

# Chapter 26

## Quantum Lattice Boltzmann Study of Random-Mass Dirac Fermions in One Dimension



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**Abstract** We study the time evolution of quenched random-mass Dirac fermions in one dimension by quantum lattice Boltzmann simulations. For nonzero noise strength, the diffusion of an initial wave packet stops after a finite time interval, reminiscent of Anderson localization. However, instead of exponential localization we find algebraically decaying tails in the disorder-averaged density distribution. These qualitatively match a  $x^{-3/2}$  decay, which has been predicted by analytic calculations based on zero-energy solutions of the Dirac equation.

### 26.1 Introduction

It is a great pleasure, let alone honor, to present this contribution to a Festschrift volume on the occasion of Prof. Norman H. March 90th birthday. Prof. March made many distinguished contributions across a broad variety of topics in classical and quantum statistical physics; in the following we present a computational investigation

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along the latter direction, namely the transport properties of random-mass Dirac fermions in 1 + 1 dimensions.

Disorder plays an important role in many physical systems, ranging from topological materials [1–4] to transport properties affected by impurities, superconductors [5] and glasses [6]. In condensed matter physics, a prominent effect of disorder is exponential Anderson localization of the electronic wavefunction [7], which has been experimentally observed in Bose-Einstein condensates [8]. Nevertheless, around critical points there can be transitions away from the localized phase [9–11]. In one dimension, similarities between these delocalized phases and classical particle motion in a stationary random potential with a variety of diffusion laws [12–14] have been pointed out, including anomalously slow Sinai diffusion  $|x| \propto \log(t)^2$  [4].

In this work, we study the time evolution dynamics governed by a prototypical random-mass Dirac equation in one dimension, and investigate the fate of an initial Gaussian wave packet. The general framework is similar to a recent related work [15], except for the numerical quantum lattice Boltzmann approach pursued here, and different versions of the Dirac equation. Specifically, using the Majorana representation and projecting upon chiral eigenstates (and setting  $\hbar = 1$ ), the Dirac equation considered here reads

$$(i\partial_t + ic\sigma^z\partial_x + c^2m(x)\sigma^y)\psi(x, t) = 0, \quad (26.1)$$

where  $\psi(x, t)$  is a two-component spinor,  $\sigma^\alpha$  are the Pauli matrices,  $c$  the speed of light, and  $m(x)$  is the spatially dependent mass. We model quenched disorder by taking  $m(x)$  as a Gaussian white noise random variable with mean  $m_0$  and noise strength  $\lambda$ :

$$\langle(m(x) - m_0)(m(x') - m_0)\rangle = 2\lambda\delta(x - x'). \quad (26.2)$$

The spinor  $\psi = (u, d)^T$  consists of the chiral right-moving ( $u$ ) and left-moving ( $d$ ) states. The stationary version of Eq. (26.1) (without the time derivative) has been identified as an effective theory in a tight-binding model of spinless fermions [9].

The dynamics governed by Eq. (26.1) conserves total density and energy. For example, the local density

$$\rho = |\psi|^2 = |u|^2 + |d|^2 \quad (26.3)$$

obeys the conservation law

$$\partial_t\rho(x, t) + \partial_x J_\rho(x, t) = 0 \quad (26.4)$$

with the density current

$$J_\rho(x, t) = c(|u|^2 - |d|^2). \quad (26.5)$$

We will see in the numerical simulations that  $\psi(x, t)$  converges to a stationary state for  $\lambda > 0$ ; this stationary state can thus be compared to the zero-energy solution studied in [9]:  $\psi(x) = \psi_\pm(x)\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \mp 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , with the scalar function  $\psi_\pm(x)$  satisfying

$$(\partial_x \pm cm(x))\psi_{\pm}(x) = 0. \quad (26.6)$$

For “critical” zero average mass ( $m_0 = 0$ ), this results in the log-normally distributed wavefunction

$$\psi_{\pm}(x) \propto e^{\pm \int_0^x cm(x')dx'}, \quad (26.7)$$

which deviates from exponential localization. By a mapping to Liouville field theory, the disorder-averaged spatial correlations of the wavefunction, Eq. (26.7), can be computed analytically [9, 10, 16], resulting in an *algebraic* (instead of exponential) decay with exponent  $-3/2$ :

$$\langle |\psi(x)|^2 |\psi(0)|^2 \rangle \propto |x|^{-3/2}. \quad (26.8)$$

Thus, disorder in the random mass distribution does not lead to Anderson localization if the average mass is zero.

