

A new non-perturbative approach in quantum mechanics for time-independent Schrödinger equations

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Received March 24, 2019; accepted May 14, 2019; published online January 2, 2020

A new non-perturbative approach is proposed to solve time-independent Schrödinger equations in quantum mechanics. It is based on the homotopy analysis method (HAM) that was developed by the author in 1992 for highly nonlinear equations and has been widely applied in many fields. Unlike perturbative methods, this HAM-based approach has nothing to do with small/large physical parameters. Besides, convergent series solution can be obtained even if the disturbance is far from the known status. A nonlinear harmonic oscillator is used as an example to illustrate the validity of this approach for disturbances that might be one thousand times larger than the possible superior limit of the perturbative approach. This HAM-based approach could provide us rigorous theoretical results in quantum mechanics, which can be directly compared with experimental data. Obviously, this is of great benefit not only for improving the accuracy of experimental measurements but also for validating physical theories.

non-perturbative series, homotopy analysis method, quantum mechanics

PACS number(s): 03.65.-w, 03.65.Ge, 02.30.Lt, 02.30.Mv

Citation: S. J. Liao, A new non-perturbative approach in quantum mechanics for time-independent Schrödinger equations, *Sci. China-Phys. Mech. Astron.* **63**, 234612 (2020), <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11433-019-9430-4>

1 Motivation

Perturbation methods [1, 2] are widely used in quantum mechanics [3-5], mainly because exact solutions can be gained in quite a few cases. However, it is widely known that the perturbation methods [1, 2] are valid only when a small physical parameter indeed exists, say, the disturbance (or departure) from the case with known exact solution must be tiny enough. This limitation greatly restricts the applications of perturbation methods. In practice, one often gives a first-order perturbation approximation and then checks whether or not it agrees with related experimental data, but without considering the convergence of the corresponding perturbative

series. Strictly speaking, this is more or less “phenomenological” rather than “ontological”, since it is not rigorous in mathematics. The reliable theoretical results in quantum mechanics are necessary for direct comparison with experimental data. Obviously, this is of great benefit not only for improving experimental measurements but also for validating physical theories.

To overcome the restrictions of perturbation methods, the author [6-13] developed the homotopy analysis method (HAM), an analytic approximation method for highly nonlinear equations. Unlike perturbation methods, the HAM is based on the homotopy in topology [14] and thus has nothing to do with any small physical parameters at all, and therefore can solve nonlinear equations without small/large physical parameters. More importantly, the HAM provides us a con-

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venient way to guarantee the convergence of solution series by means of introducing a so-called “convergence-control parameter”, which has no physical meanings so that we have freedom to choose a proper value for it to ensure convergence of solution series. Besides, the HAM provides us great freedom to choose initial guesses of unknowns, so that iteration can be introduced naturally. As a result, the HAM is valid for highly nonlinear equations. In addition, it has been proved that many traditional non-perturbative approaches, such as the Adomian decomposition method (ADM) [15, 16], the δ -expansion method [17, 18] and so on, are only special cases of the HAM. Furthermore, it has been proved that even the famous Euler transform is also a special case of the HAM [12]. In this way, nearly all restrictions of perturbation methods have been overcome by the HAM, as illustrated by its users in a wide range of fields with more than thousands related publications (for examples, please see refs. [19-27]). It should be emphasized that the HAM has been successfully applied to theoretically predict the existence of the so-called steady-state resonant gravity waves [28], which had been later experimentally confirmed [29]. The discovery of the steady-state resonant gravity waves [30] illustrates the novelty and potential of the HAM, since a truly new method should/must always bring us something new/different.

Especially, the HAM works well even for problems with rather high nonlinearity. For example, the convergent series solution of Von Kàrmàn plate under arbitrary uniform pressure (i.e., with arbitrary deformation) are obtained by means of the HAM [31, 32], and besides it has been proved that all previous perturbative approaches for Von Kàrmàn plate are special cases of the HAM. In addition, using the HAM, Zhong and Liao [33] successfully gained the convergent series solution of the limiting Stokes wave of extreme height in arbitrary water depth (including the extremely shallow water), which could not be found by perturbation methods and even not by numerical techniques. All of these illustrate the validity of the HAM for highly nonlinear problems.

Here, encouraged by all of these, we further apply the HAM to quantum mechanics. For the sake of simplicity, let us first consider the time-independent Schrödinger equation

$$H\psi_n(\mathbf{r}) = E_n\psi_n(\mathbf{r}), \quad (1)$$

where H is a Hamiltonian operator, $\psi_n(\mathbf{r})$ and E_n are the unknown eigenfunction and eigenvalue of H , \mathbf{r} denotes the spatial coordinate, respectively. Assume that each eigenvalue E_n corresponds to a unique eigenfunction $\psi_n(\mathbf{r})$ only. Besides, assume also that the unknown eigenfunction $\psi_n(\mathbf{r})$ can be expressed by a complete set of the known eigenfunctions $\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})$,

$m = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, N_s$, i.e.,

$$\psi_n(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{m=0}^{N_s} a_{n,m} \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}), \quad (2)$$

satisfying

$$H_0\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}) = E_m^b\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}), \quad (3)$$

where $\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})$ and E_m^b are the known eigenfunction and eigenvalue of the Hamiltonian operator H_0 , respectively, and N_s should be infinite in theory but often a finite positive integer in practice. Assume that each eigenvalue E_m^b corresponds to a unique eigenfunction $\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})$ only, and besides the known basis $\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})$ is orthonormal, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})\psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^* d\Omega &= (\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}), \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^*) = \delta_{mn} \\ &= \begin{cases} 1, & \text{when } m = n, \\ 0, & \text{when } m \neq n, \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where $\psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^*$ is a complex conjugate of $\psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})$.

In sect. 2 we briefly describe the basic ideas of the HAM-based approach for time-independent Schrödinger equations. In sect. 3 we illustrate that the convergent series can be gained by means of the HAM-based approach even in the case far from the known situation, i.e., with quite large disturbance. This is quite different from the perturbative approach in quantum mechanics. For the sake of comparison, its perturbative results are also given in sect. 3.1. The concluding remarks are given in sect. 4. For the sake of convenience, the perturbative approach is briefly described in the [Appendix](#).

