k \cos(kr + \delta)}{(\mu + E)\sin \delta}, \quad (3.2)$$

where  $E = (\mu^2 + k^2)^{1/2}$ . The  $\mathcal{g}/r$  and  $\mathcal{f}/r$  satisfy the Dirac equation in the absence of the interaction and the centrifugal terms. When  $k \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\mathcal{g}$  and  $\mathcal{f}$ , respectively, become

$$\mathcal{g}_0(r) = 1 - r/a, \quad \mathcal{f}_0(r) = -1/2\mu a. \quad (3.3)$$

We also choose the phase and normalization of  $g(r)$  and  $f(r)$  such that, when  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , they approach  $\mathcal{g}(r)$  and  $\mathcal{f}(r)$ , respectively. Using a trick similar to that of the nonrelativistic case [11] we obtain

$$k \cot \delta = (\mu + E) \left[ -\frac{1}{2\mu a} + (E - \mu) \int_0^\infty (\mathcal{g}\mathcal{g}_0 + \mathcal{f}\mathcal{f}_0 - \mathcal{g}\mathcal{g}_0 - \mathcal{f}\mathcal{f}_0) dr \right], \quad (3.4)$$

where  $\mathcal{g}_0$  and  $\mathcal{f}_0$  are for  $k=0$ . This leads to the expansion around  $k=0$ . However, note that, for  $r$  greater than the interaction range,  $\mathcal{g} = \mathcal{g}_0$  but  $\mathcal{f} = \mathcal{f}_0 + O(1/r)$ . Hence the integral in Eq. (3.4) gets a contribution from beyond the interaction range.

Next let us consider the expansion around  $k = i\alpha$ . To this end we introduce  $\mathcal{g}_\alpha(r)$  and  $\mathcal{f}_\alpha(r)$ , defined by

$$\mathcal{g}_\alpha(r) = e^{-\alpha r}, \quad \mathcal{f}_\alpha(r) = \frac{-\alpha}{\mu + E_\alpha} e^{-\alpha r}, \quad (3.5)$$

and obtain

$$k \cot \delta = (\mu + E) \left[ -\frac{\alpha}{\mu + E_\alpha} + (E - E_\alpha) \int_0^\infty (\mathcal{g}\mathcal{g}_\alpha + \mathcal{f}\mathcal{f}_\alpha - \mathcal{g}\mathcal{g}_\alpha - \mathcal{f}\mathcal{f}_\alpha) dr \right], \quad (3.6)$$

where  $g_\alpha(r)$  and  $f_\alpha(r)$  form the exact wave function for the bound state. When  $k \simeq i\alpha$ , the integral on the right-hand side of Eq. (3.6) can be approximated by

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^\infty (g_\alpha^2 + f_\alpha^2 - g_\alpha^2 - f_\alpha^2) dr \\ &= \int_0^\infty \left[ \frac{2\mu}{\mu + E_\alpha} e^{-2\alpha r} - (g_\alpha^2 + f_\alpha^2) \right] dr \\ &= \frac{2\mu}{\mu + E_\alpha} I_0(\alpha), \end{aligned} \quad (3.7)$$

where  $I_0(\alpha)$  is defined by Eq. (2.6), together with

$$\rho(\alpha, r) = \frac{\mu + E_\alpha}{2\mu} (g_\alpha^2 + f_\alpha^2). \quad (3.8)$$

This  $\rho(\alpha, r)$  replaces  $u^2(\alpha, r)$  of the NR case. Note that  $\rho(\alpha, r) \rightarrow e^{-2\alpha r}$  as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ ; see Eq. (3.12). Putting Eq. (3.7) in Eq. (3.6), expanding around  $k^2 = -\alpha^2$ , and comparing the result with Eq. (2.2), we obtain

$$r_d = -\frac{\alpha}{E_\alpha(\mu + E_\alpha)} + \frac{2\mu}{E_\alpha} I_0(\alpha), \quad (3.9)$$

which leads to

$$I_0(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} r_d + \frac{\alpha}{4\mu^2} - \frac{\alpha^2}{4\mu^2} r_d + O(\alpha^3). \quad (3.10)$$