## 26.2 Quantum Lattice Boltzmann Method

Equation (26.1) lends itself to a lattice Boltzmann discretization for the spinor components  $u$  and  $d$ , as observed in Refs. [17–19]. The propagation step consists of streaming  $u$  and  $d$  along the  $x$ -axis with opposite speeds  $\pm c$ , while the collision step is performed according to the scattering term  $c^2 m(x) \sigma^y \psi$ . Integrating Eq. (26.1) along the characteristics of  $u$  and  $d$ , respectively, and approximating the collision integral by the trapezoidal rule, the following relations are obtained:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{u} - u &= \tilde{m}(d + \hat{d})/2 \\ \hat{d} - d &= -\tilde{m}(u + \hat{u})/2, \end{aligned} \quad (26.9)$$

where  $\hat{u} = u(x + \Delta x, t + \Delta t)$ ,  $\hat{d} = d(x - \Delta x, t + \Delta t)$ ,  $\Delta x = c\Delta t$ , and  $\tilde{m} = c^2 m \Delta t$ . Algebraically solving the linear system, Eqs. (26.9), yields the explicit scheme

$$\begin{pmatrix} \hat{u} \\ \hat{d} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix}, \quad (26.10)$$

with

$$a = (1 - \tilde{m}^2/4)/(1 + \tilde{m}^2/4), \quad b = \tilde{m}/(1 + \tilde{m}^2/4).$$

Note that, since  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ , the collision matrix is unitary, thus the method is unconditionally stable and norm-preserving.

## 26.3 Numerical Simulation Results

We start from a “wave packet” initial state given by

$$\psi(x, 0) \equiv \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix} = (\sqrt{8\pi}\sigma)^{-1/2} e^{-x^2/4\sigma^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (26.11)$$

with the standard deviation  $\sigma$  measuring the width of the wave packet, and the normalization chosen such that  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(x, t) dx = 1$  at  $t = 0$ . Due to density conservation, this relation holds for all  $t$ .

Table 26.1 lists the simulation parameters in detail. The speed of light  $c = \Delta x / \Delta t = 1$ , and the physical simulation domain is the interval  $[-64, 64]$ .

Equation (26.2) suggests to draw a random  $m(x_i)$  independently at each grid point  $x_i$ . However, this would render the simulation sensitive to the grid spacing  $\Delta x$ . Instead, we draw independent Fourier coefficients up to some cut-off Fourier mode  $n_{\text{cut}}$ , and then transform to real space to obtain a random mass realization. Thus, the grid resolution is much finer than random mass oscillations. The random mass correlations obtained by this procedure decay on a length scale  $x - x' = \Delta x L / (2n_{\text{cut}})$ . This quantity is chosen small compared to the width of the initial wave packet, in order to approximate the delta function in Eq. (26.2).

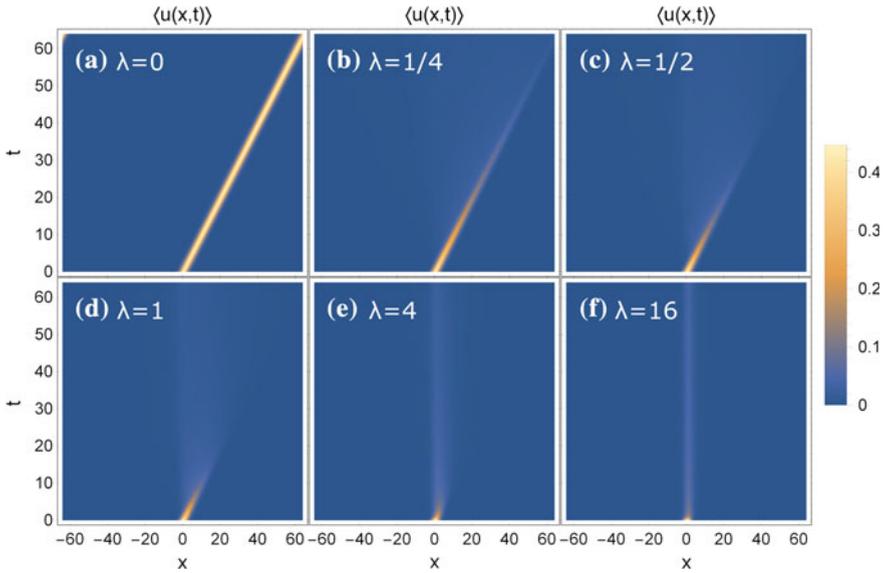
Figure 26.1 shows  $\langle u(x, t) \rangle$  for various values of  $\lambda$ , for zero average mass ( $m_0 = 0$ ). In the absence of noise ( $\lambda = 0$ ), there is no scattering term in the Dirac equation, and the  $u$  and  $d$  waves freely propagate to the right and left, respectively. For  $\lambda > 0$ , the right-moving ray is continuously diminished over time due to scattering. As  $\lambda$  increases, the wave packet remains more and more tied to the origin.

