

Quasiparticles of boson gas

In Lecture IV we have discussed thermodynamic characteristics of a weakly interacting boson gas in equilibrium using the imaginary time formalism. The system has been described by means of the Lagrangian density

$$\mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \partial^\mu \phi(x) \partial_\mu \phi(x) - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2(x) - \frac{\lambda}{4!} \phi^4(x), \quad (1)$$

where $\phi(x)$ is the real scalar field, m is the mass parameter and λ is the coupling constant which is assumed to be a small number. We have found that the energy and pressure, which include the first order corrections, are

$$U = \frac{\pi^2 V T^4}{30} \left[1 - \frac{5\lambda}{64\pi^2} \right], \quad p = \frac{\pi^2 T^4}{90} \left[1 - \frac{5\lambda}{64\pi^2} \right]. \quad (2)$$

In this lecture properties of gas constituents – *quasiparticles* – will be studied applying the real-time formalism of statistical QFT. We will use again the Lagrangian density (1).

Dispersion equation

- Quasiparticles are either particles whose properties are modified due to particle interaction with a medium or they are particle-like collective excitations of a medium. In both cases the medium behaves as if it contained weakly interacting particles.
- The main characteristics of a quasiparticle is a dispersion relation which gives the energy as a function of momentum of a quasiparticle.
- In the absence of interaction, the dispersion equation is $p^2 - m^2 = 0$, and consequently, $E_{\mathbf{p}} = \pm \sqrt{m^2 + \mathbf{p}^2}$, where the sign + is for particles and – for antiparticles.
- The dispersion relation is determined by a position of a pole of the retarded Green's function. Since the retarded Green's function is, as we remember, of the form

$$\Delta^+(p) = \frac{1}{p^2 - m^2 + \Pi^+(p)}, \quad (3)$$

where $\Pi^+(p)$ is the self energy, the dispersion relation is a solution of the equation

$$\boxed{p^2 - m^2 + \Pi^+(p) = 0.} \quad (4)$$

- To grasp a physical meaning of the dispersion equation (4) it is useful to consider a field equation of motion

$$(\square + m^2) \langle \hat{\phi}(x) \rangle = \frac{1}{3!} \langle \hat{\phi}^3(x) \rangle, \quad (5)$$

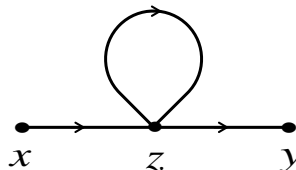


Figure 1: The first order contribution to the retarded Green's function

which is rewritten as

$$(\square + m^2)\langle\hat{\phi}(x)\rangle = \int d^4x' \Pi^+(x-x')\langle\hat{\phi}(x')\rangle, \quad (6)$$

where we have introduced the retarded self-energy to solve the equation as an initial value problem. Performing the Fourier transformation, we get

$$(p^2 - m^2 + \Pi^+(p))\langle\hat{\phi}(p)\rangle = 0. \quad (7)$$

- There is a nontrivial solution of the equation (7) if $p^2 - m^2 + \Pi^+(p) = 0$. So, we see that the dispersion equation provides a necessary condition for an existence of solutions to the field equation.
- The solution of Eq. (7) is of the form

$$\langle\hat{\phi}(p)\rangle \sim \delta(p^2 - m^2 + \Pi^+(p)), \quad (8)$$

and consequently,

$$\langle\hat{\phi}(x)\rangle \sim \sum_n C_n \exp \left[-i \left((\omega_n(\mathbf{p}) + i\gamma_n(\mathbf{p}))t - \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{r} \right) \right], \quad (9)$$

where $x \equiv (t, \mathbf{r})$ and $\omega_n(\mathbf{p}) + i\gamma_n(\mathbf{p})$ is a solution of the dispersion equation with the functions $\omega_n(\mathbf{p})$ and $\gamma_n(\mathbf{p})$ being both real.

- We note that the self energy $\Pi^+(p)$ is, in general, a complex valued function, and consequently a solution of the dispersion equation is complex.
- As one observes, the amplitude of the solution (9) is time dependent through the factor $e^{\gamma_n(\mathbf{p})t}$. When $\gamma_n(\mathbf{p}) < 0$, a quasiparticle excitation is damped or a quasiparticle has a finite lifetime $\tau = 1/|\gamma_n(\mathbf{p})|$. When $\gamma_n(\mathbf{p}) > 0$ the amplitude exponentially grows and we deal with an instability. When $\gamma_n(\mathbf{p}) = 0$, the quasiparticles are stable – the field amplitude is constant as a function of time.

