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Expansion of a quantum gas released from an optical lattice

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We analyze the interference pattern produced by ultracold atoms released from an optical lattice. Such interference patterns are commonly interpreted as the momentum distributions of the trapped quantum gas. We show that for finite time-of-flights the resulting density distribution can, however, be significantly altered, similar to a near-field diffraction regime in optics. We illustrate our findings with a simple model and realistic quantum Monte Carlo simulations for bosonic atoms, and compare the latter to experiments.

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Experiments with ultracold quantum gases in optical lattices rely heavily on time-of-flight (ToF) expansion to probe the spatial coherence properties of the trapped gas. When the phase coherence length is large compared to the lattice spacing, the post-expansion momentum distribution shows a sharp interference pattern with the same symmetry as the reciprocal lattice. As the phase coherence length decreases, e.g., on approaching the Mott insulator (MI) transition, the visibility of this interference pattern decreases accordingly. To obtain a more precise understanding beyond this qualitative description, it is usually assumed that the density distribution \( n_{\text{ToF}}(r) \) of freely expanding clouds provides a faithful map of the initial momentum distribution.

In this Letter, we point out that, in general, the ToF distribution differs from the momentum distribution for finite time-of-flight, the latter being recovered only in the "far-field" limit \( t \to \infty \). Practically, the ToF and momentum distributions become identical after a characteristic expansion time \( t_{\text{TF}} = m R_0 v_c / \hbar \), which depends on the particle mass \( m \), the coherence length \( v_c \), and the cloud size \( R_0 \) prior to expansion. This time scale can be understood in analogy with the diffraction of a coherent optical wave by a periodic grating. Then, the characteristic \( t_{\text{TF}} \) in the expansion problem exactly corresponds to the Fresnel distance in the diffraction problem. The far-field regime is typically reached when the coherence length is short, for example for a cloud in the MI regime, or a thermal gas well above the critical temperature. We show that for phase-coherent samples where a sizeable fraction of the atoms are Bose condensed, the far-field condition is usually not met for typical expansion times used in current experiments. Experimental measurements and quantum Monte-Carlo simulations are used to demonstrate that this results in substantial changes in the ToF distribution. We also discuss implications for the interpretation of the ToF images.

We consider an ultracold boson cloud released from a periodic trapping potential with cubic symmetry, lattice spacing \( d = \lambda_L / 2 \), and lattice depth \( V_0 \) given in units of the single-photon recoil energy \( E_R = h^2 / 2 m \lambda_L^2 \), where \( \lambda_L \) is the lattice laser wavelength. In addition to the lattice potential, an “external” harmonic potential is present, due to both the magnetic trap and the optical confinement provided by the Gaussian-shaped lattice beams. This external potential is responsible for the appearance of a shell structure of alternating MI and superfluid regions in the strongly interacting regime.

The density distribution after expansion for a time \( t \) is usually expressed as a product (see, e.g., [10]),

\[
n_{\text{ToF}}(r) = \left( \frac{m}{\hbar t} \right)^3 |\tilde{w}_0(k)|^2 S(k), \quad \text{with } k = \frac{m r}{\hbar t},
\]

where an envelope function \( \tilde{w}_0 \) is the Fourier transform of the on-site Wannier function \( w_0(r) \) and the interference term is

\[
S(k) = \sum_{\nu, r_\nu} e^{ik(r_\nu - r_\mu)} \langle \hat{a}_\nu | \hat{a}_\mu \rangle.
\]

Here the operator \( \hat{a}_\mu \) creates an atom at site \( r_\mu \). To assess the validity of the far-field approximation used in Eq. (1), we quickly outline its derivation. Neglecting interactions during expansion (see below), the atomic field operator can be expressed in Schrödinger’s picture as \( \Psi(r, t) = \sum_{\nu} W_\nu(r, t) \hat{a}_\nu \), where \( W_\nu(r, t = 0) = w_0(r - r_\nu) \). After the cloud is released, the wavefunction \( W_\nu \) evolves in free flight as \( W_\nu(r, t) \approx \left( \frac{m}{\hbar t} \right)^{3/2} \tilde{w}_0 \left( \frac{m(r - r_\nu)}{\hbar t} \right) e^{-i(m(r - r_\nu))^2 / \omega_L t} \) for \( \omega_L t \gg 1 \), with \( \omega_L \) the oscillation frequency at the bottom of a lattice well. In the limit \( t \to \infty \), the dependence
on the initial site position $r_\nu$ vanishes, and one recovers Eq. (1). For finite $t$, this dependence can be neglected in the envelope function $|\tilde{\psi}(k_z)|^2$, but not in the phase factor. We thus obtain a generalized interference term

