

# **Dynamics of quasi-particle states in a finite one-dimensional repulsive Bose gas**

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# Abstract

The Lieb-Liniger model for a one-dimensional ultra cold Bose gas is briefly explained. An initial state with a notch in the density profile is studied. It is demonstrated that the time evolution of this initial state resembles a classical relaxation process. Numerical calculations show that the decay of the notch depth obeys a  $\frac{1}{t}$  relationship. Using the stationary phase approximation, it is shown that this behaviour is to be expected for large  $t$ .



# 1 Introduction

A recent article [SKD14] drew attention to the dynamics of a quasi particle initial state in a one dimensional ultra cold Bose gas, described by the Lieb-Liniger model. In this report, I have reproduced the results of this article and investigated the dynamics more thoroughly.





## 2 Description of the Lieb-Liniger model

We will describe an ultra cold Bose gas in one dimension with the Lieb-Liniger model. This is the Hamiltonian in the appropriate units:

$$H = - \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^2} + 2c \sum_{i < j} \delta(x_i - x_j)$$

### 2.1 The two particle case

Let's start with the two particle case. We get:

$$H = - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2} + 2c\delta(x_1 - x_2) = -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \alpha^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta^2} \right) + 2c\delta(\alpha)$$

Here  $\alpha = x_1 - x_2$  and  $\beta = x_1 + x_2$ . If we substitute this into  $H\Psi = E\Psi$ , and integrate both sides from  $-\epsilon$  to  $\epsilon$  in  $\alpha$ , we get:

$$-\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} d\alpha \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \alpha^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta^2} \right) \Psi + 2c \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} d\alpha \delta(\alpha) \Psi = \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} d\alpha E \Psi$$

Now, taking the limit  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ , the right side becomes zero, and we see:

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} -\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} d\alpha \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \alpha^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta^2} \right) \Psi + 2c \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} d\alpha \delta(\alpha) \Psi = 0$$

From which it follows that:

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} 4c \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} d\alpha \delta(\alpha) \Psi = 4c\Psi(\alpha = 0) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} d\alpha \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \alpha^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta^2} \right) \Psi$$

$$= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \Psi(\alpha = \epsilon) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \Psi(\alpha = -\epsilon) = \Delta \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \Psi(\alpha = 0)$$

So, for the discontinuity at  $x_1 = x_2$  ( $\alpha = 0$ ) we have:

$$\Delta \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \Psi(\alpha = 0) = 4c \Psi(\alpha = 0) \quad (2.1)$$

Assuming the wavefunction:

$$\Psi(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} A_+ e^{i(k_1 x_1 + k_2 x_2)} + A_- e^{i(k_2 x_1 + k_1 x_2)} & x_1 < x_2 \\ A_- e^{i(k_1 x_1 + k_2 x_2)} + A_+ e^{i(k_2 x_1 + k_1 x_2)} & x_1 > x_2 \end{cases}$$

and solving Equation 2.1 we find:

$$A_+ = e^{-\frac{i}{2}\phi(k_1 - k_2)}, \quad A_- = -e^{\frac{i}{2}\phi(k_1 - k_2)}$$

where

$$\phi(k) = 2 \arctan \frac{k}{c} \quad (2.2)$$

is known as the *scattering phase shift*.

Now, if we impose periodic boundary conditions  $\Psi(x, 0) = \Psi(x, L)$  (this also assumes a symmetric wavefunction), where  $L$  is the system length, we find a quantization for the momenta:

$$e^{ik_1 L} = e^{-i\phi(k_1 - k_2)}, \quad e^{ik_2 L} = -e^{-i\phi(k_2 - k_1)}$$

The above equations are the Bethe equations for two particles. Let's do a sanity check. In the limit  $c \rightarrow 0$ , we get:

$$e^{ik_1 L} = e^{ik_2 L} = 1$$

Which leads to the momentum quantization for particles on a ring of length  $L$  without interaction:

## 2.2 Solution for general N

---

$$k_1 L = 2\pi n_1, \quad k_2 L = 2\pi n_2$$

Where  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are integers.