Next let us examine  $I_2(\alpha)$  which is defined by Eq. (2.7) together with the  $\rho(\alpha, r)$  of Eq. (3.8). This requires a closer look at the asymptotic form of  $g_\alpha$  and  $f_\alpha$ . Beyond the range of the interaction they are given by

$$g_\alpha \simeq e^{-\alpha r}, \quad f_\alpha \simeq -\frac{\alpha}{\mu + E_\alpha} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{\alpha r} \right] e^{-\alpha r}, \quad (3.11)$$

and hence

$$e^{-2\alpha r} - \rho(\alpha, r) \simeq -\frac{\alpha^2}{2\mu(\mu + E_\alpha)} \left[ \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{\alpha r} \right]^2 - 1 \right] e^{-2\alpha r}. \quad (3.12)$$

For  $R$  greater than the interaction range we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_R^\infty [e^{-2\alpha r} - \rho(\alpha, r)] r^2 dr \\ & \simeq -\frac{1}{2\mu\alpha(\mu + E_\alpha)} (1 + \alpha R) e^{-2\alpha R}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.13)$$

which diverges as  $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ . Consequently,  $I_2(\alpha)$  behaves like  $-1/(4\mu^2\alpha)$  as  $\alpha \rightarrow 0$  [12]. We therefore define  $J$  by

$$I_2(\alpha) \equiv -\frac{1}{4\mu^2\alpha} + \frac{1}{8} r_d^3 J + O(\alpha). \quad (3.14)$$

Taking account of the relativistic corrections of Eqs. (3.10) and (3.14) we obtain the Dirac version of Eq. (2.8),

$$\left[ \frac{r_D}{a} \right]^2 = \frac{1}{8} \left[ 1 + \frac{3\alpha^2}{2\mu^2} + \frac{1}{4} (\alpha r_0)^2 + c_3 (\alpha r_0)^3 + \dots \right], \quad (3.15)$$

$$c_3 = (1 - 2J + 8P)/4. \quad (3.16)$$

The  $c_3$  is shape dependent. The term  $3\alpha^2/2\mu^2$  in Eq. (3.15) is a relativistic correction. For the deuteron,  $(\alpha r_0)^2/4 \simeq 0.041$  and  $3\alpha^2/(2\mu^2) \simeq 0.014$ . This relativistic correction on  $r_D$  is only 0.7%, but the discrepancy regarding  $r_D/a$  that we are concerned with is about 1%.

If one considers a fictitious one-dimensional model with the one-dimensional Dirac equation, the correction due to Eq. (3.14) does not appear; this is because the  $1/\alpha r$  term does not appear in the one-dimensional counterpart of  $f_\alpha$ . Then the  $J$  is defined by Eq. (2.11). The one-dimensional version of Eq. (3.15) is obtained by replacing  $3\alpha^2/2\mu^2$  in Eq. (3.15) with  $\alpha^2/(2\mu^2)$ .

#### IV. TWO-BODY DIRAC EQUATION

By the "two-body Dirac equation" we mean

$$[(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2) \cdot \mathbf{p} + (\beta_1 + \beta_2)m + U]\psi = E\psi, \quad (4.1)$$

where subscripts 1 and 2 refer to the two nucleons [13, 14]. We have taken the center-of-mass system;  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_1 - \mathbf{p}_2$  is the relative momentum. The potential  $U$  can be any linear combination of Lorentz scalar, vector, etc., but we need not specify it until we consider an explicit example later.

There are various configurations of the two-nucleon system, but let us consider the simplest one which corresponds to the  $^1S$  state. Of course the deuteron is the  $^3S$  state, but Eq. (4.1) is very complicated for the  $^3S$  state. To use the  $^1S$  state to simulate the  $^3S$  state is like dropping the tensor force in the NR case. This is admittedly crude; nevertheless, let us try. We assume that the potential is such that there is a bound state (in the  $^1S$  state) which simulates the deuteron.

According to Moseley and Rosen [14], the relevant components of the wave function for the  $^1S$  state are those of the form

$$I = f_1(r), \quad A_4 = f_2(r), \quad i\mathbf{F} = f_3(r)\mathbf{r}/r. \quad (4.2)$$

There is a departure from Moseley and Rosen's notation; our  $i\mathbf{F}$  corresponds to their  $\mathbf{F}$ , i.e., our  $f_3$  is equal to their  $if_3$ . In this way all the  $f_i$ 's can be taken as real functions. Equation (4.1) becomes

$$(E - U_1)f_1 + 2 \left[ r \frac{d}{dr} + 3 \right] \frac{f_3}{r} + 2mf_2 = 0, \quad (4.3)$$

$$(E - U_2)f_2 + 2mf_1 = 0, \quad (4.4)$$

$$(E - U_3)f_3 - 2 \frac{df_1}{dr} = 0, \quad (4.5)$$

where  $U_1$ , etc., are certain linear combinations of the Lorentz scalar part, vector part, etc., of  $U$ .

