

Week 6

PHY 635 Many-body Quantum Mechanics of Degenerate Gases

Instructor: Sebastian Wüster, IISER Bhopal, 2019

These notes are provided for the students of the class above only. There is no warranty for correctness, please contact me if you spot a mistake.

3.3 Gross-Pitaevskii Equation

- Previously, we considered Bose gases with non-interacting atoms.
- However BEC occurs also if (weak) interactions are present.
- These can be treated very simply for dilute-gas BEC.

3.3.1 Contact Interactions

Consider N interacting Bosons with Hamiltonian (2.16)

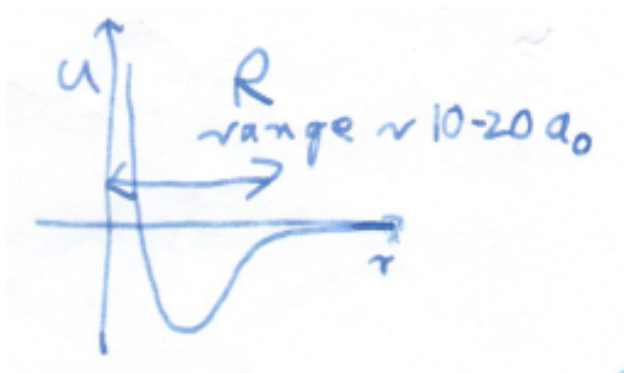
$$\hat{H} = \sum_{k=1}^N \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_k}^2 + V(\mathbf{x}_k) \right) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l=1}^N U(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_l) \quad (3.18)$$

with $V(\mathbf{x}_k) = \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2\mathbf{x}_k^2$ (harmonically trapped, e.g. magnetic or optical trap, see PHY402 lecture notes).

Realistically, atoms interact with a finite range potential

$$U(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_l) = \frac{A}{r^{12}} - \frac{B}{r^6} \quad r = |\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_l|, \quad (3.19)$$

that has an attractive van-der-Waals components ($\sim -r^{-6}$), due to interactions of dipole fluctuations and a repulsive component ($\sim +r^{-12}$) due to electron overlap. This is called Lennard-Jones Potential.



left: Sketch of Lennard-Jones Potential. Note the range is of the order $10a_0 \sim \text{nm}$.

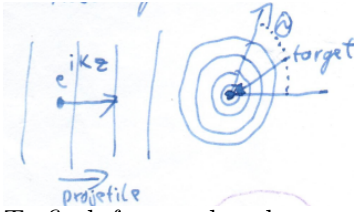
Important fact I: Densities in dilute gas BEC are such that the mean distance d between atoms $d \gg R$, since $d \sim 0.1 \mu\text{m}$. \implies When interactions take place, they are mostly binary scattering of two atoms, so let us look at that.

We need to consider atomic collisions in quantum scattering theory.

Quantum scattering theory: (*This box is a reminder only. Please read up quantum scattering theory basics in a text book, if required.*) An atom scatters off a target (assumed immobile) at $\mathbf{r} = 0$ with interaction potential $U(r)$. We can write

$$\varphi_k(\mathbf{r}) = e^{ik_i x} + f_k(\theta) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \quad (3.20)$$

for the scattering wave function of the particle. This includes that the incoming particle has a known initial momentum $\mathbf{p}_i = \hbar k_i \mathbf{e}_x$ along the x direction, while after the scattering it may go in any direction (with final momentum \mathbf{p}_f , with a scattering angle θ while $|\mathbf{p}_i| = |\mathbf{p}_f|$). The amplitude for a certain scattering angle is encoded in $f_k(\theta)$.



left: Schematic of the setup in quantum scattering theory. The x direction goes to the right.

To find f , we solve the scattering TISE, inserting (3.20). $m_r = m/2$ is the reduced mass.

$$(\nabla^2 + k^2)\varphi_k(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{2m_r}{\hbar^2} V(r)\varphi_k(\mathbf{r}). \quad (3.21)$$

Partial wave expansion (PWE): (*Also reminder only.*) A useful tool for the solution of Eq. (3.21) in scattering theory is the PWE. Here we expand both, f and the incoming wave in terms of Legendre polynomials in θ .