Let's compute the energy and momentum of an eigenstate, that is labeled by a set  $\{k_j\}$ . For the energy, we compute  $H\Psi|_{x_1 < x_2}$ :

$$H\Psi = \left(-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2}\right)(A_+ e^{i(k_1 x_1 + k_2 x_2)} + A_- e^{i(k_2 x_1 + k_1 x_2)}) = (k_1^2 + k_2^2)\Psi = E\Psi$$

For the total momentum, we compute the eigenvalue of the momentum operator

$$\hat{P} = -i \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}$$

In this case:

$$\hat{P}\Psi = -i\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}\right)(A_+ e^{i(k_1 x_1 + k_2 x_2)} + A_- e^{i(k_2 x_1 + k_1 x_2)}) = (k_1 + k_2)\Psi = P\Psi$$

## 2.2 Solution for general N

For a more complete treatment, see [Fra11]. Our assumption for the wave-function is

$$\Psi(x_1, \dots, x_N | k_1, \dots, k_N)_{x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_N} = \sum_{P_N} A_P e^{i \sum_{j=1}^N k_{P_j} x_j}$$

Here,  $P_N$  denotes the permutations of the set of  $N$  integers. The  $A_P$  can be derived in the same way as the two particle case (by using the discontinuity in the derivate of  $\Psi$ .) The complete expression is:

$$\Psi(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \prod_{N \geq j > k \geq 1} \text{sgn}(x_j - x_k) \times \sum_{P_N} (-1)^{[P]} e^{i \sum_{j=1}^N k_{P_j} x_j + \frac{i}{2} \sum_{N \geq j > k \geq 1} \text{sgn}(x_j - x_k) \phi(k_{P_j} - k_{P_k})} \quad (2.3)$$

The periodicity conditions

$$\Psi(0, x_2, \dots, x_N | k_1, \dots, k_N) = \Psi(x_2, \dots, x_N, L | k_1, \dots, k_N)$$

Lead to the Bethe equations for general  $N$ :

$$e^{ik_j L} = (-1)^{N-1} e^{-i \sum_{l \neq j} \phi(k_j - k_l)} \quad j = 1, \dots, N$$

Which are more conveniently expressed in the log form:

$$k_j L = 2\pi I_j - \sum_{l=1}^N \phi(k_j - k_l) \quad j = 1, \dots, N \quad (2.4)$$

Where the  $I_j$  are integers when  $N$  is odd and half-integers when  $N$  is even. This is easily checked by taking the natural logarithm on both sides of the Bethe equations. From now on, we will use the (half-) integers  $I_j$  to label the eigenstates.

The energy and the total momentum generalize as follows:

$$E = \sum_{j=1}^N k_j^2, \quad P = \sum_{j=1}^N k_j$$

The total momentum can be expressed nicely in terms of  $I_j$ . Equation 2.4 divided by  $L$  gives us:

$$k_j = \frac{1}{L} (2\pi I_j - \sum_{l=1}^N \phi(k_j - k_l))$$

Now, summing over  $j$  gives us the total momentum:

$$P = \sum_{j=1}^N k_j = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{j=1}^N (2\pi I_j - \sum_{l=1}^N 2 \arctan \frac{k_j - k_l}{c})$$

Here, I used Equation 2.2, the definition of the scattering phase shift. But because  $\arctan -x = -\arctan x$ , the double sum over the scattering phase shifts gives zero.

$$\sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{l=1}^N 2 \arctan \frac{k_j - k_l}{c} = 0$$

And we are left with:

$$P = \frac{2\pi}{L} \sum_{j=1}^N I_j \tag{2.5}$$

## 2.3 The ground state

TODO:

- No degeneracy means no level crossing because...?

---

Let's try to describe the ground state. First, note that when two  $I$ 's are the same, for example  $I_1 = I_2$ , then also  $k_1 = k_2$ . This can be seen by subtracting the Bethe equations (Equation 2.4) for  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ .

$$(k_1 - k_2)L = 2\pi(I_1 - I_2) - \sum_{l=1}^N \phi(k_1 - k_l) - \phi(k_2 - k_l)$$

Setting  $k_1 = k_2$  satisfies the above equation, and since it can be proved ([Cau11]) that for a given set of  $I_j$ , a unique set of  $k_j$  can be found that satisfies the Bethe equations,  $k_1 = k_2$  does indeed hold.

If any two of the momentum parameters  $k_j$  are the same,  $\Psi$  is zero. This can be seen from Equation 2.3, which is asymmetric under the exchange of two momenta. When two  $k_j$  are the same, exchanging them obviously does not change the wave function. But since the asymmetry requires an extra minus sign, we have  $\Psi = -\Psi$ , or  $\Psi = 0$ .

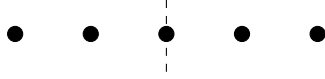
Physically, this can be interpreted as follows: two particles with the same momentum either never meet or, if they have the same position, always coincide, contributing infinitely to the energy due to the  $\delta$ -interaction. This gives a non-physical state and has to be avoided.