2 The HAM-based approach

The HAM [6-13] is based on the homotopy in topology [14]. Let $q \in [0, 1]$ denote the embedding parameter, $c_0 \neq 0$ be the so-called “convergence-control parameter”, respectively. We construct a family of equations, namely the zeroth-order deformation equation:

$$\begin{aligned} (1-q)(H_0 - E_n^b)[\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q) - \psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})] \\ = c_0 q \{H\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q) - \mathcal{E}_n(q)\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q)\}, \quad q \in [0, 1], \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$ is the initial guess of $\psi_n(\mathbf{r})$, $\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q)$ and $\mathcal{E}_n(q)$ are the continuous mappings in $q \in [0, 1]$ for the unknown eigenfunction $\psi_n(\mathbf{r})$ and E_n , respectively. Note that we have great freedom to choose the convergence-control parameter c_0 , which has no physical meanings at all. Note that, according to eq. (5), both of $\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q)$ and $\mathcal{E}_n(q)$ are also dependent upon the convergence-control parameter c_0 in cases of $q \neq 0$ and $q \neq 1$. When $q = 0$, we have

$$(H_0 - E_n^b)[\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; 0) - \psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})] = 0, \quad (6)$$

which gives, since $(H_0 - E_n^b)$ is a linear operator, that

$$\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; 0) = \psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}). \tag{7}$$

When $q = 1$, since $c_0 \neq 0$, eq. (5) is equivalent to the original eq. (1), provided

$$\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; 1) = \psi_n(\mathbf{r}), \quad \mathcal{E}_n(1) = E_n. \tag{8}$$

Write $E_n^{(0)} = \mathcal{E}_n(0)$. Then, as q enlarges from 0 to 1, $\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q)$ varies (or deforms) continuously from the known initial guess $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$ to the unknown eigenfunction $\psi_n(\mathbf{r})$, while $\mathcal{E}_n(q)$ changes continuously from $E_n^{(0)}$ to the unknown eigenvalue E_n , respectively. This is the reason why eq. (5) is called the zeroth-order deformation equation. Note that such kind of deformation is dependent upon the convergence-control parameter c_0 .

Note that the zeroth-order deformation eq. (5) contains the so-called ‘‘convergence control parameter’’ c_0 , which has no physical meaning so that we have great freedom to choose its value. Thus, both of $\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q)$ and $\mathcal{E}_n(q)$ are dependent upon c_0 , too, except at the starting point $q = 0$ and the end-point $q = 1$. Assume that the convergence-control parameter c_0 is so properly chosen that the Maclaurin series

$$\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q) = \psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}) + \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} \psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}) q^k, \tag{9}$$

$$\mathcal{E}_n(q) = E_n^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} E_n^{(k)} q^k, \tag{10}$$

exist and besides are convergent at $q = 1$, where

$$\psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{k!} \left. \frac{\partial^k \Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q)}{\partial q^k} \right|_{q=0}, \quad E_n^{(k)} = \frac{1}{k!} \left. \frac{d^k \mathcal{E}_n(q)}{dq^k} \right|_{q=0}.$$

Then, according to eq. (8), we have the homotopy series solution

$$\psi_n(\mathbf{r}) = \psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}) + \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} \psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}), \tag{11}$$

$$E_n = E_n^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} E_n^{(k)}. \tag{12}$$

The M th-order approximation of $\psi_n(\mathbf{r})$ and E_n read

$$\hat{\psi}_n(\mathbf{r}) \approx \psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}) + \sum_{k=1}^M \psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}), \tag{13}$$

$$\hat{E}_n \approx E_n^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^M E_n^{(k)}. \tag{14}$$

The accuracy of the approximation is measured by the residual error square of the original Schrödinger equation, i.e.,

$$\tilde{\Delta}_M^{\text{RES}} = (H\hat{\psi}_n - \hat{E}_n\hat{\psi}_n, H\hat{\psi}_n^* - \hat{E}_n\hat{\psi}_n^*). \tag{15}$$

Substituting the Maclaurin series (9) and (10) into the zeroth-order deformation eq. (5) and equating the like-power of q , we have the first-order deformation equation

$$(H_0 - E_n^b) \psi_n^{(1)}(\mathbf{r}) = c_0 [H\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}) - E_n^{(0)}\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})] = c_0 R_{n,0}(\mathbf{r}) \tag{16}$$

and the high-order deformation equation

$$(H_0 - E_n^b) [\psi_n^{(m)}(\mathbf{r}) - \psi_n^{(m-1)}(\mathbf{r})] = c_0 R_{n,m-1}(\mathbf{r}), \quad m \geq 2, \tag{17}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} R_{n,k}(\mathbf{r}) &= \frac{1}{k!} \left. \frac{\partial^k \{H\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q) - \mathcal{E}_n(q)\Psi_n(\mathbf{r}; q)\}}{\partial q^k} \right|_{q=0} \\ &= H\psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}) - \sum_{j=0}^k E_n^{(j)} \psi_n^{(k-j)}(\mathbf{r}). \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

Writing

$$\psi_n^{(1)}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{m=0}^{N_s} a_{n,m}^{(1)} \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}) \tag{19}$$

and using eq. (3), the 1st-order deformation eq. (16) becomes

$$\sum_{m=0}^{N_s} a_{n,m}^{(1)} (E_m^b - E_n^b) \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}) = c_0 R_{n,0}(\mathbf{r}). \tag{20}$$

Multiplying $\psi_j^b(\mathbf{r})^*$ on both sides of the above equation and integrating in the whole domain, we have

$$\sum_{m=0}^{N_s} a_{n,m}^{(1)} (E_m^b - E_n^b) (\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}), \psi_j^b(\mathbf{r})^*) = c_0 (R_{n,0}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_j^b(\mathbf{r})^*). \tag{21}$$

Since $(\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}), \psi_j^b(\mathbf{r})^*) = \delta_{mj}$, we have

$$(E_m^b - E_n^b) a_{n,m}^{(1)} = c_0 \Delta_0^{n,m}, \tag{22}$$

where

$$\Delta_0^{n,m} = (R_{n,0}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})^*) = \int [R_{n,0}(\mathbf{r}) \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})^*] d\Omega. \tag{23}$$

So, in case of $m \neq n$, we have

$$a_{n,m}^{(1)} = c_0 \left(\frac{\Delta_0^{n,m}}{E_m^b - E_n^b} \right), \quad m \neq n. \tag{24}$$

However, in case of $m = n$, for arbitrary finite value of $a_{n,n}^{(1)}$, we always have

$$\Delta_0^{n,n} = a_{n,n}^{(1)} (E_n^b - E_n^b) = 0, \tag{25}$$

say,

$$(H\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^*) - E_n^{(0)} (\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^*) = 0, \quad (26)$$

which gives

$$E_n^{(0)} = \frac{(H\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^*)}{(\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^*)}. \quad (27)$$

Thus, we have the solution

$$\psi_n^{(1)}(\mathbf{r}) = a_{n,n}^{(1)} \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r}) + c_0 \sum_{m=0, m \neq n}^{N_s} \left(\frac{\Delta_0^{n,m}}{E_m^b - E_n^b} \right) \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}), \quad (28)$$

where the coefficient $a_{n,n}^{(1)}$ is unknown.