First order dispersion relation

- The first order correction to the retarded Green's function is represented by the diagram shown in Fig. 11 and it is given as

$$\Delta_{(1)}^+(x-y) = \frac{i\lambda}{2} \int d^4z \Delta_0^+(x,z) \Delta_0^>(z,z) \Delta_0^+(z,y), \quad (10)$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\Delta_{(1)}^+(x) = \frac{i\lambda}{2} \Delta_0^>(0) \int d^4z \Delta_0^+(x-z) \Delta_0^+(z). \quad (11)$$

- As we remember, only the connected diagrams should be taken into account.
- After the Fourier transformation, the equation (11) becomes

$$\Delta_{(1)}^+(p) = \frac{i\lambda}{2} \Delta_0^>(x=0) \Delta_0^+(p) \Delta_0^+(p). \quad (12)$$

- Comparing the formula (12) with

$$\Delta^+(p) = \Delta_0^+(p) - \Delta_0^+(p) \Pi_{(1)}^+(p) \Delta_0^+(p), \quad (13)$$

one finds that

$$\Pi_{(1)}^+(p) = -\frac{i\lambda}{2} \Delta_0^>(x=0). \quad (14)$$

- Since

$$i\Delta_0^>(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{2\omega_{\mathbf{k}}} \left[(f(\omega_{\mathbf{k}}) + 1) e^{-ikx} + f(\omega_{\mathbf{k}}) e^{ikx} \right], \quad (15)$$

where the boson distribution function equals

$$f(\omega_{\mathbf{k}}) \equiv \frac{1}{e^{\beta\omega_{\mathbf{k}}} - 1}, \quad (16)$$

and $\omega_{\mathbf{k}} \equiv \sqrt{m^2 + \mathbf{k}^2}$, we have

$$\Pi_{(1)}^+(p) = -\frac{\lambda}{2} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{2f(\omega_{\mathbf{k}}) + 1}{2\omega_{\mathbf{k}}}. \quad (17)$$

- After performing the trivial angular integral, Eq. (17) becomes

$$\Pi_{(1)}^+(p) = -\frac{1}{8\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{dk k^2}{\sqrt{m^2 + k^2}} \frac{1 + e^{-\beta\sqrt{m^2+k^2}}}{1 - e^{-\beta\sqrt{m^2+k^2}}}. \quad (18)$$

- Since for $k \gg m$ and $k \gg T$ the integrand linearly grows with k , the integral in Eq. (18) is quadratically divergent. One observes that the divergence remains in the zero temperature limit that is when $\beta \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore, it is the ultraviolet divergence which is well known in vacuum QFT.
- To get a finite result one should subtract the vacuum contribution from the formula (18). Since $f(\omega_{\mathbf{k}}) = 0$ in vacuum, the subtraction is done as follows

$$\Pi_R^+(p) \equiv -\frac{\lambda}{2} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{2f(\omega_{\mathbf{k}}) + 1}{2\omega_{\mathbf{k}}} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{2\omega_{\mathbf{k}}} = -\frac{\lambda}{2} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{f(\omega_{\mathbf{k}})}{\omega_{\mathbf{k}}} \quad (19)$$

and $\Pi_R^+(p)$ is the renormalized self energy, which is finite, and it equals

$$\Pi_R^+(p) = -\frac{\lambda}{4\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{dk k^2}{\sqrt{m^2 + k^2}} \frac{1}{e^{\beta\sqrt{m^2+k^2}} - 1}. \quad (20)$$

- If $m \ll T$, we can put $m = 0$ under the integral (20). Then, one finds

$$\Pi_R^+(p) = -\frac{\lambda}{4\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{dk k}{e^{\beta k} - 1} = -\frac{\lambda T^2}{4\pi^2} \underbrace{\int_0^\infty \frac{dx x}{e^x - 1}}_{=\frac{\pi^2}{6}} = -\frac{\lambda T^2}{24}. \quad (21)$$

- Defining an effective mass of a quasiparticle as

$$m_*^2 \equiv m^2 - \Pi_R^+(m, \mathbf{p} = 0), \quad (22)$$

one finds that

$$m_*^2 = \frac{\lambda T^2}{24}, \quad (23)$$

if $m \ll T$.

- We see that bosons, which are massless in vacuum, become massive in the gas that is they acquire the thermal mass (23).
- Since $\Pi_{(1)}^+(p)$ is pure real, the quasiparticles are stable at the first order of perturbative expansion.