So this bosonic model has a fermionic character, in the sense that the momentum quantum numbers that label the eigenstates have to be different to get a non-zero wavefunction.

The ground state is labeled by the following  $I_j$ :

$$I_j = -\frac{N+1}{2} + j \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (2.6)$$

See Figure 2.1 for a visual representation.



**Figure 2.1:** A visual representation of the ground state for  $N = 5$ . The dashed line denotes zero, a black dot represents a (half) integer  $I_j$ . The  $I_j$  that label this state are -2, -1, 0, 1, 2.

From Equation 2.5 it can be easily checked that this state has zero momentum. To see that this state has the lowest energy, we look first at the case  $c \rightarrow \infty$ . Here, the Bethe equations Equation 2.4 reduce to

$$k_j L = 2\pi I_j$$

because the scattering phase shifts are all zero. The symmetric distribution of  $I_j$  Equation 2.6 clearly gives the lowest possible energy. If we now decrease the coupling constant  $c$ , the  $k_j$  will change values, because the scattering phase shifts are no longer zero. But since the  $I_j$  are quantized they cannot change. We have already seen that the ground state cannot be degenerate (because for a set  $I_j$ , there is a unique solution for the  $k_j$ ), so there can't be a level crossing upon changing  $c$ . Hence, Equation 2.6 labels the ground state for any  $c$ .

## 2.4 Excitations of the ground state

We can identify two fundamental excitations of the ground state: adding a particle with momentum  $k_p$  (**Type I**) and creating a hole (removing a particle) with momentum  $k_h$  (**Type II**).

### Type I excitations

Let's check what happens when we add a particle with a certain momentum  $k_p > 0$  to the ground state for  $N = 5$ . We start with the following quantum numbers:

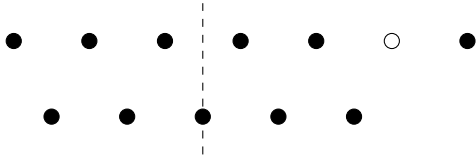
$$\{I_j\} = \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\}$$

Now we add a particle, increasing the number of particles from  $N$  to  $N + 1$ . It is important to realize that this excitation changes the quantum numbers  $I_j$  from integers to half integers or the other way around. The new state has quantum numbers

$$\{I_j\} = \left\{-\frac{5}{2}, -\frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2} + m\right\}$$

where  $m > 0$  and integer. This new state is created by taking the ground state of 6 particles and increasing by  $m$  the momentum of the highest particle. We could also have created the state  $\{-\frac{5}{2} - m, -\frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}\}$  by adding a particle with negative momentum. In general, for positive momentum, we go from Equation 2.6, the ground state, to

$$\{I_j\} = \left\{-\frac{N}{2}, -\frac{N}{2} + 1, \dots, \frac{N}{2} + m\right\}$$



**Figure 2.2:** Visual representation of a type I excitation of a ground state for  $N = 5$ ,  $m = 1$ . The bottom row represents the ground state and the top row, which has 6 particles, represents the excited state.

The momentum of the newly created state is

$$P = \frac{2\pi}{L}m \tag{2.7}$$

whereas the ground state had  $P = 0$ . This momentum change  $\frac{2\pi}{L}m$  is different from  $k_p$ , because by adding one particle with momentum  $k_p$ , we changed the momentum of all the particles. The momentum  $k_p$  is called the bare momentum, and  $P$  the observed momentum.

### Type II excitations

In a type II excitation, we remove a particle with momentum  $k_h$ , creating a hole. The number of particles decreases from  $N$  to  $N - 1$ . For a hole with positive momentum, we would go from the ground state, Equation 2.6, to the following state:

$$\{I_j\} = \left\{-\frac{N}{2} + 1, -\frac{N}{2} + 2, \dots, \frac{N}{2} - m - 1, \frac{N}{2} - m + 1, \dots, \frac{N}{2}\right\}$$

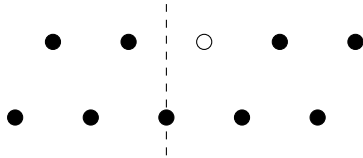
Again, we go from integers to half-integers or vice versa. The new state can be viewed as the ground state for  $N - 1$  particles, but with one momentum  $k_h$  absent, and an extra momentum one level above the highest momentum of the ground state. For our  $N = 5$  example, we would go from the ground state

$$\{I_j\} = \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\}$$

to, for example, the excited state

$$\{I_j\} = \left\{-\frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}\right\}$$

Here,  $m = 2$ , since we miss the  $I = \frac{1}{2}$  quantum number. You can check that the dressed momentum is the same as Equation 2.7.