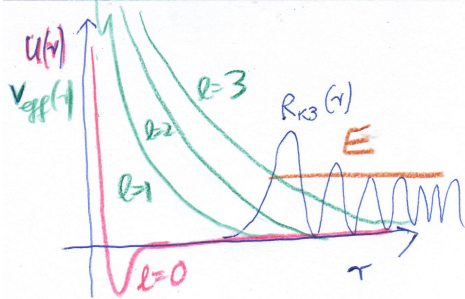
$$\varphi_k(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} A_l P_l(\cos \theta) R_{kl}(r). \quad (3.22)$$

The interpretation of l is that it quantifies the angular momentum wrt. the scattering centre, which depends on the impact parameter, and is conserved in a central potential $V(r)$.

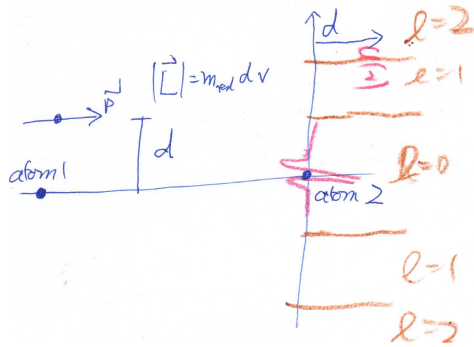
Due to that conservation we can solve (3.21) separately in each angular momentum channel. There the corresponding radial wave function $R_{kl}(r)$ satisfies:

$$R_{kl}''(r) + \frac{2}{r} R_{kl}'(r) + \left[k^2 - \underbrace{\frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} - \frac{2m_r}{\hbar^2} U(r)}_{\equiv -\frac{2m_r}{\hbar^2} V_{\text{eff}}(r)} \right] R_{kl}(r) = 0. \quad (3.23)$$

s-wave scattering: As in usual solutions of the TISE, the wavefunction $R(r)$ will not significantly extend into regions where $0 < E < V_{\text{eff}}(r)$ (see below). Thus if the range of the interaction potential $U(r)$ is sufficiently short, higher angular momentum channels will not be affected by it. This means that scattering at very low temperatures can be fully described by $l = 0$, which is called s-wave scattering. Since for $l = 0$, $P_l(\theta) = 1$, in this case the scattering is isotropic.



left: Interaction potential $U(r)$ (magenta), and complete effective potential $V_{\text{eff}}(r)$ for higher l (green). An exemplary incoming partial wave in channel 3 with energy $E = \hbar^2 k^2 / (2m_r) > 0$ is also shown.



left: Alternatively think that angular momentum quantisation is dividing the continuous axis of different impact parameters d into regions with discrete angular momentum. If the potential is short ranged, collisions with impact parameter yielding $l > 0$ will not involve it. The lower the velocity, the larger the “ $l=0$ ” region. **Hence...**

Important fact II: At low temperatures (low scattering velocities) only $l = 0$ (s-wave) will contribute. Since the s-wave component of the PWE $P_0(\cos \theta) = 1$ does not depend on θ , scattering is isotropic (all outgoing directions are equally likely)

s-wave scattering length: To first order perturbation theory (Born approximation), one can show that the scattering amplitude in Eq. (3.20) is given by

$$f_k(\theta) = -\frac{2m_r}{4\pi\hbar^2} \int d^3\mathbf{r}' e^{-i(\mathbf{k}_f - \mathbf{k}_i) \cdot \mathbf{r}'} V(\mathbf{r}'), \quad (3.24)$$

that is, $f_k(\theta)$ is related to a Fourier transform of $V(\mathbf{r})$. For very low temperatures, and hence small momenta of the scattering particles, their de-Broglie wavelengths are much longer than the range of the interaction potential. Then $e^{-i(\mathbf{k}_f - \mathbf{k}_i) \cdot \mathbf{r}'} \approx 1$ in Eq. (3.25) and we have

$$f = -\frac{2m_r}{4\pi\hbar^2} \int d^3\mathbf{r}' V(r') \equiv a_s \quad (3.25)$$

So now f no longer depends on scattering energy/momentum through k nor on angle θ . The quantity a_s is called s-wave scattering length.

Important fact III: At very low temperatures for dilute gases, a single number, the s-wave scattering length contains all the information about the scattering.

