

Weakly interacting bosons in Continuum

[Reading: Khomskii Chapter 5, Wen Ch.3, Girvin, Yang Ch.18]

Review of non-interacting bosons

Consider $H = \sum_k \epsilon_k b_k^\dagger b_k$ with $\epsilon_k \sim k^\alpha$

Ground state: $|g.s.\rangle = [b_{k=0}^\dagger]^N$.

This is a BEC at $T=0$ i.e. $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n_{k=0}}{N} \neq 0$.

Following standard arguments (see 210A notes), as long as BEC exists, chemical potential $\mu = 0$.

For BEC to be stable at $T \neq 0$, the total occupation of $k \neq 0$ single-particle modes must be convergent in the thermodynamic limit.

$$\Rightarrow V \int \frac{d^d k}{e^{\beta \epsilon_k} - 1} \text{ must converge.}$$

$$\text{If } \epsilon_k \sim k^\alpha \Rightarrow \boxed{d > \alpha}.$$

Order parameter for BEC :

Consider the correlation f^n

$$\langle b^\dagger(r) b(r') \rangle = \frac{\text{Tr } e^{-\beta H} b^\dagger(r) b(r')}{\text{Tr } e^{-\beta H}}$$

Since the Hamiltonian is translationally invariant, it makes sense to evaluate this by Fourier transform.

$$b(r) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{V}} \sum_{\vec{k}} b(\vec{k}) e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}}$$
$$\langle b^\dagger(r) b(r') \rangle = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\vec{k}, \vec{k}'} \langle b^\dagger(\vec{k}) b(\vec{k}') \rangle e^{i\vec{k}' \cdot \vec{r}' - i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\vec{k}} \langle b^\dagger(\vec{k}) b(\vec{k}) \rangle e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}')}$$

$$= \frac{\langle b^\dagger(k=0) b(k=0) \rangle}{V} + \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{d^d k e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}')}}{e^{\beta \epsilon_k} - 1}$$

Assuming, $\epsilon_k \sim k^\alpha$ with $\alpha < d$, so that BEC exists at $T \neq 0$, $\langle b^\dagger(k=0) b(k=0) \rangle = N_0 \alpha V$

$$= \frac{N_0}{V} + \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \frac{d^d k e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}')}}{e^{\beta k^\alpha} - 1}$$

$$\sim \frac{N_0}{V} + \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{1}{|r-r'|^{d-\alpha}}$$

$$\neq 0 \quad \text{as} \quad |r-r'| \rightarrow \infty.$$

This is a rather striking result since the correlation f^n doesn't decay with distance.

This signals spontaneous symmetry breaking with order parameter $= \langle b(r) \rangle \approx \sqrt{\frac{N_0}{V}}$

Another way to see this is,

$$\langle b(r) \rangle \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{V}} \langle b(k=0) \rangle \sim \frac{\sqrt{N_0}}{\sqrt{V}}$$

Thus, $b(k=0)$ almost behaves like a c-number instead of an operator: $b(k=0) \sim \sqrt{N_0}$.

Weakly interacting BEC = Superfluid

Consider point-like interacting bosons:

$$H = \underbrace{\sum_k \varepsilon_k b_k^\dagger b_k}_{H_0} + \underbrace{\frac{U}{2} \sum_r b^\dagger(r) b^\dagger(r) b(r) b(r)}_{H_{int}}$$

$$= \sum_k \varepsilon_k b_k^\dagger b_k + \frac{U}{V} \sum_{k_1, k_2, k_3} b^\dagger(k_1) b^\dagger(k_2) b(k_3) b(k_1 + k_2 - k_3)$$

Since $\langle b^\dagger(k=0) \rangle \propto \sqrt{N}$ where N is the # of particles, while $\langle b^\dagger(k \neq 0) \rangle = 0$, in the above sum, the terms involving $b(k=0)$ scale differently than those involving $b(k \neq 0)$. Therefore, we need to separate $b(k=0)$ terms out.

When U is small, to a good approximation at $T=0$, $b(k=0) = \sqrt{N} \approx b^\dagger(k=0)$

$$\Rightarrow H_{int} = \frac{U}{2V} \left[(b^\dagger(k=0))^2 (b(k=0))^2 + [b(k=0)]^2 \sum_{k \neq 0} [4 b_k^\dagger b_k + b_k b_{-k} + b_k^\dagger b_{-k}^\dagger] \right]$$

[Note that
All of these terms scale
as N^2]

The term $[b(k=0)]^4$ requires special care.