**Figure 2.3:** Visual representation of a type II excitation for  $N = 5$ ,  $m = 2$ . The bottom row represents the ground state and the top row the excited state.

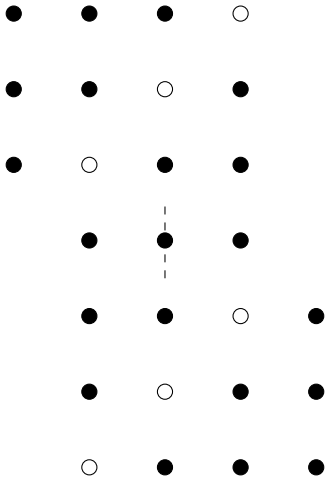


## 3 Density profile of a quasiparticle state

### 3.1 Definition

In this chapter we'll define a quasiparticle state, or a density notch state. This is a state that is localized in position space: it has a sharp notch in the density. To build such a state from momentum eigenstates, we have to sum over them. Let  $|P\rangle$  be the type II excitation with total (dressed) momentum  $\frac{2\pi p}{L}$ , as in Equation 2.7. The density notch state  $|\Psi\rangle$  for  $N$  particles is then defined as:

$$|\Psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{p=-N}^N e^{-2\pi i p q/N} |P\rangle \quad (3.1)$$



**Figure 3.1:** Visual representation of the density notch state for  $N = 3$  particles. The state  $|0\rangle$  with zero momentum is the ground state, drawn on row 4.

This gives a state with a density profile that has a notch at position  $\frac{qL}{N} + \frac{L}{2}$  [SKKD12a]. The factor  $e^{-2\pi i p q/N}$  in each term acts as a displacement operator. We will set  $q = 0$  from now on, so the expression reduces to

$$|\Psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{p=-N}^N |P\rangle$$

To see intuitively why summing over momentum eigenstates gives a state that is localized in position, consider the expansion of a general state  $|\Psi\rangle$  in eigenstates of the position operator:

$$|\psi\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx |x\rangle \langle x|\psi\rangle \quad (3.2)$$

Here,  $\langle x|\psi\rangle$  is the probability amplitude for the state  $|\psi\rangle$ . This means  $|\langle x|\psi\rangle|^2$  is the probability to get a value between  $x$  and  $x + dx$  when the position is measured.  $\langle x|\psi\rangle$  is usually denoted by  $\psi(x)$ .

Now, consider a momentum eigenstate

$$\hat{p}|p\rangle = p|p\rangle$$

Here,  $p$  is the eigenvalue of the operator  $\hat{p}$ . The representation of this state in terms of position eigenstates,  $\langle x|p\rangle$ , satisfies the following relation:

$$\hat{p}\langle x|p\rangle = -i\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\langle x|p\rangle = p\langle x|p\rangle$$

Evidently,  $\langle x|p\rangle$  is of the form  $C(p)e^{ipx}$ . Now, to write a general state  $|\psi\rangle$  in the momentum basis, take the inner product with  $\langle p|$  on both sides of Equation 3.2.  $\langle p|x\rangle$ , being the conjugate of  $\langle x|p\rangle$ , can be substituted by  $C(p)e^{-ipx}$ .

$$\langle p|\psi\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \langle p|x\rangle \langle x|\psi\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx C(p)e^{-ipx} \psi(x)$$

This is a fourier transform. To go from momentum space to position space, like in our case, we can do

$$\langle x|\psi\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp C(x)e^{ipx} \phi(p)$$

Summing with all coefficients equal to one gives a delta peak.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp e^{2\pi i p x} = \delta(x)$$

Since in our case, we sum over a finite amount of momentum states, we only obtain an approximate localized position state.