Similarly, writing

$$\psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}) - \psi_n^{(k-1)}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{m=0}^{N_s} a_{n,m}^{(k)} \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}), \quad k \geq 2,$$

and using eq. (3), we have

$$a_{n,m}^{(k)} = c_0 \left(\frac{\Delta_{k-1}^{n,m}}{E_m^b - E_n^b} \right), \quad m \neq n, \quad (29)$$

where

$$\Delta_j^{n,m} = (R_{n,j}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})^*) = \int [R_{n,j}(\mathbf{r}) \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})^*] d\Omega \quad (30)$$

is the projection of $R_{n,j}(\mathbf{r})$ on $\psi_m^b(\mathbf{r})$, so that

$$\psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}) = \psi_n^{(k-1)}(\mathbf{r}) + a_{n,n}^{(k)} \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r}) + c_0 \sum_{m=0, m \neq n}^{N_s} \left(\frac{\Delta_{k-1}^{n,m}}{E_m^b - E_n^b} \right) \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}), \quad (31)$$

where the coefficient $a_{n,n}^{(k)}$ is unknown.

Similarly, $E_n^{(k)}$ is determined by the equation

$$\Delta_k^{n,n} = 0, \quad (32)$$

say,

$$\left(H\psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}) - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} E_n^{(j)} \psi_n^{(k-j)}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^* \right) - E_n^{(k)} (\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^*) = 0, \quad (33)$$

which gives

$$E_n^{(k)} = \frac{(F_{n,k}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^*)}{(\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}), \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^*)}. \quad (34)$$

where

$$F_{n,k}(\mathbf{r}) = H\psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}) - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} E_n^{(j)} \psi_n^{(k-j)}(\mathbf{r}). \quad (35)$$

Note that the coefficient $a_{n,n}^{(1)}$ in eq. (28) and $a_{n,n}^{(k)}$ in eq. (31) are unknown. In the perturbation approach of quantum mechanics, they are assumed to be zero. However, seriously speaking, they can be arbitrary in mathematics. How to determine them?

Note that each value of $a_{n,n}^{(k)}$ corresponds to a residual error square (15) of the original Schrödinger equation. Obviously, the optimal value of $a_{n,n}^{(k)}$ should give the minimum of the residual error square at the k th-order approximation. Write

$$\hat{\psi}_n(\mathbf{r})' = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \psi_n^{(j)}(\mathbf{r}) + \tilde{\psi}_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}), \quad (36)$$

where

$$\tilde{\psi}_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}) = \chi_k \psi_n^{(k-1)}(\mathbf{r}) + c_0 \sum_{m=0, m \neq n}^{N_s} \left(\frac{\Delta_{k-1}^{n,m}}{E_m^b - E_n^b} \right) \psi_m^b(\mathbf{r}). \quad (37)$$

Then, the residual error square

$$\tilde{\Delta}_k^{\text{RES}} = \left((H - \hat{E}_n) (\hat{\psi}_n(\mathbf{r})' + a_{n,n}^{(k)} \psi_n^b), (H - \hat{E}_n) (\hat{\psi}_n(\mathbf{r})' + a_{n,n}^{(k)} \psi_n^b)^* \right) \quad (38)$$

has the minimum when

$$\frac{d\tilde{\Delta}_k^{\text{RES}}}{da_{n,n}^{(k)}} = 0,$$

say,

$$\left((H - \hat{E}_n) (\hat{\psi}_n(\mathbf{r})' + a_{n,n}^{(k)} \psi_n^b), (H - \hat{E}_n) (\psi_n^b)^* \right) = 0, \quad (39)$$

which gives the optimal value

$$a_{n,n}^{(k)} = - \frac{\left((H - \hat{E}_n) \hat{\psi}_n(\mathbf{r})', (H - \hat{E}_n) \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^* \right)}{\left((H - \hat{E}_n) \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r}), (H - \hat{E}_n) \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})^* \right)}. \quad (40)$$

First of all, we choose an initial guess $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$. Note that we have great freedom to choose it. For tiny disturbance, we can simply choose $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}) = \psi_n^b(\mathbf{r})$. Then, we gain $E_n^{(0)}$ by means of eq. (27) and further obtain $\psi_n^{(1)}$ by eqs. (28) and (40) for the 1st-order deformation equation. Thereafter, we gain $E_n^{(1)}$ by means of eq. (34) and further $\psi_n^{(2)}$ by eqs. (31) and (40) for the 2nd-order deformation equation, and so on.

Unlike perturbation methods, there exists the so-called “convergence-control parameter” c_0 in the frame of the HAM, which has no physical meanings so that we have great freedom to choose its value so as to guarantee the convergence of the solution series (11) and (12). As illustrated by Liao [8, 9], there always exists such a finite interval of c_0 , in which each value of c_0 can ensure that each solution series converges to the same result, although with different rates of convergence. Besides, the optimal value of the

convergence-control parameter c_0 corresponds to the minimum of the residual error square, as mentioned by Liao [12].

Unlike perturbation method, the HAM provides us great freedom to choose the initial guess $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$. Obviously, we can use a known M th-order approximation $\hat{\psi}_n$ as a better initial guess $\psi_n^{(0)}$. This gives us the M th-order iteration of HAM approach, which can greatly accelerate the convergence of solution series, as mentioned by Liao [8, 9] and illustrated below.

Note that the above approach is analytic in essence, since there are no spatial and temporal discretizations of any unknown functions. Besides, it is unnecessary to solve any nonlinear algebraic equations, which are unavoidable when numerical techniques are used to solve eigenvalue problems.

3 An illustrative example

To show the validity of the HAM-based approach mentioned above, let us consider a one-dimensional nonlinear harmonic oscillator

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{H}\tilde{\psi}_n(x) &= \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 x^2 + \beta \left(\frac{m^2\omega^3}{\hbar} \right) x^4 \right] \tilde{\psi}_n(x) \\ &= \tilde{E}_n \tilde{\psi}_n(x). \end{aligned} \tag{41}$$

Under the transformation

$$\xi = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{\hbar}} x, \quad \tilde{\psi}_n(x) = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\hbar} \right)^{1/4} \psi_n(\xi), \quad \tilde{E}_n = \hbar \omega E_n, \tag{42}$$

the dimensionless form of eq. (41) reads

$$H\psi_n(\xi) = \left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\xi^2} + \frac{1}{2}\xi^2 + \beta\xi^4 \right] \psi_n(\xi) = E_n \psi_n(\xi) \tag{43}$$

with an orthonormal basis

$$\psi_n^b(\xi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} \sqrt{2^n n!}} \tilde{H}_n(\xi) \exp\left(-\frac{\xi^2}{2}\right), \quad E_n^b = n + \frac{1}{2}, \tag{44}$$

satisfying

$$H_0\psi_n^b(\xi) = E_n^b \psi_n^b(\xi), \tag{45}$$

where E_n^b is the eigenfunction, $\tilde{H}_n(\xi)$ is the n th Hermite polynomial in ξ , the Hamiltonian operators H and H_0 are defined by

$$H = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\xi^2} + \frac{1}{2}\xi^2 + \beta\xi^4, \tag{46}$$

$$H_0 = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{d\xi^2} + \frac{1}{2}\xi^2, \tag{47}$$

respectively.