$$S_t(k) = \sum_{r_\mu \neq r_\nu} e^{i k_z (r_\mu - r_\nu)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\tilde{\psi}(k_z)|^2}} \langle \hat{a}_\mu^\dagger \hat{a}_\nu \rangle.$$ (3)

Note that experimentally one observes a column distribution integrated along the probe direction, $S_{\perp}(k_{\perp}) = \int dk_z |\tilde{\psi}(k_z)|^2 S_t(k)$. This is included in latter comparison with experiments, but in the following we base our discussion on Eq. (3) for simplicity.

A fruitful analogy can be made with the theory of optical diffraction. The formation of the interference pattern results from the interference of many spherical matter waves emitted from each lattice site, with phase relationships reflecting the initial quantum state of the boson gas. We can exploit this analogy further by defining the equivalent of a Fresnel distance usually introduced in the theory of optical diffraction to estimate the importance of the quadratic phase factor $\propto r_\mu - r_\nu$. Because the correlation function $\langle \hat{a}_\mu^\dagger \hat{a}_\nu \rangle$ suppresses contributions from sites distant by more than the characteristic coherence length $l_c$, we can estimate the magnitude of the quadratic phase in Eq. (3) as $\frac{m^2}{2\hbar} (r_\mu - r_\nu)^2 \sim \frac{m^2}{2\hbar} l_c^2$ near the cloud center, and $\sim \frac{m l_c R_0}{\hbar}$ near the cloud edge. Here $R_0$ the characteristic size of the cloud before expansion. The most restrictive condition to apply the far-field approximation thus reads $t \gg t_{FF}$, with

$$t_{FF} \approx \frac{ml_c R_0}{\hbar}.$$ (4)

As an example, for a $^{87}$Rb condensate with $l_c \approx R_0 \approx 30 d$ and a lattice spacing $d \approx 400$ nm, one finds $t_{FF} \approx 100$ ms, much larger than typical expansion times $t \approx 20$ ms in experiments [12]. In contrast, a gas with short coherence length (e.g., in the MI regime), with $l_c \gg d$, will enter the far-field regime after a few ms. We stress that the quadratic Fresnel term is intrinsically non-local, as the dephasing between two particular points $r_\mu$ and $r_\nu$ depends not only on their relative separation but also on their absolute positions. Although this has little effect deep in the superfluid or in the MI phase, this casts serious doubts on the validity of a local density approximation to compute quantitatively the ToF distribution in regimes where the coherence length is intermediate between the cloud radius and the lattice spacing.

To illustrate the influence of Fresnel terms on the interference pattern, we consider a 1D lattice with uniform phase and parabolic distribution of the occupation numbers, $\langle \hat{a}_\mu^\dagger \hat{a}_\nu \rangle = c_\mu c_\nu$ with $c_\mu = \sqrt{1 + (\mu/N_{TF})^2}$. The ToF distribution is given by

$$S_t(k) = \frac{1}{(2N_{TF} + 1)\sum_{t=-N_{TF}}^{N_{TF}} c_\mu e^{ikl \beta/t^2} \bigg| \sum_{t=-N_{TF}}^{N_{TF}} c_\mu e^{ikl \beta/t^2} \bigg|^2,$$ (5)

with $k = kd$, $N_{TF} = R_0/d = 30$ the Thomas-Fermi condensate size in lattice units, and where $\beta = \sqrt{md^2/\hbar}$. The normalization factor $(2N_{TF} + 1)^2$ would give the peak amplitude if the filling factor were uniform. We plot in Fig. 1c, the distributions corresponding to $t = 20 ms \sim 0.2t_{FF}$ which shows a significant broadening of the distribution for short time of flight when compared to the asymptotic result. For longer expansion times $t \sim t_{FF} \sim 100$ ms, the far-field approximation is recovered to a good approximation.