## 3.2 Density profile

The density operator is defined as

$$\hat{\rho}(x) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{x_j} \delta(x - x_j)$$

We evaluate its expectation value as function of time as:

$$\rho(x, t) = \langle \Psi | \hat{\rho}(x) | \Psi \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{p, p'=-N}^N \langle P(t) | \hat{\rho}(x) | P'(t) \rangle$$

Now  $|P(t)\rangle$  can be written as  $e^{-iE_p t} |P\rangle$  and we apply the translation operator

$$\hat{T}(a) = e^{-ia\hat{p}}$$

to shift the eigenstates  $|P\rangle$  to the origin by an amount  $x$ . We obtain:

$$\rho(x, t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{p, p'=-N}^N \langle P | \hat{\rho}(0) | P' \rangle e^{i(P-P')x - i(E_p - E_{p'})t} \quad (3.3)$$

The form factors  $\langle P | \hat{\rho}(0) | P' \rangle$  can be calculated by Slavnov's formula [Sla89], [Sla90], and the Gaudin-Korepin norm formula [KBI93]. The energy eigenvalues of the one-hole excitations  $E_p$  can be calculated by solving the Bethe equations numerically. Both the form factors and the energy eigenvalues have been computed with the ABACUS library, written by Jean-Sébastien Caux.

By numerically evaluating Equation 3.3, a movie of the density profile can be created.

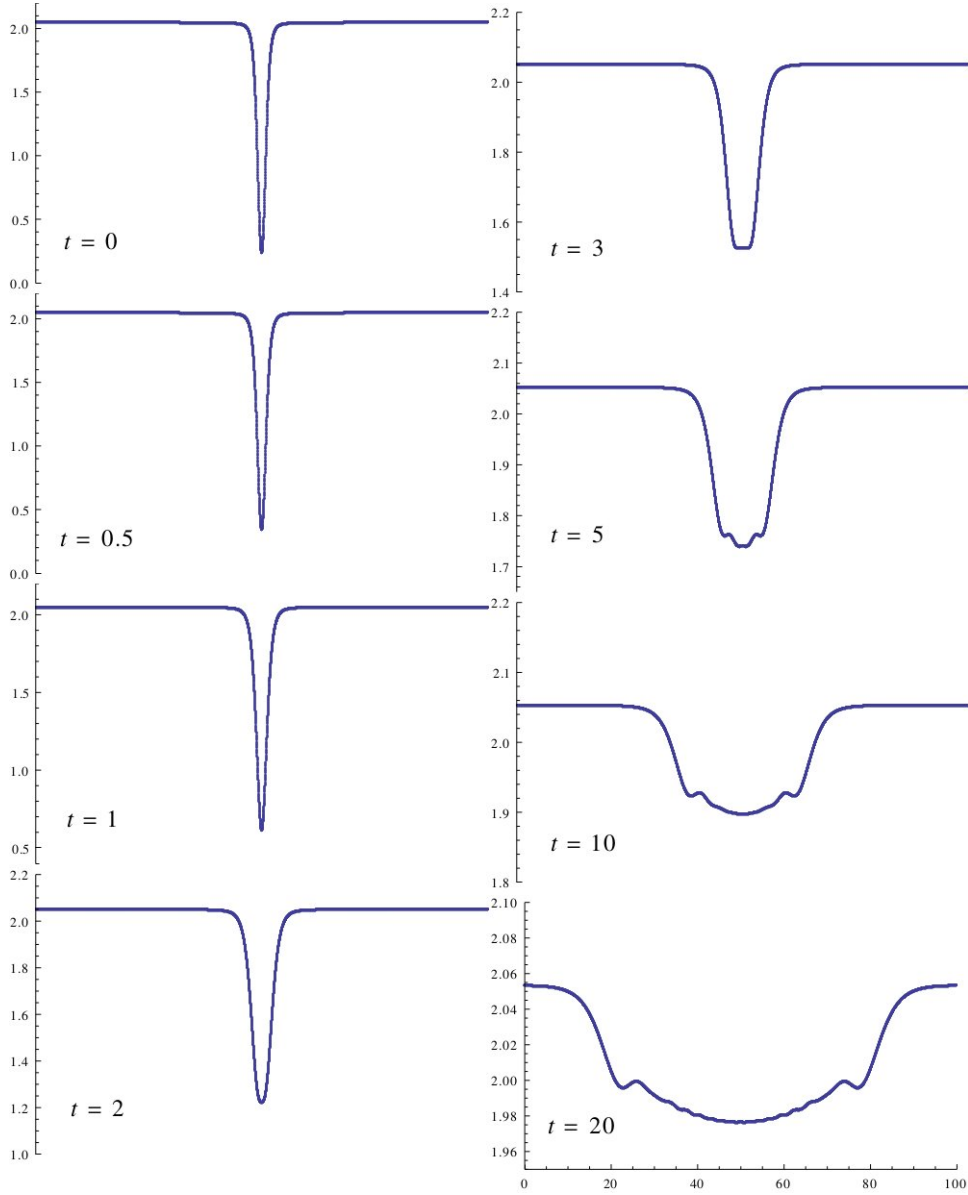
The density notch collapses and vanishes into the sea of particles. With this data, the findings of [SKD14] have been reproduced, but with a symmetric summation of momentum eigenstates (Equation 3.1), instead of a summation of only one-hole excitations with positive momentum, i.e.