Together, the three “important facts” above allow the use of the

Contact interaction potential. (chosen to give same s-wave scattering as (3.19))

$$U(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_l) \implies U_0 \delta(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_l) \quad (3.26)$$

with $U_0 = \frac{4\pi\hbar^2 a_s}{m}$

- a_s is the s-wave scattering length, that quantifies the amplitude of the scattering process (or total cross-section).
- sign of a_s tells if interactions are repulsive ($a_s > 0$) or attractive ($a_s < 0$).
- Exercise: Show that (3.26) indeed gives the same scattering amplitudes as (3.19) when inserted into (3.25).

3.3.2 Condensate Wave function

Let us assume something like Eq. (3.16) [$|\psi_0\rangle = |N000\dots\rangle$] holds even in the interacting case. Thus again all Bosons shall be in the same state \implies

Ansatz for many-body wave-function (N Bosons, 1D)

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) = \prod_{l=1}^N \phi(x_l, t) \quad (3.27)$$

$$\text{with } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(x, t)|^2 dx = 1 \quad (3.28)$$

Unlike in the non-interacting case, ϕ may not be the trap ground-state, and we now want to find which state it is.

Determine $\phi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ from \hat{H} in Eq. (2.16) with potential (3.26) using the time-dependent variational principle: $\delta S = 0$, with

Action S :

$$S = \int dt d^N x \underbrace{\frac{i\hbar}{2} [\psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(\mathbf{x}, t) - \psi(\mathbf{x}, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t)] - \psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t) \hat{H} \psi(\mathbf{x}, t)}_{\text{Lagrangian density}} \quad (3.29)$$

- To test this we could show that it gives the correct many-Body SE upon variation of ψ .
- Variational principle allows us to “enforce” the guess (3.27) and then ask “what equation does $\phi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ have to follow if this is true?”

Note:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(\mathbf{x}, t) \stackrel{(3.27)}{=} \left[\sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi(x_k, t) \right] \prod_{\substack{l=1 \\ l \neq k}}^N \phi(x_l, t) \quad (3.30)$$

Let us insert (3.27) into (3.29) and simplify

$$\begin{aligned} S \stackrel{(3.30)}{=} \int dt d^N \mathbf{x} & \left[\frac{i\hbar}{2} \left[\prod_{l'=1}^N \phi^*(x_{l'}, t) \sum_{k=1}^N \prod_{\substack{l=1 \\ l \neq k}}^N \phi(x_l, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi(x_k, t) - \prod_{l'=1}^N \phi(x_{l'}, t) \sum_{k=1}^N \prod_{\substack{l=1 \\ l \neq k}}^N \phi^*(x_l, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi^*(x_k, t) \right] \right. \\ & \left. - \prod_{l'=1}^N \phi^*(x_{l'}, t) \left[\sum_{k=1}^N \hat{H}_0(x_k) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\substack{k,m=1 \\ k \neq m}}^N U_0 \delta(x_k - x_m) \right] \prod_{l=1}^N \phi(x_l, t) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (3.31)$$

We have to integrate $\int d^N x = \int dx_1 \int dx_2 \dots \int dx_i \dots \int dx_N$. All integrals with $x_i \neq (x_k \text{ or } x_m)$ give $\int |\phi(x_i, t)|^2 dx_i = 1 \implies$

$$\begin{aligned} S = \sum_{k=1}^N \int dt \int dx_k & \left[\frac{i\hbar}{2} \left[\phi^*(x_k, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi(x_k, t) - \phi(x_k, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi^*(x_k, t) \right] \right. \\ & \left. - \phi^*(x_k, t) \hat{H}_0(x_k) \phi(x_k, t) + \frac{U_0}{2} \sum_{\substack{m=1 \\ k \neq m}}^N \int dx_m \phi^*(x_k, t) \phi^*(x_m, t) \delta(x_k - x_m) \phi(x_k, t) \phi(x_m, t) \right] \\ & \underbrace{\hspace{15em}}_{= \frac{U_0(N-1)}{2} \phi^*(x_k, t)^2 \phi(x_k, t)^2} \end{aligned} \quad (3.32)$$

Note all pieces of the sum $\sum_{k=1}^N$ are the same:

$$\begin{aligned} S = N \int dt \int dx & \left[\frac{i\hbar}{2} \left[\phi^*(x, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi(x, t) - \phi(x, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi^*(x, t) \right] \right. \\ & \left. - \phi^*(x, t) \hat{H}_0 \phi(x, t) + \frac{U_0(N-1)}{2} \phi^*(x, t)^2 \phi(x, t)^2 \right] \end{aligned} \quad (3.33)$$