3.1 Perturbative results

The perturbative approach can be found in many textbooks of quantum mechanics. For the sake of convenience, its basic ideas are briefly described in Appendix. Here, we simply give the perturbative result of E_0 :

$$\begin{aligned} E_0 &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{4}\beta - \frac{21}{8}\beta^2 + \frac{333}{16}\beta^3 - \frac{30885}{128}\beta^4 + \frac{916731}{256}\beta^5 \\ &\quad - \frac{65518401}{1024}\beta^6 + \dots \end{aligned} \tag{48}$$

However, even for small values of β such as $\beta = 0.03$ and $\beta = 0.05$, the perturbative results are unfortunately divergent, as shown in Tables 1, 2 and Figure 1. At the 30th-order of approximation, the residual error squares of the perturbative series reach $2.9 \times 10^{+19}$ in case of $\beta = 0.03$ and $2.2 \times 10^{+41}$ in case of $\beta = 0.05$, respectively. As shown in Figure 1, although the 5th-order perturbative approximation of E_0 agrees well with the 10th-order approximation in $\beta \in [0, 0.05]$, the perturbation series of E_0 is actually divergent for $\beta \geq 0.02$. This is very clear from Figure 2: when $\beta > 0.02$, the residual error squares of the perturbative results increase as the order of approximation enlarges. Therefore, the traditional perturbative approach, which has been widely used in

Table 1 The m th-order perturbative approximation of E_0 for eq. (43) and the corresponding residual error square $\tilde{\Delta}_m^{\text{RES}}$ in case of $\beta = 0.03$ by means of $N_s = 40$

m th-order	E_0	Residual error square
1	0.5225	7.1×10^{-4}
3	0.520699	1.3×10^{-4}
5	0.520591	1.3×10^{-4}
10	0.520555	1.6×10^{-2}
15	0.520577	$1.6 \times 10^{+2}$
20	0.520389	$3.2 \times 10^{+7}$
25	0.526920	$2.6 \times 10^{+13}$
30	-0.104234	$2.9 \times 10^{+19}$

Table 2 The m th-order perturbative approximation of E_0 for eq. (43) and the corresponding residual error square $\tilde{\Delta}_m^{\text{RES}}$ in case of $\beta = 0.03$ by means of $N_s = 40$

m th-order	E_0	Residual error square
1	0.5375	5.5×10^{-3}
3	0.533539	7.8×10^{-3}
5	0.533150	6.2×10^{-2}
10	0.531198	$1.2 \times 10^{+3}$
15	0.572766	$2.0 \times 10^{+9}$
18	-0.119387	$5.0 \times 10^{+13}$
20	-4.95995	$6.9 \times 10^{+16}$
25	2549.9	$7.1 \times 10^{+26}$
30	-3.16×10^6	$2.2 \times 10^{+41}$

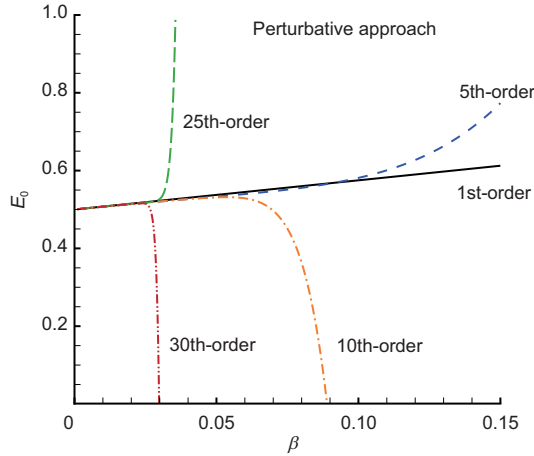


Figure 1 (Color online) The perturbative results of E_0 in eq. (43) versus β at the different order of approximation. Solid line: 1st-order; dashed line: 5th-order; dash-dotted line: 10th-order; long-dashed line: 25th-order; dash-dot-dotted line: 30th-order.

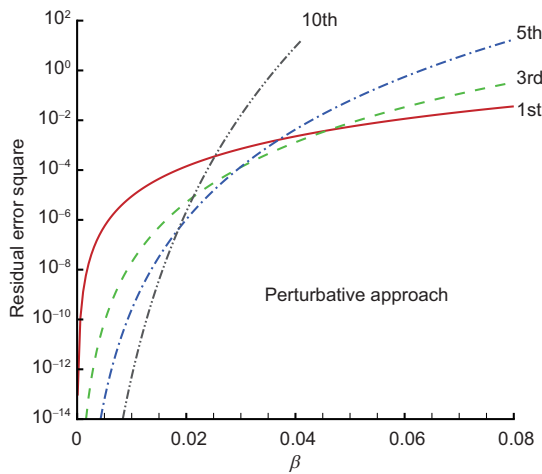


Figure 2 (Color online) The residual error squares of the perturbative results versus β at the different order of approximations. Solid line: 1st-order; dashed line: 3th-order; dash-dotted line: 5th-order; dash-dot-dotted line: 10th-order.

quantum mechanics, is valid only for a rather tiny disturbance indeed! This greatly restricts the application of perturbation methods.

3.2 Results given by the HAM-based approach

However, unlike perturbative approach, the HAM contains the so-called “convergence-control parameter” c_0 , which provides us a convenient way to guarantee the convergence of solution series, as shown below.

To validate the HAM-based approach mentioned above, let us first consider the case with a small disturbance, i.e., $\beta = 1/100$. We use the base $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$ as the initial guess of $\psi_0(\mathbf{r})$ and choose $N_s = 24$. Note that, unlike the traditional perturbation approach, the HAM approach contains the so-called

“convergence-control parameter” c_0 , so that all results including E_0 , $\psi_0(\mathbf{r})$ and the residual error square at different order of approximations are functions of c_0 . As shown in Figure 3, when $-1.5 < c_0 < -0.1$, the residual error squares continuously decrease as the order of approximation enlarges. Besides, the optimal value of c_0 corresponds to the minimum of the residual error square. This is indeed true: the convergent eigenfunction $\psi_0(\mathbf{r})$ and eigenvalue E_0 are gained by means of the HAM-based approach using $c_0 = -3/4$ and $N = 24, 30$ and 36 , respectively, as shown in Figure 4. Note that the “final” residual error square depends upon the truncation number N_s : the larger the truncation number N_s , the smaller the “final” residual error square. This is reasonable in mathematics, since larger truncation number N_s should give better approximation. By means of the HAM-based approach using $c_0 = -3/4$ and $N_s = 40$, we gain the convergent eigenvalue $E_0 = 0.50725620452460284095$ in accuracy of 20 digits, as shown in Table 3, which agrees well with its homotopy-Padé approximation (see refs. [8, 9]) in Table 4. This illustrates the validity of the HAM-based approach for the time-independent Schrödinger equation.