Qualitatively, we expect from dimensional arguments that the peak width scales as $(\beta N_{TF})^2 = t_{FF}/t$ in the near-field, while approaching a constant value in the far-field. The peak height thus increases as $(t/t_{FF})^D$ in $D$ dimensions. This is confirmed by the one-dimensional calculation shown in Fig. 1b. This dependence provides a mean to check the importance of near-field effects experimentally. For the measurement, a sample of roughly $10^5$ $^{87}$Rb atoms has been been prepared in a three-dimensional optical lattice with a depth $V_0 = 6 E_R$, and subsequently released for expansion [14]. After recording a series of absorption images for different expansion times, the width of the interference peaks was extracted using a Gaussian fit to the images. We plot the results.
in Fig. 1, normalized to the separation between two diffraction peaks for convenience. The data confirms the $t_{\text{ToF}}/t$ scaling, indicating that the far-field asymptote is not reached even after the longest expansion time available in the experiment.

We now discuss briefly the effect of interactions on the expansion, and show that this is negligible compared to the finite ToF effect. When the cloud has just been released from the lattice potential, each on-site wavefunction $\psi_n$ expands independently with a characteristic expansion time $\omega_L^{-1}$, until $t \approx t^* = \sqrt{\hbar/\omega_L E_R}$ where the wavefunctions expanding from neighboring sites start to overlap. At this time, in the usual situation where $\omega_L t^* \gg 1$, the local density has dropped dramatically by a factor $(\omega_L t)^{-3} \ll 1$. Hence, the interaction energy converts into kinetic energy on the time scale of a few oscillation periods only, and expansion becomes rapidly ballistic. The parameter controlling the importance of interactions is given by $\eta = \frac{U}{\omega_L} \approx \sqrt{8\pi} \frac{\omega_n m}{\hbar} \left( \frac{V_0}{E_R} \right)^{1/4}$, with $U$ being the on-site interaction energy. For typical parameters, $\eta$ is small (for instance $\eta \approx 0.05$ for $V_0 = 10 E_R$ and the experimental parameters of [3]). Hence, we expect only small corrections to the non-interacting picture of ballistic expansion. This has been confirmed using a variational model of the expanding condensate wavefunction [15]. This model predicts that the ”Wannier” envelope expands faster as compared to the non-interacting case, which does not affect the interference pattern, and picks up a site-dependent phase factor formally similar to the Fresnel term discussed previously, but with a very weak prefactor $\eta \ll 1$ which has negligible influence in practice. We conclude that interactions essentially contribute to the expansion of the on-site wavefunctions, without significant dephasing of the interference pattern.

The discussion so far focused on fully phase-coherent systems, which only applies to the weakly-interacting regime at low lattice depths. To investigate how the interference pattern is affected for strongly interacting systems (i.e., on approaching the Mott transition and beyond), we have performed large-scale three-dimensional quantum Monte Carlo (QMC) simulations accounting for the external trapping potential using the worm algorithm [14, 17] in the implementation of Ref. [18]. The calculations were performed for $N = 8 \times 10^4$ atoms, using exactly the same parameters and system sizes (up to $\sim 200^3$) as in the experiments reported in [3]. The simulation was done at low constant temperature $T = J/k_B$, where $J$ is the hopping amplitude. Although simulations at constant entropy would be closer to the experimental situation, the temperature turns out to be approximately constant in this parameter regime [19].

The ToF distribution calculated for finite and infinite expansion times are shown in Fig. 2. The simulations confirm explicitly the analysis made above: the interference pattern is strongly affected in the superfluid phase, and the effect becomes less and less pronounced as the lattice depth is increased and the Mott transition crossed. Note finally that the Fresnel phase suppresses the contribution from the edges of the cloud, thus favoring the contribution of the central region to the ToF pattern. This is especially important when superfluid rings surround a central MI region with lower coherence [20].