Variation of S :

$$\delta S = S[\phi + \delta\phi, \phi^*] + S[\phi, \phi^* + \delta\phi^*] - 2S[\phi, \phi^*] \quad (3.34)$$

(We treat ϕ and ϕ^* as independent). Demand

$$0 = \delta S = N \int dt \int dx \frac{i\hbar}{2} [\delta\phi^* \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi + \phi^* \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \delta\phi - \delta\phi \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi^* - \phi \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \delta\phi^*] - \delta\phi^* [H_0\phi + U_0(N-1)\phi^*\phi^2] - [\phi^* H_0\delta\phi + U_0(N-1)\phi^*\phi\delta\phi] \quad (3.35)$$

Now this should be zero for **all** small functions $\delta\phi(x, t) \implies$ coefficient of $\delta\phi(x, t)$ and $\delta\phi^*(x, t)$ must vanish inside the integral $\forall x, t$. From coefficient of $\delta\phi^*(x, t)$ we finally obtain the

time-dependent Gross-Pitaevskii Equation (GPE)

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi(x, t) = \left(\underbrace{-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x)}_{=\hat{H}_0(x)} + U_0(N-1)|\phi(x, t)|^2 \right) \phi(x, t). \quad (3.36)$$

- $\phi(x, t)$ is the condensate wave function. Here $(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(x, t)|^2 dx = 1)$
- $U_0 = \frac{4\pi\hbar^2 a_s}{m}$ from (3.26).
- This is similar to single-particle Schrödinger equation but with a term that is non-linear in the wave function. This completely changes the mathematics and solutions to do with this equation.
- $(N-1)|\phi(x, t)|^2 = \rho =$ atom density. This makes sense, since the non-linear term describes interactions, and the interaction energy for one atom should be dependent on the density of other atoms.

3.3.3 Mean Field Theory

We can derive (3.36) differently (and much easier), starting from quantum field theory. Consider \hat{H} in (2.27) with $U(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$ from (3.26), thus

$$\hat{H} = \int dx \left[\hat{\psi}^\dagger(x) H_0 \hat{\Psi}(x) + \frac{U_0}{2} \hat{\psi}^\dagger(x) \hat{\psi}^\dagger(x) \hat{\Psi}(x) \hat{\Psi}(x) \right] \quad (3.37)$$

Consider the field operator in Heisenberg picture $\hat{\Psi}(x, t)$, which must fulfill the

Heisenberg equation for the field operator

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \hat{\Psi}(x, t) = [\hat{\Psi}(x, t), \hat{H}] = \hat{H}_0 \hat{\Psi}(x, t) + U_0 \hat{\Psi}^\dagger(x, t) \hat{\Psi}(x, t) \hat{\Psi}(x, t) \quad (3.38)$$

We ought to specify an (initial) quantum state, but let's not, rather we make the :

Mean-Field Ansatz

$$\langle \hat{\Psi}(x, t) \rangle = \tilde{\phi}(x, t) \quad (3.39)$$

- $\tilde{\phi}$ is again the condensate wave-function³ or order parameter of the BEC.

Taking the expectation value of (3.38) we reach

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \tilde{\phi}(x, t) = \hat{H}_0 \tilde{\phi}(x, t) + U_0 \underbrace{\langle \hat{\Psi}^\dagger(x, t) \hat{\Psi}(x, t) \hat{\Psi}(x, t) \rangle}_{\text{factorisation: } \langle \hat{\Psi}^\dagger(x, t) \rangle \langle \hat{\Psi}(x, t) \rangle \langle \hat{\Psi}(x, t) \rangle} \quad (3.40)$$

We now assume the factorization as shown and reach:

Gross-Pitaevskii Equation (again)

$$i\hbar \dot{\tilde{\phi}}(x, t) = \hat{H}_0(x) \tilde{\phi}(x, t) + U_0 |\tilde{\phi}(x, t)|^2 \tilde{\phi}(x, t) \quad (3.41)$$

- Same as (3.36) for $N \approx N - 1$.
- A possible quantum-state that justifies (3.3.3) is the many-body coherent state (2.51). We assume the S.H.O single-particle basis and $|\psi\rangle = |\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots\rangle$ (see (2.51)) Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | \hat{\Psi} | \psi \rangle &= \langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots | \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \varphi_k(x) \hat{a}_k | \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots \rangle \\ \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow & \text{state} \quad \text{field op.} \quad \text{state} \\ &= \langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots | \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \varphi_k(x) \alpha_k | \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots \rangle \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \varphi_k(x) \alpha_k \equiv \tilde{\phi}(x, t = 0) \in \mathbb{C} \end{aligned} \quad (3.42)$$

- Due to the use of coherent states, we have an uncertainty in the particle number here ($\approx N$ in the mean).
- $\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \hat{\Psi} \rangle = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \langle \hat{\Psi} \rangle$ since in Heisenberg picture state is time-independent.