$$|\Psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{p=1}^N |P\rangle \quad (3.4)$$

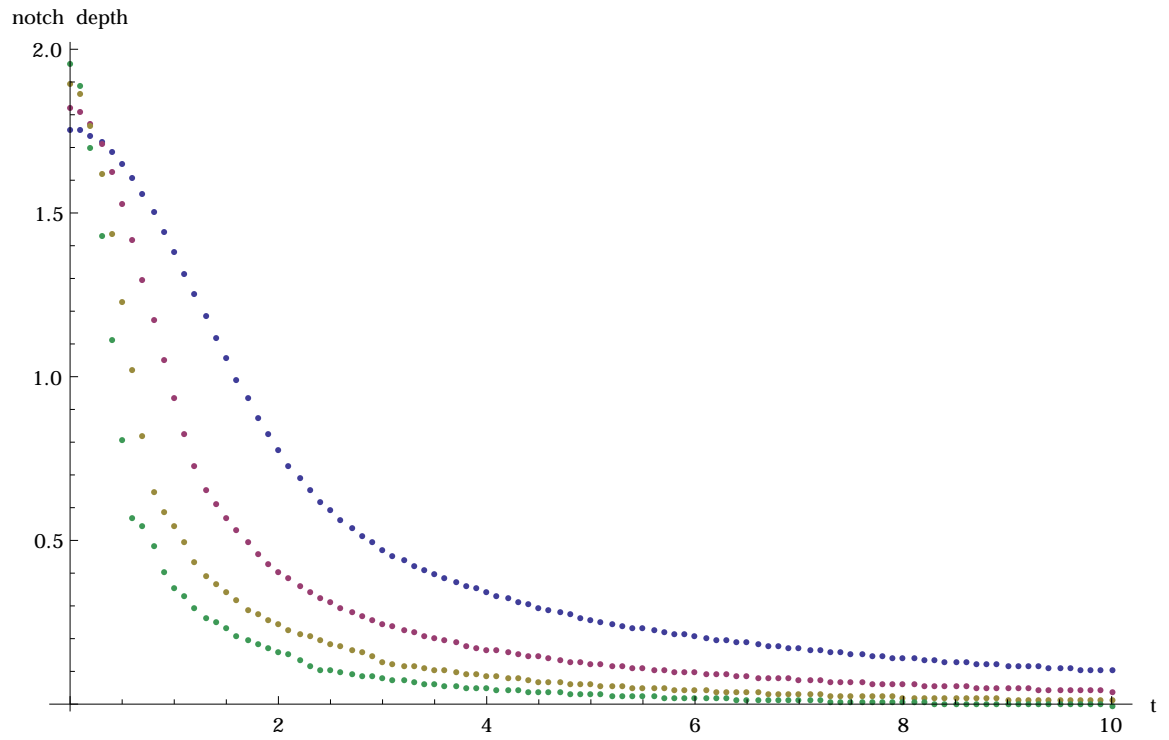
### 3.3 Notch depth as function of time

We define the notch depth  $d$  as the equilibrium density minus lowest density. The density notch is initially located at  $\frac{L}{2}$  (since we have set  $q = 0$ ), but splits into two notches that move into opposite directions with speed approximately  $\frac{2\pi}{L}$ . This approximation holds as long as the notch has not collapsed, i.e. the quasi-particle is intact. By taking the limit  $c \rightarrow 0$ , a non-collapsing notch can be created that shows soliton like behaviour, such as constant speed [SKKD12b]. The initial state in the referenced article is of the form Equation 3.4, so its density profile features a notch that travels in the positive direction.

Quasi-particle states with a higher interaction parameter  $c$  show a faster decay.



**Figure 3.2:** Scatter plot of the density profile for  $N = L = 100$ ,  $c = 1$ .



**Figure 3.3:** Notch depth decay for  $N = L = 100$ ,  $c = 1$  (blue dots),  $c = 2$  (red dots),  $c = 4$  (yellow dots),  $c = 8$  (green dots).

## 4 Decay behaviour of the quasi-particle

In this chapter we will investigate the decay behaviour shown in Figure 3.3. We will show that for large  $t$ , a  $\frac{1}{t}$  decay is expected. We need to evaluate the expression:

$$\rho(x, t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{p, p'=-N}^N \langle P | \hat{\rho}(0) | P' \rangle e^{i(P-P')x - i(E_p - E_{p'})t}$$

First, we will approximate this double sum as a double integral.