Note that the perturbative series are divergent in case of $\beta = 0.03$ and $\beta = 0.05$, as shown in Figures 1, 2 and Tables 1 and 2. Fortunately, the HAM-based approach contains the “convergence-control parameter” c_0 , which has no physical meaning so that we have great freedom to choose it. This provides us a convenient way to guarantee the convergence of solution series. The residual error squares of the analytic approximations (versus c_0) given by the HAM-based approach using the initial guess $\psi_0^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}) = \psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$ and $N_s = 40$ in case of $\beta = 0.03$ and $\beta = 0.05$ are as shown in

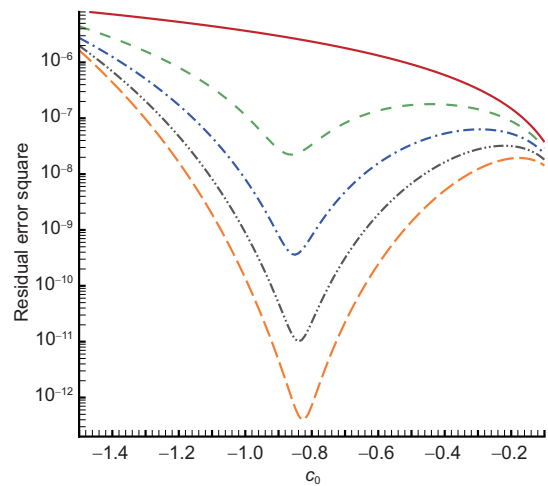


Figure 3 (Color online) Residual error square versus the convergence-control parameter c_0 in case of $\beta = 0.01$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$ and $N_s = 24$. Solid line: 1st-order; dashed line: 2nd-order; dash-dotted line: 3rd-order; dash-dot-dotted line: 4th-order; long-dashed line: 5th-order.

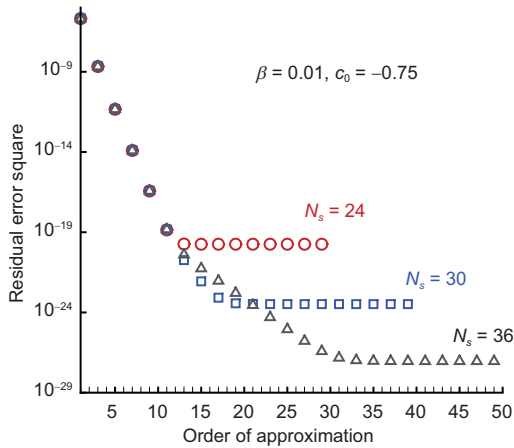


Figure 4 (Color online) Residual error square versus the order of approximation in case of $\beta = 0.01$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$ and $N_s = 24, 30$ and 36 , respectively. Circle: $N_s = 24$; square: $N_s = 30$; delta: $N_s = 36$.

Table 3 Approximations of E_0 and the residual error square $\bar{\Delta}_m^{\text{RES}}$ in case of $\beta = 1/100$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using $N_s = 40$, $c_0 = -3/4$ and the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$

m	E_0	Residual error square
1	0.5073031250	2.1×10^{-6}
2	0.5072656133	5.5×10^{-8}
3	0.5072581884	2.1×10^{-9}
4	0.5072566129	9.5×10^{-11}
8	0.5072562054	6.7×10^{-16}
12	0.50725620452	1.7×10^{-20}
16	0.5072562045246	3.8×10^{-22}
20	0.5072562045246028	3.6×10^{-23}
25	0.5072562045246028409	2.2×10^{-24}
30	0.50725620452460284095	1.3×10^{-25}
35	0.50725620452460284095	7.9×10^{-27}
40	0.50725620452460284095	4.9×10^{-28}

Table 4 The $[m, m]$ homotopy-Padé approximant of E_0 of eq. (43) in case of $\beta = 1/100$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using $N_s = 40$, $c_0 = -3/4$ and the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$

m	E_0
2	0.50725620742
4	0.507256204524
6	0.507256204524602
8	0.50725620452460284
10	0.50725620452460284095
12	0.50725620452460284095
14	0.50725620452460284095
16	0.50725620452460284095
18	0.50725620452460284095
20	0.50725620452460284095

Figures 5 and 6, respectively. Note that in each case there always exists a finite interval of c_0 , in which the residual error square decreases as the order of approximation enlarges. This is indeed true: the convergent results are obtained by means of the HAM in case of $n = 0$ and $\beta = 0.03$ or $\beta = 0.05$, using a proper “convergence-control parameter” $c_0 = -2/5$ or $c_0 = -1/4$, respectively, as shown in Tables 5-8. In case of $\beta = -0.03$, our 40th-order approximation $E_0 = 0.52056172$ agrees in accuracy of 8 digits with $E_0 = 0.52056171987300195300$ given by means of the

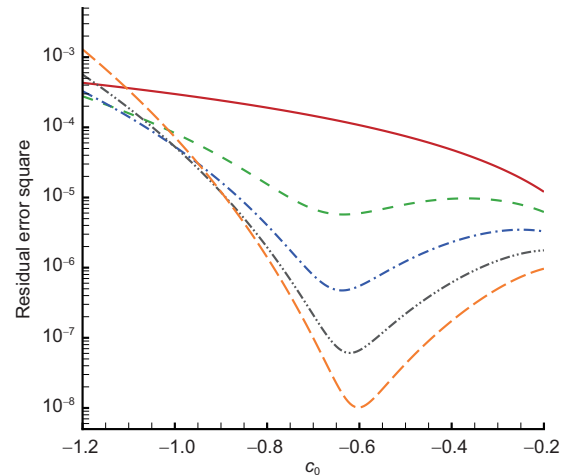


Figure 5 (Color online) Residual error square versus the convergence-control parameter c_0 in case of $\beta = 0.03$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$ and $N_s = 40$ at the different orders of approximation. Solid line: 1st-order; dashed line: 2nd-order; dash-dotted line: 3rd-order; dash-dot-dotted line: 4th-order; long-dashed line: 5th-order.

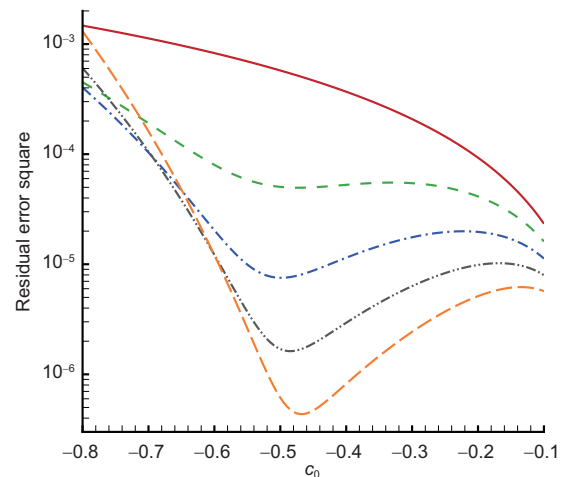


Figure 6 (Color online) Residual error square versus the convergence-control parameter c_0 in case of $\beta = 0.05$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$ and $N_s = 40$ at the different orders of approximation. Solid line: 1st-order; dashed line: 2nd-order; dash-dotted line: 3rd-order; dash-dot-dotted line: 4th-order; long-dashed line: 5th-order.