³Here $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(x, t)|^2 dx = N$, in contrast to the normalisation used for (3.36). We try to distinguish the two conventions with the $\tilde{\sim}$ symbol.

•

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle \hat{H}_0(x) \hat{\Psi} \rangle &= \langle \psi | \hat{H}_0(x) \sum_n \varphi_n(x) \hat{a}_n | \psi \rangle = \hat{H}_0(x) \sum_n \varphi_n(x) \langle \psi | \hat{a}_n | \psi \rangle \\
&\quad \downarrow \\
&\quad \text{many body fock state} \\
&= \hat{H}_0(x) \underbrace{\langle \psi | \sum_n \varphi_n(x) \hat{a}_n | \psi \rangle}_{= \langle \hat{\Psi} \rangle} = \hat{H}_0(x) \tilde{\phi}(x) \quad (3.43)
\end{aligned}$$

- For coherent state $|\psi\rangle = |\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots\rangle$ we have $\langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots | \hat{\Psi}^\dagger \hat{\Psi} \hat{\Psi} | \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots \rangle = \langle \hat{\Psi}^\dagger \rangle \langle \hat{\Psi} \rangle \langle \hat{\Psi} \rangle$ (exercise), thus the coherent state would also justify the factorization used in (3.40).

Counter-example where factorization does not work: (just math example)

$$\begin{aligned}
|\psi\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|300\dots\rangle + |200\dots\rangle) \implies \langle \psi | \hat{\Psi}^\dagger(x) \hat{\Psi}(x) \hat{\Psi}(x) | \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \langle \psi | |\varphi_0(x)|^2 \varphi_0(x) \hat{a}_0^\dagger \hat{a}_0 \hat{a}_0 | \psi \rangle \\
&\quad \downarrow \\
&\quad \text{all other terms of } \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \varphi_k(x) a_k^\dagger \text{ vanish} \\
&= \frac{1}{2} |\varphi_0(x)|^2 \varphi_0(x) (\langle 300 | + \langle 200 |) (2\sqrt{3}|200\rangle + \sqrt{2}|100\rangle) = \sqrt{3} |\varphi_0(x)|^2 \varphi_0(x) \text{ But:}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\langle \psi \rangle = \frac{\varphi_0(x)}{2} (\langle 300 | + \langle 200 |) (\sqrt{3}|200\rangle + \sqrt{2}|100\rangle) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \varphi_0(x) \implies \langle \hat{\Psi}^\dagger \rangle \langle \hat{\Psi} \rangle \langle \hat{\Psi} \rangle = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{8} |\varphi_0(x)|^2 \varphi_0(x)$$

3.3.4 Condensate Ground State

Stationary states of (3.3.3) evolve as

$$\tilde{\phi}(x, t) = \exp\left[\frac{-i\mu t}{\hbar}\right] \tilde{\phi}_0(x). \quad (3.44)$$

Inserting this into (3.3.3) gives a

Time-independent GPE

$$\mu \phi_0(x) = \left[\hat{H}_0(x) + U_0 |\phi_0(x)|^2 \right] \phi_0(x) \quad (3.45)$$

- We renamed $\tilde{\phi}_0 \rightarrow \phi_0$ but still $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi_0(x)|^2 dx = N$.
- μ is the chemical potential if ϕ_0 is the ground state.
- Same as for the TISE, also Eq. (3.45) has multiple (excited state) solutions.