One might think that it's simply N^2 .

However, it deviates a little bit from N^2 .

$$N = b^2(k=0) + \sum_{k \neq 0} b_k^\dagger b_k$$

$$\Rightarrow b^4(k=0) = \left[N - \sum_{k \neq 0} b_k^\dagger b_k \right]^2$$

$$= N^2 - 2N \underbrace{\sum_{k \neq 0} b_k^\dagger b_k}_{O(\delta N)} + \underbrace{\sum_{\substack{k, k' \\ \neq 0}} [b_k^\dagger b_k b_{k'}^\dagger b_{k'}]}_{O((\delta N)^2)}$$

$$\text{where } \delta N = N - b^2(k=0)$$

Keeping terms to the leading order in δN ,

$$\text{Hint} = \frac{UN^2}{2V} + \frac{UN}{2V} \sum_{k \neq 0} [2 b_k^\dagger b_k + b_k^\dagger b_{-k}^\dagger + b_k b_{-k}]$$

Combining everything,

$$H = \frac{UN^2}{2V} + \sum_{k \neq 0} \left[\varepsilon_k + \frac{UN}{V} \right] b_k^\dagger b_k$$

$$+ \frac{UN}{2V} \sum_{k \neq 0} [b_k^\dagger b_{-k}^\dagger + \text{h.c.}]$$

$$= \frac{UN^2}{2V} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \neq 0} \left\{ \left[\varepsilon_k + \frac{UN}{V} \right] [b_k^\dagger b_k + b_{-k}^\dagger b_{-k}] + \frac{UN}{V} (b_k^\dagger b_{-k}^\dagger + \text{h.c.}) \right\}$$

This Hamiltonian can be diagonalized via the following transformation:

$$b_k = \cosh(\theta_k) a_k + \sinh(\theta_k) a_{-k}^\dagger$$

We choose θ_k so that H in terms of $a_k, a_k^\dagger$ has the form $\sum_{k \neq 0} E_k a_k^\dagger a_k$

upto constant terms, i.e. the terms such as $a_k^\dagger a_{-k}^\dagger$ cancel out.

To keep things slightly more general, consider

$$H = \sum_{p \neq 0} \left\{ D_p [b_p^\dagger b_p + b_{-p}^\dagger b_{-p}] + \Delta_p [b_p^\dagger b_{-p}^\dagger + \text{h.c.}] \right\}$$

Substituting b_p in terms of a_p :

$$\begin{aligned} H = & \sum_p 2D_p [\cosh^2 \theta_p a_p^\dagger a_p + \sinh^2 \theta_p a_{-p} a_{-p}^\dagger \\ & + \cosh(\theta_p) \sinh(\theta_p) (a_p^\dagger a_{-p}^\dagger + \text{h.c.})] \\ & + \sum_p \Delta_p [(\cosh^2 \theta_p + \sinh^2 \theta_p) (a_p^\dagger a_{-p}^\dagger + \text{h.c.}) \\ & + 2 \cosh \theta_p \sinh \theta_p (a_p^\dagger a_p + a_{-p} a_{-p}^\dagger)] \end{aligned}$$

Requiring that the coefficient of $(a_p^\dagger a_{-p}^\dagger + \text{h.c.})$ vanishes $\Rightarrow D_p \sinh(2\theta_p) + \Delta_p \cosh(2\theta_p) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \tanh(2\theta_p) = -\frac{\Delta_p}{D_p}$$