The interference pattern is often characterized by its visibility $\mathcal{V}$:

$$\mathcal{V} = \frac{n_{\text{ToF}}(k_{\text{max}}) - n_{\text{ToF}}(k_{\text{min}})}{n_{\text{ToF}}(k_{\text{max}}) + n_{\text{ToF}}(k_{\text{min}})}$$

with the choice $k_{\text{max}} = (2\pi, 0)$ and $k_{\text{min}} = \sqrt{2}(\pi, \pi)$ to cancel out the Wannier envelope in the division. We first evaluate the sensitivity of $\mathcal{V}$ to the Fresnel phase by plotting in Fig. 3 two theoretical ”benchmark” curves assuming perfect experimental resolution (dashed and dotted lines for $t = 14$ ms). We find little difference between the two curves when $T/J$ is kept constant and small. Indeed, the Fresnel term only matters for systems with large coherence length, where the visibility is by construction very close to unity. We conclude that a detailed investigation of the superfluid side of the transition is better achieved by directly measuring

FIG. 2: Results from Quantum Monte Carlo simulations. On the left column, we show a horizontal cut through the ToF distributions for a finite expansion time $t = 14$ ms (solid line), compared to a cut through the profile calculated for $t \to \infty$ (dashed line). Units for $n_\perp$ are arbitrary. The insets show directly the two-dimensional ToF distributions for $t = 14$ ms. On the right column, we show the in-trap density profiles for reference. The lattice depths are $V_0 = 12E_R$ (a,d), $15E_R$ (b,e) and $17E_R$ (c,f), respectively.
FIG. 3: Visibility of the interference pattern as defined in Eq. (6). The dashed and dot-dashed lines show the Quantum Monte Carlo result for infinite and finite ($t = 14$ ms) expansion times, assuming perfect experimental resolution. The solid line is computed for $t = 14$ ms accounting for finite experimental resolution. Note that the comparison between experiment and simulation is only qualitative, since the simulations were performed at constant temperature $T = J/k_B$ while the experiment was not.

the ToF distributions, whereas the visibility is well-suited for short coherence lengths.

We also compare in Fig. 3 the experiments reported in [4] to the predictions of the QMC simulations (solid line). Here, we emphasize that apart from the Fresnel terms, an accuracy comparison requires to account for the experimental resolution, which is limited by two effects. First, the signal was obtained by integration over a square box centered around the maxima or minima, the integration area being $\approx (0.11 \times 2\pi/d)^2$ in momentum units. This is comparable to a typical peak area, so that the visibility is calculated from the peak weight, rather than from its amplitude. Second, the finite resolution of the imaging system (about 6 $\mu$m) is not negligible for the sharpest peaks. Accounting for these two effects when evaluating the QMC data, we find good agreement with the experimental resolution, which is limited by two effects. First, the signal was obtained by integration over a square box centered around the maxima or minima, the integration area being $\approx (0.11 \times 2\pi/d)^2$ in momentum units. This is comparable to a typical peak area, so that the visibility is calculated from the peak weight, rather than from its amplitude. Second, the finite resolution of the imaging system (about 6 $\mu$m) is not negligible for the sharpest peaks. Accounting for these two effects when evaluating the QMC data, we find good agreement with the experimental resolution.

In conclusion, we have analyzed the interference pattern observed in the expansion of a bosonic quantum gas released from an optical lattice. We showed that due to an additional Fresnel-like phase appearing for finite time of flight, the ToF distribution can be markedly different from the momentum distribution for clouds with large coherence lengths. Conversely, the visibility as calculated from Eq. (6) is rather insensitive to this effect.

The Fresnel phase acts as a magnifying lens for the central region undergoing a Mott insulator transition by suppressing the contribution of the outer regions of the cloud when the central density is close to integer filling. This could eventually provide a way to investigate the physics near the quantum-critical point without "parasitic" contributions coming from coexisting superfluid rings.

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[11] Replacing $\tilde{w}_0 (k = \sqrt{p^2 + \bold{q}^2})$ by $\tilde{w}_0 (k = \sqrt{p^2})$ requires $t \gg R_0/\omega_L$, $R_0/d\sqrt{\omega_k E_R/\hbar}$, or $t \gg 1$ ms for parameters as assumed in the text.
[12] This was independently established in [14], although the impact on the ToF distribution was not analyzed.
[14] The lattice beams used for this particular measurement have wavelengths $\lambda_x = 765$ nm for one axis $x$, and $\lambda_{y,z} = 843$ nm for the other two axis. The lattice depths are chosen such that the tunneling along the $x$-direction is equal to that along $y, z$. The experiment is otherwise identical to that described in [4].