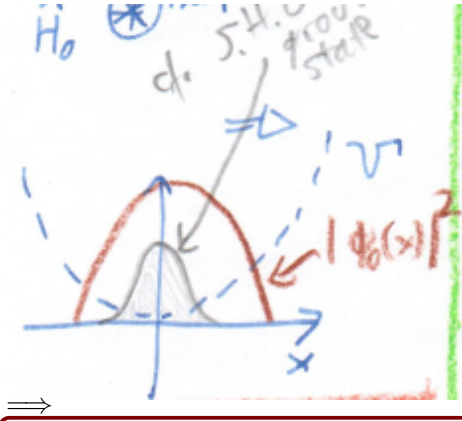
Ground State Solutions:

Example (i):

Very strong repulsive interactions $U_0 \gg \underbrace{\hbar\omega}_{\text{trap}} > 0$. In that case, neglect $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2$ in \hat{H}_0 .

$$\mu\phi_0(x) = V(x)\phi_0(x) + U_0|\phi_0(x)|^2\phi_0(x)$$

$$|\phi_0(x)|^2 = \begin{cases} \frac{\mu-V}{U_0} & \text{if } > 0 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



left: In a harmonic trap (blue dashed), non-interacting atoms condense into the SHO ground state (grey shape). Due to interactions, atoms instead settle into the Thomas-Fermi shape (brown line).

Wave-function in Thomas-Fermi Approximation

$$\phi_0(x) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\frac{\mu-V}{U_0}} & \text{if } (\mu - V) > 0 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (3.46)$$

- Why do we neglect $\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2$ and not the trap? We see that both, the repulsive interaction $U_0|\phi_0(x)|^2$ for $U_0 > 0$ and the kinetic energy cause a spread of the wave-function. In contrast, the trap V causes localization. The final shape is determined by a balance of spread versus localization. For $U_0n > \frac{\hbar\omega}{2}$ the kinetic energy can be neglected relative to the interaction energy.

↓
Approximate K.E. in GS oscillator

Example (ii): Very weak interactions $|U_0| \ll \hbar\omega$.

For $U_0 = 0$, we know harmonic oscillator ground state φ_0 solves (??). So,

Ansatz :

$$\phi_0(x) = N \exp\left[-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma(U_0)^2}\right] \quad (3.47)$$

Determine $\sigma(U_0)$ from variational principle $\delta E = 0$ using $E = \int dx \phi_0^*(x)[\hat{H}_0 + U_0(|\phi_0(x)|)^2]\phi_0(x)$ (Pethick-Smith (Exercise))

Example (iii): Any other interaction strength: We can use the imaginary time method, where we solve (3.3.3) for $t \rightarrow -i\tau$

Imaginary Time GPE

$$-\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \tilde{\phi}(x, \tau) = \left[\hat{H}_0(x) + U_0 |\tilde{\phi}(x, \tau)|^2 \right] \tilde{\phi}(x, \tau) \quad (3.48)$$

subject to constraint $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\tilde{\phi}(x, \tau)|^2 dx \stackrel{!}{=} N$

This typically rapidly converges to the lowest energy solutions $\phi_0(x)$ of (??), (almost) regardless of initial state.

heuristic motivation:

Take the (linear) Schrödinger equation ($U_0 = 0$). Then $\psi(x, t) = \sum_n c_n(0) e^{-\frac{iE_n t}{\hbar}} \phi_n(x)$ Replace $t \rightarrow -i\tau \implies \psi(x, \tau) = \sum_n c_n(0) e^{-\frac{E_n \tau}{\hbar}} \phi_n(x)$ $\psi(x, \tau) \rightarrow 0$ for $\tau \rightarrow \infty$ since all components exponentially decay. But among all of them, the groundstate component ($n = 0$) decays the slowest. \implies If we enforce $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi|^2 dx = 1$, the ground-state eventually becomes the only one to survive, so the scheme converges to the groundstate.

BONUS TEXT: In the presence of interactions $U_0 > 0$, the justification for the imaginary time method is a bit more tricky:



left: Let $f(x, y)$ be a 2D function. To find the minimum value and its location $f_0(x_0, y_0)$, go opposite to the gradient (along red arrow in figure) from some initial test-point (x_i, y_i) . This is called the steepest descent method in optimization.

Now consider the GP energy functional

$$E = \int d^3x \phi^*(x) \left[\hat{H}_0(x) + \frac{U_0}{2} |\phi_0(x)|^2 \right] \phi_0(x)$$

as ∞ -dimensional function, using the identification $f \rightarrow E, (x, y) \rightarrow \phi(x)$.