Figure 26.2 visualizes the corresponding density profiles  $\langle \rho(z, t) \rangle$  for the same simulations. For any  $\lambda > 0$ , one observes remnant density centered around the origin. The density profile remains stationary at later times.

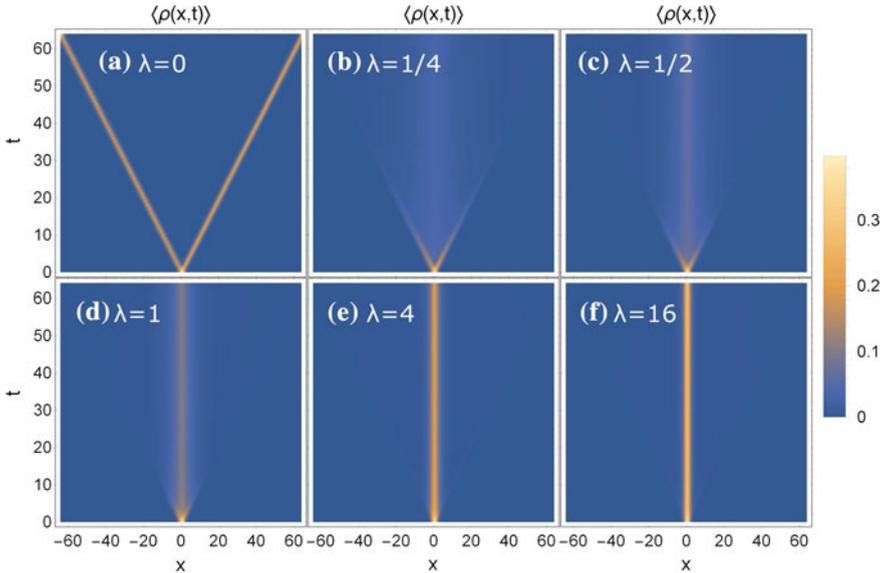
To analyze the noise-averaged density quantitatively, Fig. 26.3 shows the density profile on a logarithmic scale at  $t = 60$ , when it has (almost) reached stationarity between the left- and right-moving sound peaks around  $x \simeq \pm 60$ . The density decays exponentially with respect to  $|x|$  for  $0 < \lambda \lesssim 1$ , different from the predicted algebraic

**Table 26.1** Simulation parameters

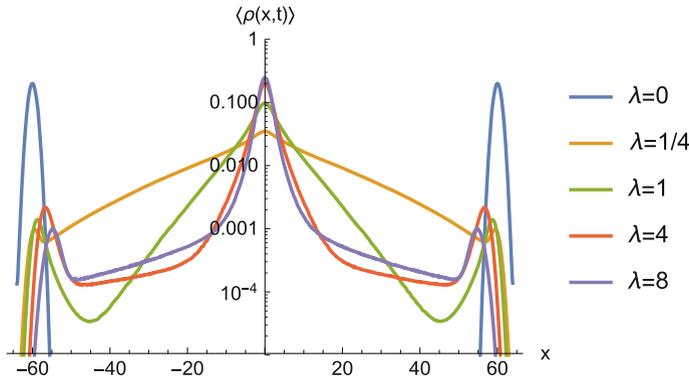
$L$	2048	System size (number of grid points) with periodic boundary conditions
$\Delta x$	1/16	Grid spacing
$\Delta t$	1/16	Time step
$\sigma$	1	Standard deviation of initial spinor
$n_{\text{runs}}$	$10^5$	Number of random mass realizations (simulation runs) to compute averages (...)
$n_{\text{cut}}$	256	Cut-off Fourier mode of random mass distribution



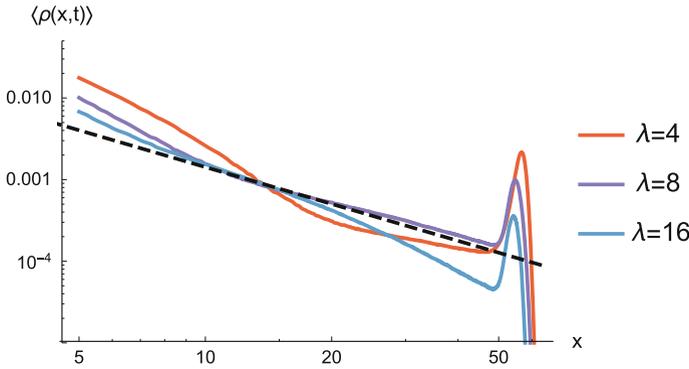
**Fig. 26.1** Average  $\langle u(x, t) \rangle$  profile for increasing noise strength of the random mass distribution, and  $m_0 = 0$