Table 5 Approximations of E_0 and the residual error square $\bar{\Delta}_m^{\text{RES}}$ in case of $\beta = 3/100$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using $N_s = 40$, $c_0 = -1/3$ and the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$

m	E_0	Residual error square
1	0.5217125	3.3×10^{-5}
3	0.52097595	3.0×10^{-6}
5	0.52071428	3.7×10^{-7}
10	0.52057524	3.1×10^{-9}
15	0.52056301	3.5×10^{-11}
20	0.52056185	4.3×10^{-13}
25	0.52056173	6.2×10^{-15}
30	0.52056172	8.9×10^{-17}
35	0.52056172	1.3×10^{-18}
40	0.52056172	2.0×10^{-20}

Table 6 The $[m, m]$ homotopy-Padé approximant of E_0 of eq. (43) in case of $\beta = 3/100$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM using $N_s = 40$, $c_0 = -1/3$ and the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$

m	E_0
2	0.520562
4	0.5205617
6	0.5205617198
8	0.520561719873
10	0.52056171987300
12	0.520561719873002
14	0.52056171987300195
16	0.52056171987300195300
18	0.52056171987300195300
20	0.52056171987300195300

Table 7 Approximations of E_0 and the residual error square $\bar{\Delta}_m^{\text{RES}}$ in case of $\beta = 1/20$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using $N_s = 40$, $c_0 = -1/4$ and the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$

m	E_0	Residual error square
1	0.53585938	1.4×10^{-4}
3	0.53408899	2.0×10^{-5}
5	0.53331047	3.7×10^{-6}
10	0.53274784	1.0×10^{-7}
15	0.53266070	3.7×10^{-9}
20	0.53264599	1.5×10^{-10}
25	0.53264336	6.9×10^{-12}
30	0.53264287	3.2×10^{-13}
35	0.53264278	1.6×10^{-14}
40	0.53264276	7.8×10^{-16}

homotopy-Padé technique [8, 9]. In case of $\beta = 0.05$, our 40th-order approximation $E_0 = 0.53264276$ agrees in accuracy of 8 digits with $E_0 = 0.53264275477185884443$ given by means of the homotopy-Padé technique [8, 9]. With the in-

crease of the approximation order, the residual error squares decrease exponentially, as shown in Figure 7, while the accuracy of the eigenvalue E_0 increases exponentially, as shown in Figure 8, respectively. So, unlike perturbation approach that is invalid for $\beta > 0.02$, the HAM-based approach works well for larger disturbances $\beta = 0.03$ and $\beta = 0.05$. These illustrate the validity of the HAM approach for the time-independent Schrödinger equations.

In addition, unlike perturbation method, we have great freedom to choose the initial guess $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$ in the frame of the HAM to gain a M th-order approximation (13). Then, one can further use the known M th-order approximation as a new initial guess $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$ to gain a better M th-order approximation, and so on. This provides us an iteration approach. For example, in case of $n = 0$ and $\beta = 0.03$ or $\beta = 0.05$, we can first use the base $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$ as an initial guess of the unknown

Table 8 The $[m, m]$ homotopy-Padé approximant of E_0 of eq. (43) in case of $\beta = 1/20$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using $N_s = 40$, $c_0 = -1/4$ and the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$

m	E_0
2	0.5326
4	0.532642
6	0.53264275
8	0.532642754
10	0.53264275477
12	0.532642754772
14	0.5326427547718
16	0.53264275477185884
18	0.53264275477185884443
20	0.53264275477185884443

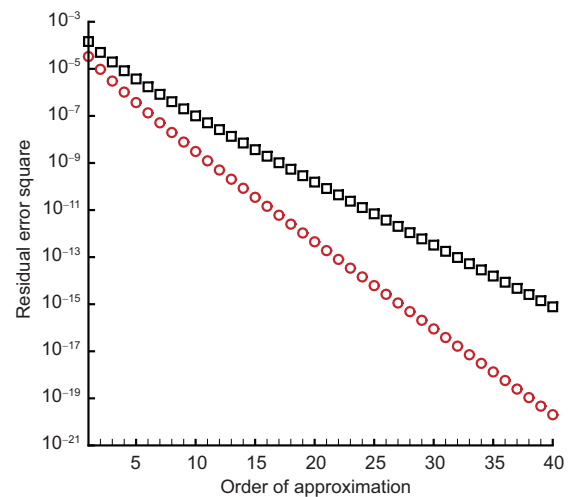


Figure 7 (Color online) Residual error square versus the order of approximation given by means of the HAM-based approach using the initial guess $\psi_0^b(\mathbf{r})$ and $N_s = 40$ in case of $\beta = 0.03$, $n = 0$, $c_0 = -1/3$ and $\beta = 0.05$, $n = 0$, $c_0 = -1/4$, respectively. Circle: $\beta = 0.03$; square: $\beta = 0.05$.

eigenfunction to gain a M th-order approximation (13) by means of the HAM-based approach with $N_s = 40$ and $c_0 = -1/3$ (when $\beta = 0.03$) or $c_0 = -1/4$ (when $\beta = 0.05$), and then use this M th-order approximation as a new initial guess $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$ to further gain a better M th-order approximation (13) by means of the HAM-based approach, where $M=1, 2, 3$. As shown in Figure 9, the corresponding residual error squares decrease quickly, and besides the higher the order M of approximation at each iteration, the faster the iteration converges. Note that, for the 2nd and 3rd-order iteration approach, the accuracy of approximate solution can not be heightened after some times of iteration, mainly due to the restriction of the truncation number N_s . Note that all of these

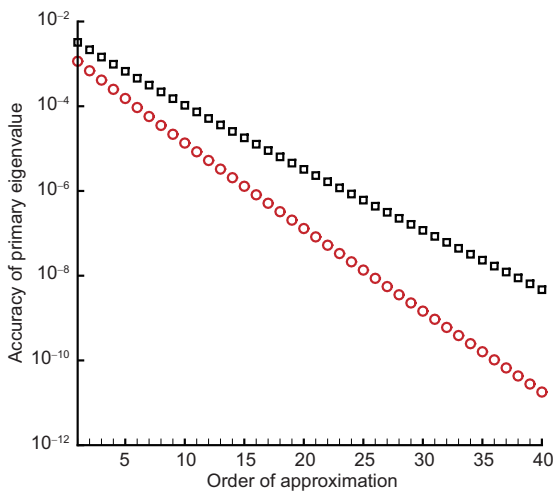


Figure 8 (Color online) The accuracy of the eigenvalue E_0 in case of $\beta = 0.03$ and $\beta = 0.05$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using the initial guess $\psi_0^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$, $N_s = 40$ and $c_0 = -1/3$ (when $\beta = 0.03$) or $c_0 = -1/4$ (when $\beta = 0.05$). Circles: $\beta = 0.03$; square: $\beta = 0.05$.