The analog of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ is $\frac{\delta E}{\delta \phi(x)}$ (functional derivative). Let us consider ϕ, ϕ^* as independent.

$$\frac{\delta E}{\delta \phi^*(x)} = \left[H_0(x) + \frac{U_0}{2} |\phi_0(x)|^2 \right] \phi_0(x)$$

Thus going for a short step $\frac{\delta \tau}{\hbar}$ into direction of negative gradient.

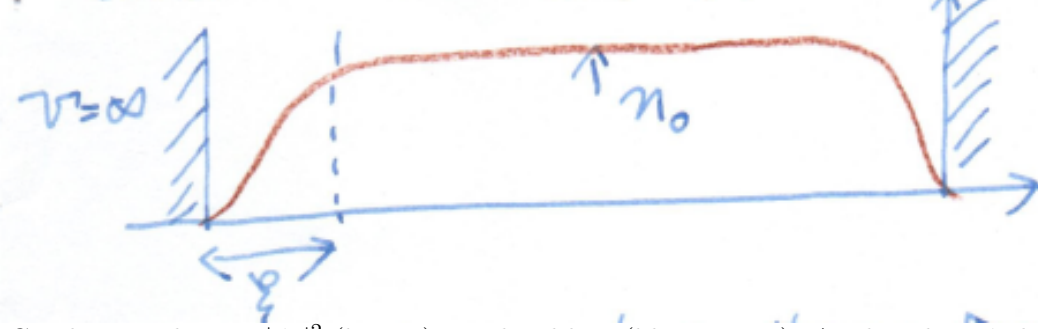
$$\phi(x, \tau + \delta\tau) - \phi(x, \tau) = -[H_0 + U_0 |\phi_0(x)|^2] \phi_0(x)$$

$$\phi(x, \tau + \delta\tau) - \phi(x, \tau) = -[H_0 + U_0|\phi_0(x, \tau)|^2]\phi_0(x, \tau)$$

⇒ which is a discrete time-derivative version of Eq. (3.48).

3.3.5 Condensate Healing Length

Consider a condensate in a hard box, for large U_0 .



top: Condensate density $|\phi_0|^2$ (brown) in a hard box (blue stripes). At the edges ϕ_0 has to vanish due to boundary conditions.

- Far away from the edges, the Thomas-Fermi approximation (3.46) gives us a density

$$n_0 = \frac{\mu}{U_0} \quad (3.49)$$

- Near the edge however, we can not neglect kinetic term. Rewrite (3.45) as

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \phi_0(x) + U_0[(\phi_0(x))^2 + n_0]\phi_0(x) = 0$$

Define $\phi_0(x) = \sqrt{n_0}f(\frac{x}{\zeta}) \Rightarrow$

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2mU_0n_0\zeta^2} f''(\frac{x}{\zeta}) + [f^2 - 1]f = 0 \quad (3.50)$$

This equation becomes scale-free if we set

Healing Length

$$\zeta = \frac{\hbar}{\sqrt{2mU_0n_0}} \quad (3.51)$$

- This is the shortest scale on which the BEC can respond to perturbations in the bulk.

3.3.6 Hydrodynamic equations and vortices

Let us rewrite the condensate wave function as

$$\phi(x, t) = \underbrace{\sqrt{\rho(x, t)}}_{\text{amplitude}} e^{i \underbrace{\varphi(x, t)}_{\text{phase}}} \quad \phi \in \mathbb{C}, \quad \rho, \varphi \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (3.52)$$

The ρ, φ have the interpretation of

Hydrodynamic variables

$$\begin{aligned} \text{atomic density} \quad \rho &= |\phi|^2 & (3.53) \\ \text{and flow velocity} \quad \mathbf{v} &= \frac{\hbar}{m} \nabla \varphi \end{aligned}$$

To see that this makes sense we insert (3.52) into (3.3.3) split into real- and imaginary parts and thus derive the

Hydrodynamic equations for a BEC

$$\text{Continuity equation} \quad \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot (\rho \cdot \mathbf{v}) \quad (3.54)$$

$$\text{“Bernoulli’s eqn”} \quad m \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = -\nabla [P_q + \frac{1}{2} m \mathbf{v}^2 + U \rho + V(x)] \quad (3.55)$$

$$\text{with quantum pressure term} \quad P_q = -\frac{\hbar^2 \nabla^2 \sqrt{\rho}}{2m \sqrt{\rho}} \quad (3.56)$$

- Whenever P_q is small, we can think of the BEC as a “fluid”.
- quantum nature still has interesting consequence such as