On the basis of Eqs. (4.3)–(4.5) we can derive effective range formulas similar to those for the one-body Dirac equation. Let us define  $f_i(r)$ 's by

$$r f_1 = -\frac{2m}{E} r f_2 = \frac{\sin(kr + \delta)}{\sin \delta}, \quad (4.6)$$

$$r f_3 = \frac{2k \cos(kr + \delta)}{E \sin \delta},$$

where  $E = 2(m^2 + k^2)^{1/2}$ . When  $k \rightarrow 0$ , the  $f_i$ 's become

$$rf_{10} = -rf_{20} = 1 - \frac{r}{a}, \quad rf_{30} = -\frac{1}{ma}. \quad (4.7)$$

We choose the phase and normalization of the  $f_i$ 's such that they have the same asymptotic form as the  $f_i$ 's. The effective range expansion around  $k=0$  can be obtained from

$$k \cot \delta = E \left[ -\frac{1}{2ma} + \frac{1}{4}(E - 2m) \sum_i \int_0^\infty (f_i f_{i0} - f_i f_{i0}) r^2 dr \right], \quad (4.8)$$

where the  $f_{i0}$ 's are for  $k=0$ , and the  $\sum_i$  is for  $i=1, 2$ , and 3.

For the expansion around  $k=i\alpha$  we introduce

$$rf_{1\alpha} = -\frac{2m}{E_\alpha} rf_{2\alpha} = e^{-\alpha r}, \quad rf_{3\alpha}(r) = \frac{-2\alpha}{E_\alpha} e^{-\alpha r}, \quad (4.9)$$

where  $E_\alpha = 2(m^2 - \alpha^2)^{1/2}$ , and arrive at

$$k \cot \delta = E \left[ -\frac{\alpha}{E_\alpha} + \frac{1}{4}(E - E_\alpha) \sum_i \int_0^\infty (f_i f_{i\alpha} - f_i f_{i\alpha}) r^2 dr \right], \quad (4.10)$$

where the  $f_{i\alpha}$ 's are the  $f_i$ 's for the bound state.

We now define the two-body version of  $\rho(\alpha, r)$  by

$$\rho(\alpha, r) = (E_\alpha^2 / 8m^2) r^2 \sum_i f_{i\alpha}^2, \quad (4.11)$$

which behaves like  $e^{-2\alpha r}$  as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ . This  $\rho(\alpha, r)$  enters into  $I_0(\alpha)$  and  $I_2(\alpha)$ . The two-body counterpart of Eq. (3.10) reads

$$I_0(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} r_d + \frac{\alpha}{2m^2} - \frac{\alpha^2}{2m^2} r_d + O(\alpha^3). \quad (4.12)$$

For  $r$  greater than the interaction range,

$$rf_{1\alpha} \simeq -\frac{2m}{E_\alpha} rf_{2\alpha} \simeq e^{-\alpha r}, \quad (4.13)$$

$$rf_{3\alpha} \simeq -\frac{2\alpha}{E_\alpha} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{\alpha r} \right] e^{-\alpha r},$$

which leads to

$$I_2(\alpha) \equiv -\frac{1}{2m^2\alpha} + \frac{1}{8} r_d^3 J + O(\alpha). \quad (4.14)$$

Combining the above results we obtain

$$\left[ \frac{r_D}{a} \right]^2 = \frac{1}{8} \left[ 1 + \frac{3\alpha^2}{m^2} + \frac{1}{4} (\alpha r_0)^2 + c_3 (\alpha r_0)^3 + \dots \right], \quad (4.15)$$

$$c_3 = \frac{1}{4} (1 - 2J + 8P) - \frac{1}{2(mr_0)^2}. \quad (4.16)$$

The correction  $3\alpha^2/m^2$  in Eq. (4.15) is  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the corresponding term of Eq. (3.15). The relativistic correction in  $c_3(\alpha r_0)^3$  is  $-\alpha^3 r_0 / (2m^2) \simeq -5 \times 10^{-5}$ , which is negligible. For a fictitious one-dimensional model, the term  $3\alpha^2/m^2$  of Eq. (4.15) is replaced by  $\alpha^2/m^2$ .

## V. MODEL CALCULATIONS

Let us consider two models. The first one is the nonlocal separable potential model of Ref. [12]. This model uses the one-body Dirac equation. The relation between  $r_D$  and  $a$  of this model has been examined recently [7]. In order to see the relativistic effects, the results are compared with those of a phase-equivalent NR model. The NR model is constructed by means of the inverse scattering method. Also the NR model has a bound state of the same binding energy as that of the relativistic model.