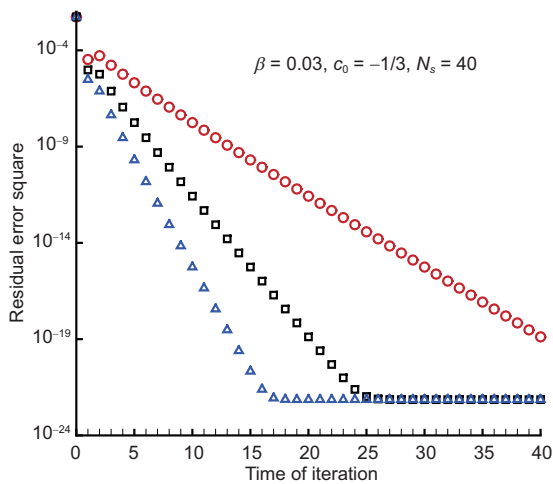


Figure 9 (Color online) Residual error square versus the times of iteration in case of $\beta = 0.03$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using $c_0 = -1/3$ and $N_s = 40$. Circle: 1st-order; square: 2nd-order; delta: 3rd-order.

results given by the iterative HAM-based approaches agree quite well with the previous non-iterative HAM approach. These illustrate the validity of the iterative HAM-based approach mentioned in this paper. Similarly, by means of the iterative approach using a proper “convergence-control parameter” c_0 with a large enough truncation number N_s , the convergent eigenfunction ψ_0 in case of $\beta = 0.05$ can be further used as an initial guess $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$ to gain a convergent eigenfunction $\psi_0(\mathbf{r})$ and a convergent eigenvalue E_0 in case of $\beta = 0.1$ (Figure 10), and so on.

In this way, we successfully obtain the convergent eigenvalue E_0 and eigenfunction $\psi_0(\mathbf{r})$ for different values of $\beta \in [0, 5]$, as listed in Table 9 and shown in Figures 11 and 12. In a similar way, we gained some convergent results of

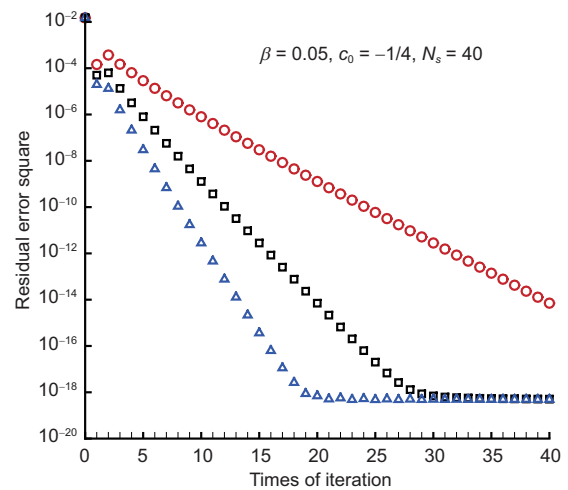


Figure 10 (Color online) Residual error square versus the times of iteration in case of $\beta = 0.05$ and $n = 0$, given by means of the HAM-based approach using $c_0 = -1/4$ and $N_s = 40$. Circle: 1st-order; square: 2nd-order; delta: 3rd-order.

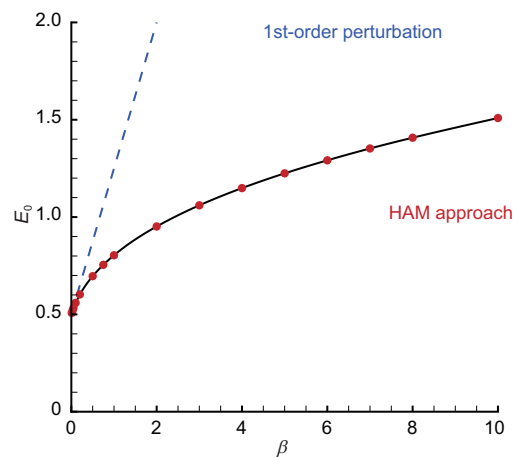


Figure 11 (Color online) The convergent results of the eigenvalue E_0 given by the HAM approach. Solid line: HAM approach; dashed line: 1st-order perturbative approach.

Table 9 Convergent results of the eigenvalue E_0 of eq. (43) versus β , given by means of the HAM-based approach

β	E_0	c_0	N_s
0.01	0.507256	-1	40
0.03	0.520562	-0.4	40
0.05	0.532643	-0.25	40
0.1	0.559146	-0.1	40
0.2	0.602405	-0.05	40
0.5	0.696176	-0.01	55
0.75	0.754708	-0.005	60
1	0.803771	-0.002	70
2	0.951569	-0.002	70
2.5	1.009176	-0.002	75
3	1.060271	-0.002	75
3.5	1.106451	-0.002	75
4	1.148792	-0.002	75
4.5	1.187957	-0.001	85
5	1.224595	-0.001	85
6	1.291491	-0.001	90
7	1.3520	-0.0001	115
8	1.4072	-0.0001	115
10	1.5054	-0.0001	120

Table 10 Convergent results of the eigenvalue E_1 of eq. (43) versus β , given by means of the HAM-based approach

β	E_1	c_0	N_s
0.5	2.324406	-0.01	40
1	2.737893	-0.005	60
1.5	3.043448	-0.005	65
2	3.292875	-0.001	80
2.5	3.506740	-0.001	85
3	3.695680	-0.001	90

Table 11 Convergent results of the eigenvalue E_5 of eq. (43) versus β , given by means of the HAM-based approach

β	E_5	c_0	N_s
0.1	7.899769	-0.1	40
0.2	9.196340	-0.05	50
0.3	10.166489	-0.02	55
0.4	10.960680	-0.01	70
0.5	11.648721	-0.01	80
0.55	11.960660	-0.005	85

Table 12 Convergent results of the eigenvalue E_{10} of eq. (43) versus β , given by means of the HAM-based approach

β	E_{10}	c_0	N_s
0.01	11.831401	-0.1	40
0.02	12.812700	-0.05	40
0.03	13.618898	-0.05	50
0.04	14.314838	-0.05	50
0.05	14.933266	-0.03	55

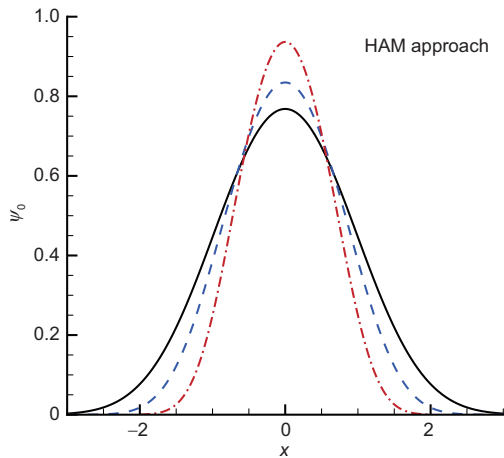


Figure 12 (Color online) The convergent results of the eigenfunction $\psi_0(\mathbf{r})$ given by the HAM approach. Solid line: $\beta = 0.05$; dashed line: $\beta = 0.5$; dash-dotted line: $\beta = 3$.