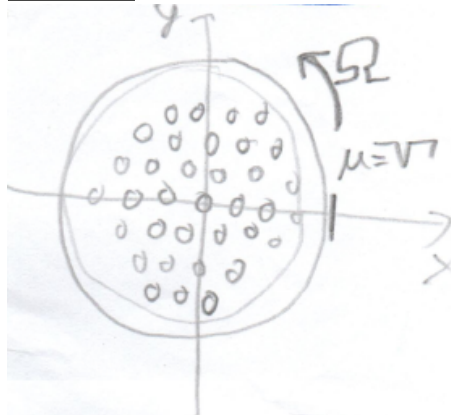
Quantisation of circulation

$$\underbrace{\oint_C \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{x}}_{\text{circulation}} = (2\pi n) \frac{\hbar}{m} = n \underbrace{\left(\frac{\hbar}{m}\right)}_{\text{circulation quantum}} \quad (3.57)$$

Here $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ is called the Winding number.

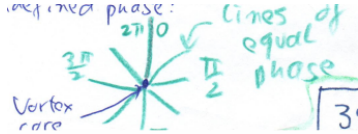
- Proof : show that $\int_L \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{x} = \frac{\hbar}{m} [\varphi(\mathbf{b}) - \varphi(\mathbf{a})]$ for a non-closed loop between two points \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} . Then (3.57) follows because the phase at \mathbf{x} has to be unique \implies

Example: Abrikosov-lattice of Vortices :



left: Abrikosov-lattice of vortices (circles). Ω indicates and externally enforced rotation of the BEC cloud.

A BEC brought to high circulation state $n \gg 1$ forms an Abrikosov-lattice of n vortices, each vortex-core has zero density $\rho = 0$ due to the undefined phase at that point:



left: vortex core

3.3.7 Condensate excitations

What happens to a stationary state (3.44) if it is slightly perturbed? Let us look for periodic (eigenmode) solutions with Ansatz :

Perturbed BEC

$$\phi(x, t) = e^{-\frac{i\mu t}{\hbar}} [\phi_0(x) + u(x)e^{-i\omega t} - v^*(x)e^{i\omega t}] \quad (3.58)$$

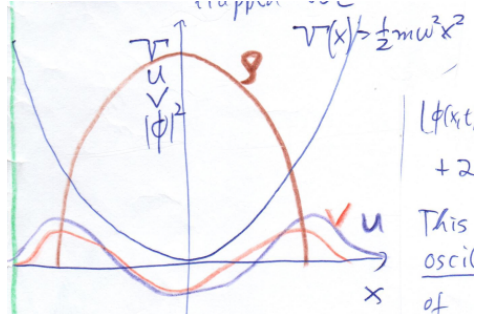
- Be careful: In this section v has nothing to do with velocity.
- We need to include $e^{i\omega t}$ AND $e^{-i\omega t}$ because (3.3.3) couples ϕ with ϕ^* .
- Insert (3.58) into (3.3.3), use (3.45) then separately consider coefficients of $e^{i\omega t}$ and $e^{-i\omega t}$ to get the

Bogoliubov equations for elementary excitations of BEC

$$\begin{aligned} \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(x) + 2U_0|\phi_0(x)|^2 - \mu - \hbar\omega \right] u(x) - U_0\phi_0(x)^2 v(x) &= 0, \\ \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(x) + 2u_0|\phi_0(x)|^2 - \mu + \hbar\omega \right] v(x) - U_0\phi_0^*(x)^2 u(x) &= 0. \end{aligned} \quad (3.59)$$

Here ω is the mode frequency.

Example: Breathing mode of harmonically trapped BEC. Assume a BEC in a harmonic trap has the Thomas-Fermi shape for $\rho(x) = |\phi_0(x)|^2$ in (3.46) (brown). Solving (3.59), you would then find one mode with shapes u (blue), v (red) $\in \mathbb{R}$ as shown below.



left: Breathing mode of a trapped BEC

Using (3.58), we then find $|\phi(x, t)|^2 \approx |\phi_0(x)|^2 + 2\phi_0(u-v) \cos(\omega t) + \mathcal{O}(u^2, v^2)$ This represents breathing oscillations that arise from a competition of trapping and repulsive interactions. It turns out we find a breathing frequency (for large U_0) of $\omega = \sqrt{5}\omega_{\text{trap}}$.