When  $a$  is plotted against  $r_D$ , the  $(r_D, a)$  lines of the relativistic and NR models lie close to each other, but the relativistic one is slightly shifted to the right (such that  $r_D$  is larger for the same value of  $a$ ); see Fig. 1 of Ref. [7]. The increase in  $r_D$  (for the same value of  $a$ ) is (0.2–0.3)%. The term  $3\alpha^2/2\mu^2$  of Eq. (3.15) increases  $r_D$  by 0.7%. On the other hand, the  $J$  of the relativistic models is larger than the  $J$  of the phase-equivalent NR models. This tends to compensate for the  $3\alpha^2/2\mu^2$  term. In fact,  $I_2(\alpha)$  for the relativistic and NR models are nearly equal. This is because the density distribution  $\rho(r, \alpha)$  differs very little between the two models. We should add that, the phase shift in these models does not become negative at high energies; so it does not simulate the empirical phase shift very well. The NR separable potential has no short-range repulsion.

The second model is based on the two-body Dirac equation of Sec. IV. For the potential  $U$  we assume a combination of Lorentz scalar  $S(r)$ , vector  $V(r)$ , and pseudovector  $V_\pi(r)$ ;

$$U = \beta_1 \beta_2 S(r) + (1 - \alpha_1 \cdot \alpha_2) V(r) - \frac{1}{3} (\sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2 - \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2) V_\pi(r), \quad (5.1)$$

where  $r = |\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2|$  and  $\Gamma = -i\alpha_x \alpha_y \alpha_z (= \gamma^5)$  [14]. Then  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$ , and  $U_3$  of Eqs. (4.3)–(4.5) are given by

$$U_1 = S + 4V + \frac{4}{3} V_\pi, \quad (5.2)$$

$$U_2 = S - 2V + \frac{2}{3} V_\pi, \quad (5.3)$$

$$U_3 = -S. \quad (5.4)$$

For the radial dependence of the potential we assume [15]

$$S(r) = -g_s \exp[-(r/a_s)^2], \quad (5.5)$$

$$V(r) = g_v \exp[-(r/a_v)^2], \quad (5.6)$$

$$V_\pi(r) = -g^2 [\exp(-m_\pi r) - \exp(-\Lambda r)] / r. \quad (5.7)$$

The  $V_\pi$  with  $g^2 = 0.08$  and  $m_\pi = 138$  MeV is a cutoff one-pion-exchange potential. For the cutoff parameter  $\Lambda$  we

arbitrarily assume  $\Lambda = m/2$ .

We solve the two-body Dirac equation without any approximation. The parameters in  $S$  and  $V$  are fixed such that there is a bound state of the deuteron binding energy 2.225 MeV ( $\alpha = 0.04866m$ ), and that the  ${}^3S$  scattering phase shift is well fitted as shown in Fig. 1. The values of the parameters of  $S$  and  $V$ , i.e.,  $a_s$ ,  $a_v$ ,  $g_s$ ,  $g_v$ , together with the calculated values of  $a$ ,  $r_D$ ,  $r_0$ ,  $P$ ,  $J$ , and  $c_3$  are listed in Table I. The potential is similar to that of model R1 of Ref. [2] (which is the same as model A of Ref. [8]) in which  $a_s = 5/m$ ,  $a_v = 3/m$ ,  $g_s = 0.37m$ ,  $g_v = 0.46487$  [16]. The two-body Dirac equation can be rewritten into the form of a Schrödinger-like equation [15]. The effective potential  $W$  that appears in the Schrödinger-like equation of the present model is similar to the  $W$  of the one-dimensional model shown in Fig. 2 of Ref. [8]. The  $W$  is energy dependent. At low energies,  $W$  is almost entirely attractive, and is much softer than the nucleon-nucleon potential of the usual NR models.

In expansion (4.15), if we retain the terms up to  $c_3(\alpha r_0)^3$ , we find  $8(r_D/a)^2 = 1.0300$ , which can be compared with the exact calculated value of  $8(r_D/a)^2 = 1.0305$ . Hence the truncation error is 0.0005. Let us look into some details of the term in the square brackets of expansion (4.15). The relativistic terms of order  $\alpha^2$  is  $3\alpha^2/m^2 = 0.0071$ . The shape-dependent part of  $c_3(\alpha r_0)^3$  is  $-(J/2)(\alpha r_0)^3 = -0.0287$ , which is not much smaller than the shape-independent term of order  $\alpha^2$ , i.e.,  $(\alpha r_0)^2/4 = 0.0381$ .