E_1, E_5 and E_{10} , as listed in Tables 10-12 and shown in Figure 13.

4 Concluding remarks

A new non-perturbative approach is proposed to solve time-independent Schrödinger equations in quantum mechanics. It is based on the homotopy analysis method (HAM) [6-13] developed by the author for highly nonlinear equations. Unlike perturbative methods, this HAM-based approach has nothing

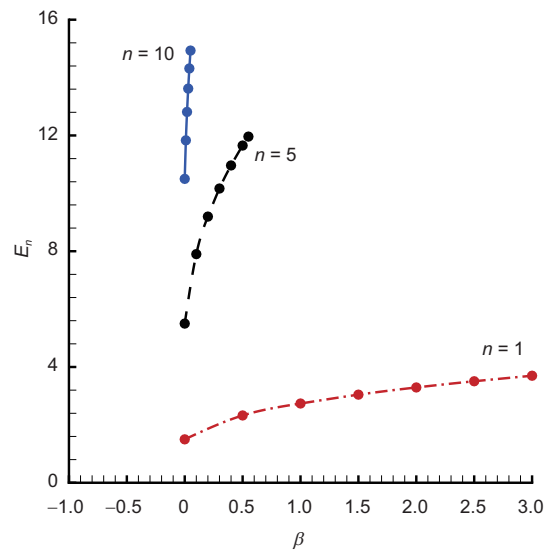


Figure 13 (Color online) The convergent results of the eigenvalue E_1, E_5 and E_{10} given by the HAM-based approach versus β . Solid line: $n = 10$; dashed line: $n = 5$; dash-dotted line: $n = 1$.

to do with small/large physical parameters. Besides, convergent series solution can be obtained even if the disturbance is far from the known status. A nonlinear harmonic oscillator is used as an example to illustrate the validity of this approach for disturbances that might be one thousand times larger than the possible superior limit of the perturbative approach. This HAM-based approach could provide us rigorous theoretical results in quantum mechanics, which can be directly compared with experimental data. Obviously, this is of great benefit not only for improving the accuracy of experimental measurements but also for validating physical theories.

Finally, it should be emphasized that the basic ideas of the HAM-based approach have general meanings and thus can be widely used to solve other kinds of equations in quantum mechanics, such as many-body problems and so on, so as to gain rigorous, reliable, convergent eigenvalues and eigenfunctions. It provides us an alternative to solve Schrödinger equations in quantum mechanics.

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant Nos. 11432009, and 91752104). The author thanks Dr. Theophanes E. Raptis in University of Athens, Laboratory of Physical Chemistry, Greece, for his suggestion on applying the HAM to quantum mechanics.

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Appendix Brief description of perturbation method

The perturbative approach in quantum mechanics can be found in many textbooks [3-5]. Consider the Schrödinger equation

$$H\psi_n(\mathbf{r}) = E_n\psi_n(\mathbf{r}). \quad (\text{a1})$$

Write

$$H = H_0 + H',$$

where H, H_0 are Hamiltonian operators, H' is a small “disturbance” from H_0 . Assume that ψ_n can be expressed by

$$\psi_n(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{k=1}^{N_s} c_k \psi_k^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}),$$

with

$$H_0\psi_k^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}) = E_k^{(0)}\psi_k^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}), \quad (\text{a2})$$

where $\psi_k^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$ and $E_k^{(0)}$ are the eigenfunction and eigenvalue of the Hamiltonian operator H_0 .

Let λ denote a small parameter and write

$$H = H_0 + \lambda H', \quad (\text{a3})$$

$$\psi_n(\mathbf{r}) = \psi_n^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} \psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}) \lambda^k, \quad (\text{a4})$$

$$E_n = E_n^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} E_n^{(k)} \lambda^k. \quad (\text{a5})$$

Substitute them into eq. (a1) and equate the like-power of λ , we have the perturbation equations

$$(H_0 - E_n^{(0)})\psi_n^{(0)} = 0, \quad (\text{a6})$$

$$(H_0 - E_n^{(0)})\psi_n^{(1)} = E_n^{(1)}\psi_n^{(0)} - H'\psi_n^{(0)}, \quad (\text{a7})$$

$$(H_0 - E_n^{(0)})\psi_n^{(m)} = E_n^{(m)}\psi_n^{(0)} - H'\psi_n^{(m-1)} + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} E_n^{(k)}\psi_n^{(m-k)},$$

$$m \geq 2. \quad (\text{a8})$$

According to eq. (a2), the zeroth-order perturbation equation (a6) is automatically satisfied. Multiplying $(\psi_n^{(0)})^*$ on the both sides of eq. (a7) and then integrating in the whole domain, we have, since $\psi_n^{(0)}(\mathbf{r})$ is orthonormal and H_0 is a Hermite operator, that

$$E_n^{(1)} = (\psi_n^{(0)}, H'\psi_n^{(0)}) = \tilde{\Delta}_{n,n}^{(0)}. \quad (\text{a9})$$

Write

$$\psi_n^{(m)} = \sum_{l \neq n} a_{n,l}^{(m)} \psi_l^{(0)}$$

and substitute it into eq. (a7), we have

$$\sum_{l \neq n} a_{n,l}^{(1)} (E_l^{(0)} - E_n^{(0)})\psi_l^{(0)} = E_n^{(1)}\psi_n^{(0)} - H'\psi_n^{(0)}. \quad (\text{a10})$$

Multiplying $(\psi_k^{(0)})^*$ on the both sides of eq. (a7) and then integrating in the whole domain, we have in a similar way that

$$a_{n,l}^{(1)} = \frac{\tilde{\Delta}_{l,n}^{(0)}}{E_n^{(0)} - E_l^{(0)}}, \quad (\text{a11})$$

where

$$\tilde{\Delta}_{l,n}^{(0)} = (\psi_l^{(0)}, H'\psi_n^{(0)}). \quad (\text{a12})$$

Similarly, we have for $m \geq 2$ that

$$E_n^{(m)} = \tilde{\Delta}_{n,n}^{(m-1)} - \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} E_n^{(k)} a_{n,n}^{(m-k)}, \quad (\text{a13})$$

$$a_{n,l}^{(m)} = \frac{\tilde{\Delta}_{l,n}^{(m-1)} - \sum_{k=1}^m E_n^{(k)} a_{n,l}^{(m-k)}}{E_n^{(0)} - E_l^{(0)}}, \quad (\text{a14})$$

where

$$\tilde{\Delta}_{l,n}^{(m-1)} = (\psi_l^{(0)}, H'\psi_n^{(m-1)}). \quad (\text{a15})$$

The M th-order perturbation approximation reads

$$\psi_n(\mathbf{r}) \approx \psi_n^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^M \psi_n^{(k)}(\mathbf{r}), \quad (\text{a16})$$

$$E_n \approx E_n^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^M E_n^{(k)}. \quad (\text{a17})$$