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{p, p'=-N}^N \langle P | \hat{\rho}(0) | P' \rangle e^{i(P-P')x - i(E_p - E_{p'})t} = \frac{1}{N} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} dp dp' A_p A_{p'} e^{-iE(p)t} e^{iE(p')t} \quad (4.1)$$

This integral can be approximated with a stationary phase approximation, which we will briefly review.

### 4.1 Stationary phase approximation

We can approximate oscillatory integrals of the following form:

$$\int dp g(p) e^{itf(p)}, \quad t \gg 1 \quad (4.2)$$

We will take advantage of the fact that in regions where  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial p} \neq 0$ , the oscillating function  $e^{itf(p)}$  kills the integral by destructive interference. So only the tiny regions around certain dominant frequencies  $\omega_i$  at which  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial p} = 0$  contribute to the value of the integral. In these regions,  $g(p)$  is essentially constant at  $g(\omega_i)$  and we Taylor-expand  $f(p)$  to second order about  $\omega_i$ :

$$f(p) = f(\omega_i) + \frac{f''(\omega_i)}{2}(p - \omega_i)^2$$

Here, the first order term is zero by definition of the points  $\omega$ . Now, Equation 4.2 can be approximated as:

$$\sum_i g(\omega_i) e^{itf(\omega_i)} \int_{\mathbb{R}} dp e^{it \frac{f''(\omega_i)}{2} (p - \omega_i)^2}$$

When  $t$  is large, even a small difference  $p - \omega_i$  leads to a highly oscillating integrand, resulting in no contribution to the total value of the integral. This allows us to freely expand the limits of the resulting integrals to  $-\infty$  and  $\infty$ . They are easily evaluated (after shifting  $\bar{p} = p - \omega_i$ ):

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} d\bar{p} e^{it \frac{f''(\omega_i)}{2} \bar{p}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{-it f''(\omega_i)}}$$

## 4.2 Approximation of decay behaviour using the stationary phase approximation

Now we will use a stationary phase approximation to show that the notch depth decays as  $\frac{1}{t}$  for large  $t$ . Equation 4.1 consists of two integrals of the form:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} dp A(p) e^{iE(p)t} \tag{4.3}$$

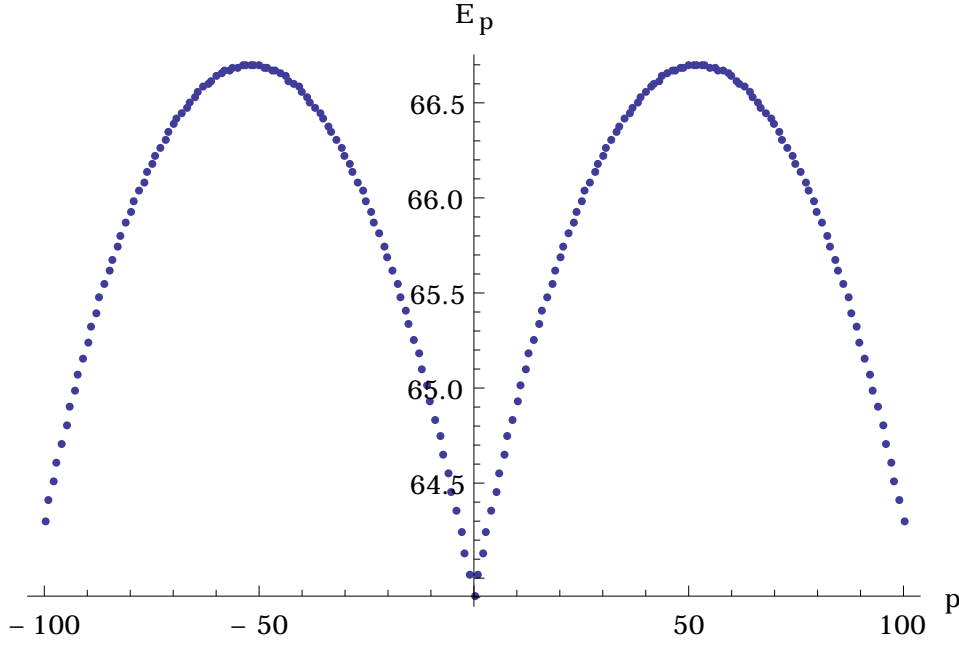
Figure 4.1 shows that our oscillatory term  $E(p)$  has two dominant frequencies at which  $\frac{dE}{dp} = 0$ . We label them  $p_+$  and  $p_-$ . We will focus on the frequency  $p_+$  and keep in mind that the reasoning for  $p_-$  is analogous.