In Ref. [2] a variety of one-dimensional models, relativistic as well as NR, were examined. It was found that relativistic corrections on  $r_D/a$  were altogether negligible. This was surprising in the following sense. In contrast to the usual NR models in which the potential has a strong short-range repulsion, the effective potential  $W$  of the Schrödinger-like equation of the relativistic models of Ref. [2] is very soft. It was thought that the absence of the strong repulsion at short distances would result in a smaller size of the bound state as compared with the NR models. What actually happens is this. The value of  $J$  is larger in relativistic models than in the NR models; this indeed results in a smaller radius of the bound state. For  $r_D/a$ , however, the relativistic correction  $\alpha^2/m^2$  (in one dimension) nearly compensates for the increase in  $J$ . As we noted earlier, the relativistic correction of order  $\alpha^2$  is  $3\alpha^2/m^2$  in three dimensions. This correction in three dimensions tends to overcompensate for the change in  $J$ , and shifts the  $(r_D, a)$  slightly to the right.

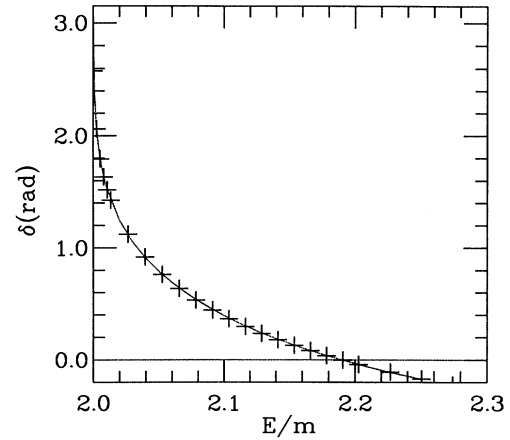


FIG. 1. The triplet  $S$  phase shift  $\delta$  in radians versus the center-of-mass energy (including the rest mass) in units of  $m = 939$  MeV. The experimental phase shift is indicated by the crosses. The line represents the calculated phase shift.

## VI. SUMMARY

We examined the ratio  $(r_D/a)^2$  for two relativistic models, I and II. Model I is based on the one-body Dirac equation and model II on the two-body Dirac equation. We obtained Eqs. (3.15) and (4.15) for models I and II, respectively. In both cases relativistic corrections begin to appear in order  $\alpha^2$ ;  $3\alpha^2/2\mu^2$  and  $3\alpha^2/m^2$  in the square brackets of Eqs. (3.15) and (4.15), respectively. Since  $\mu = m/2$ , this correction term for I is twice as large as that of II. We also pointed out that, if one uses one-dimensional models as those of Ref. [2], the correction terms of order  $\alpha^2$  are reduced by a factor of 3 in both models.

The expansions we obtained are relativistic generalizations of Eq. (1.1). These formulas explain why the ratio  $r_D/a$  is not very sensitive to the details of the potential. In Sec. V we examined an explicit model based on the three-dimensional two-body Dirac equation. We discussed the mechanism which underlies the negligible relativistic effects on  $r_D/a$  found in the one-dimensional models of Ref [2]. In the three-dimensional model, the relativistic effects on  $r_D/a$  are slightly larger. We should

TABLE I. The parameters of the potential  $a_s$ ,  $a_v$ ,  $g_s$ ,  $g_v$ , and various calculated quantities of the two-body model of Sec. V. The values of  $a_s$ ,  $a_v$ ,  $a$ ,  $r_D$ , and  $r_0$  are in units of the nucleon Compton wavelength  $1/m = 0.2101$  fm, and  $g_s$ ,  $g_v$ , and  $\alpha$  are in units of the nucleon mass  $m = 939$  MeV. The parameters  $P$ ,  $J$ , and  $c_3$  are dimensionless.

$a_s$	$a_v$	$g_s$	$g_v$	$10^2\alpha$	$a$
4.6	3.0	0.356 62	0.439 02	4.866	25.54
$r_D$	$r_0$	$10^3P$	$J$	$c_3$	
9.168	8.024	-7.600	0.9626	-0.2543	

add that the two-body calculation of Sec. V is only a simulation of the deuteron; we used the singlet state for simplicity. It would be interesting to do calculations for the triplet state.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada.

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