The Hamiltonian thus becomes (upto a constant)

$$H = \sum_p \left[2D_p [\cosh^2 \theta_p + \sinh^2 \theta_p] + 4\Delta_p \cosh \theta_p \sinh \theta_p \right] a_p^\dagger a_p$$

$$\equiv \sum_p E_p a_p^\dagger a_p$$

where $E_p = 2D_p \cosh(2\theta_p) + 2\Delta_p \sinh(2\theta_p)$

$$= \frac{2D_p}{\sqrt{1 - \tanh^2 2\theta_p}} + 2\Delta_p \frac{\tanh(2\theta_p)}{\sqrt{1 - \tanh^2(2\theta_p)}}$$

$$= 2\sqrt{D_p^2 - \Delta_p^2}.$$

Returning to our specific problem,

$$D_p = \frac{1}{2} \left(\varepsilon_p + \frac{UN}{V} \right), \quad \Delta_p = \frac{UN}{2V}$$

$$\Rightarrow E_p = \sqrt{\varepsilon_p^2 + 2\varepsilon_p \frac{UN}{V}}$$

Choosing $\epsilon_p = \frac{p^2}{2m}$, as $p \rightarrow 0$, $\epsilon_p \approx p \sqrt{\frac{UN}{Vm}}$

i.e. $\epsilon_p \sim p$ similar to sound waves/phonons.

On the other hand, at high energies, $\epsilon_p \sim \epsilon_p$.

Thus, the low energy effective Hamiltonian

$$\text{is } H_{\text{eff}} \sim \sum_p p \sqrt{\frac{UN}{Vm}} a_p^\dagger a_p$$

This is a **superfluid**.

Ground state is defined by $a_p |0\rangle = 0$.

Goldstone theorem:

The emergence of a linearly dispersing mode is not a coincidence, but is a consequence of the fact that the system has a broken continuous symmetry spontaneously.

Proof (Sketch): Consider a system with a conserved charge Q i.e. $[H, Q] = 0$.

Let's assume that the ground state is not invariant under the corresponding symmetry

transformation i.e. $e^{i\theta Q} |g.s.\rangle \neq |g.s.\rangle$

$$\Rightarrow Q |g.s.\rangle \neq |g.s.\rangle$$

for example, in our example of the superfluid,

$$Q = \sum_p b_p^\dagger b_p.$$

the ground state we obtained, as defined by

$$a_p |0\rangle = 0 \text{ is not an eigenstate of } Q,$$

$$\text{therefore } Q |g.s.\rangle \neq |g.s.\rangle.$$

Lets consider the state $Q |g.s.\rangle$.

$$\begin{aligned} H(Q |g.s.\rangle) &= Q H |g.s.\rangle \\ &= E_0 Q |g.s.\rangle \end{aligned}$$

where E_0 is the ground state energy. Therefore

$Q |g.s.\rangle$ despite being not same $|g.s.\rangle$, has

the same energy. This seems to indicate

that there exist low energy modes. To

construct a family of these modes, write

$$Q = \int d^d x J_0(x) \text{ and consider}$$

$$|k\rangle = \int d^d x e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} J_0(x) |g.s.\rangle$$

where $\vec{k} = 0$, one recovers $Q |g.s.\rangle$. for small

$|\vec{k}|$, one obtains a state whose energy is

almost $|\vec{k}|$. These are Goldstone modes.

Ground state energy and compressibility:

One can show that the ground state energy is $\frac{U}{2V} N(N-1)$. Therefore, the

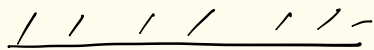
$$\text{Chemical potential } \mu = \left. \frac{\partial E}{\partial N} \right|_V = \left(N - \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{U}{V}$$

$$\approx U \rho \quad \text{where } \rho = \frac{N}{V} \text{ is the density.}$$

$$\text{The compressibility } \kappa = \frac{\partial \rho}{\rho^2 \partial \mu} \sim \frac{1}{\rho^2 U},$$

which is finite, unlike BEC, for which $\kappa = \infty$.

Why Superfluidity?



Consider a moving condensate. To degrade the superflow, one would need to create excitations in

the moving frame. Let's assume one such excitation exist with momentum $\vec{p}$ and energy $\varepsilon(\vec{p})$. In the lab frame, the total energy is,

$$E = \frac{1}{2} M \vec{v}^2 + \varepsilon(\vec{p}) + \vec{p} \cdot \vec{v}$$

For the excitation to be energetically favorable, one requires that $\varepsilon(p) + \vec{p} \cdot \vec{v} < 0$
 $\varepsilon(p) = c |\vec{p}| \Rightarrow \boxed{V > c}$. Thus at

slow enough velocities, the superflow is stable. More precisely, $V > \min\left(\frac{\varepsilon(p)}{p}\right)$