We expand  $E$  about  $p = p_+$  to second order:

$$E(p) \approx E(p_+) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 E}{dp^2}(p_+) (p - p_+)^2 \equiv E(p_+) + \frac{1}{2} \alpha (p - p_+)^2$$

Here, we have defined  $\alpha \equiv \frac{d^2 E}{dp^2}(p_+)$ . We now have the integral:





**Figure 4.1:** Energy spectrum of the eigenstates of the  $N = L = 100$ ,  $c = 1$  quasi particle state.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} dp A(p_+) e^{it[E(p_+) + \frac{1}{2}\alpha(p-p_+)^2]} = \# \int_{\mathbb{R}} dp e^{\frac{it\alpha}{2}p^2}$$

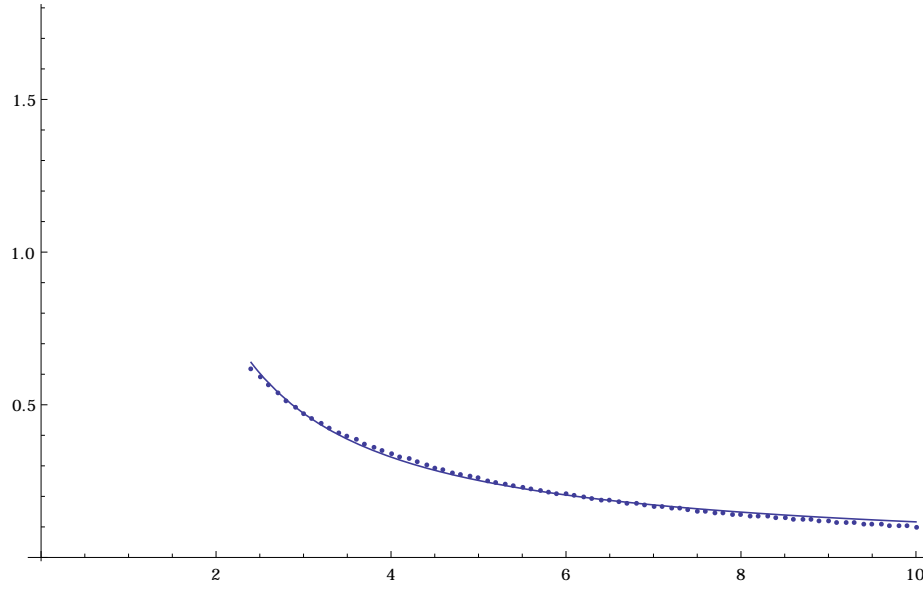
$\#$  denotes different real numbers that are not important in our reasoning. In the second step, we shifted the integral from  $p - p_L$  to  $p$ . Now a rescaling  $\bar{p} = p\sqrt{\alpha t}$  yields:

$$\frac{\#}{\sqrt{t}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} d\bar{p} e^{\frac{i}{2}\bar{p}^2}$$

Since we are left with an integral that does not depend on  $t$ , we can conclude that our original expression, Equation 4.3, has a  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{t}}$  dependence. The expression for the density, Equation 4.1 consists of two such integrals, so we expect the density to decay as  $\frac{1}{t}$  in the large  $t$  limit.

### 4.3 $\frac{1}{t}$ fit to numerically calculated notch depth

Figure 4.2 shows a fit to the model  $\frac{A}{t+B}$ , characterized by the parameters  $A$  and  $B$ .



**Figure 4.2:** Fit to numerically calculated values of the notch depth for  $N = L = 100$ ,  $c = 1$ . Only the values for  $t$  for which the peak is smaller than  $\frac{1}{e}$  times the original depth have been taken into account.

c	A	B
1	2.12261	0.958587
2	1.18083	0.517246
4	0.743117	0.32157
8	0.524958	0.227496

**Table 4.1:** Values for fit of a  $\frac{A}{t+B}$  model for different values of the interaction parameter  $c$ .  $N = L = 100$  for all values.

## 5 Conclusion

An initial state of a one dimensional repulsive Bose gas with notch in its density profile is studied. With a stationary phase approximation, it is shown that a  $\frac{1}{t}$  relationship for the relaxation process is expected. Numerically calculated values show a good fit to this approximation.



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