**Fig. 26.2** Average density  $\langle \rho(x, t) \rangle$  for increasing noise strength of the random mass distribution, and  $m_0 = 0$



**Fig. 26.3** Average density  $\langle \rho(x, t) \rangle$  at  $t = 60$  on a logarithmic scale, for  $m_0 = 0$



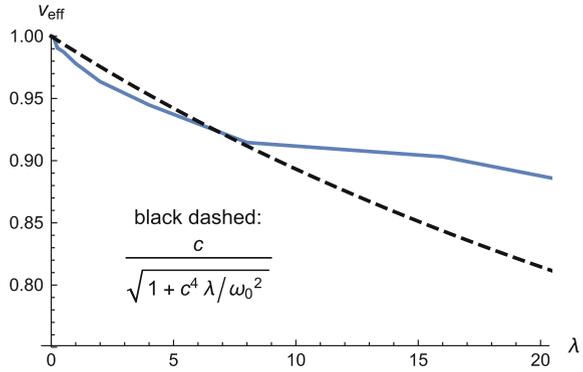
**Fig. 26.4** Average density  $\langle \rho(x, t) \rangle$  at  $t = 60$  on a log-log scale, for  $m_0 = 0$ . For comparison, the black dashed line is  $\propto x^{-3/2}$

decay in Eq. (26.8). One explanation could be that the algebraic decay sets in at larger  $|x|$ . On the other hand, for  $\lambda \gtrsim 4$ , one observes a transition from exponential to slower-decaying tails. (Note that for the particular initial condition used in our simulations, we find that the density correlation between the the origin and  $x$  is proportional to the density profile.)

Figure 26.4 shows these tails on a log-log scale, which indeed ascertains an algebraic decay at larger  $|x|$ . Between  $20 < x < 45$ , the curve for noise strength  $\lambda = 4$  decays somewhat slower, the  $\lambda = 16$  curve somewhat faster, and the  $\lambda = 8$  curve almost exactly as the black dashed  $\propto x^{-3/2}$  line based on the theoretical prediction, Eq. (26.8).

The logarithmic scale in Fig. 26.3 shows that the outward-moving sound peaks are present also for  $\lambda \geq 1$ , even though not visible in Fig. 26.2. The effective sound velocity  $v_{\text{eff}}$  (measured via the peak maximum) monotonically decreases with noise strength, as expected (see Fig. 26.5).

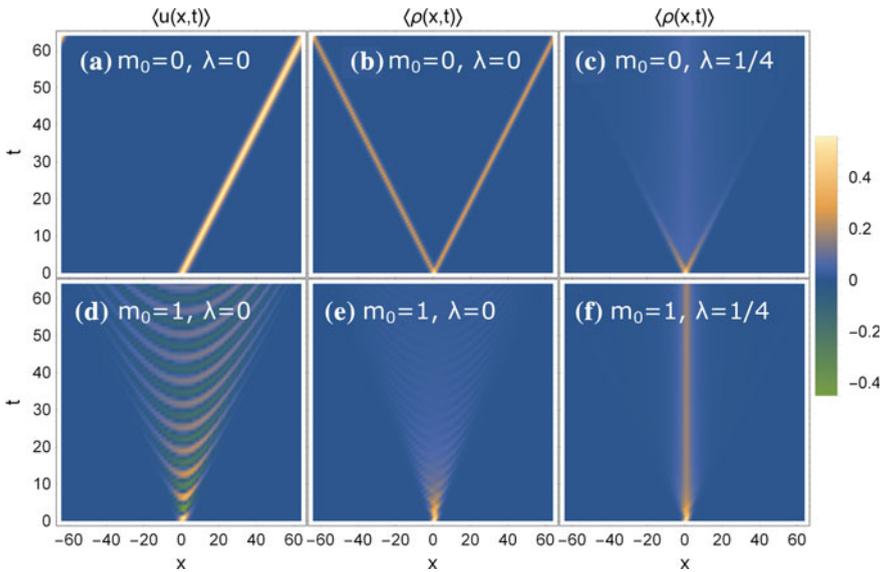
**Fig. 26.5** Measured sound velocity in dependence of noise strength  $\lambda$ , for  $m_0 = 0$



Solutions of the free Dirac equation also solve the Klein–Gordon equation with dispersion relation  $\omega^2 = (ck)^2 + \omega_c^2$ , where  $\omega_c = c^2 m / \hbar$  is the Compton frequency. The corresponding sound speed is therefore

$$V_{KG} = \partial_k \omega = \frac{c}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega_c / (ck))^2}}. \tag{26.12}$$

The wave number  $k$  should be inversely proportional to the spatial extent of the wave packet; thus we approximate  $ck \simeq \omega_0$  with  $\omega_0 = 2\pi c / \sigma$ . For the Compton

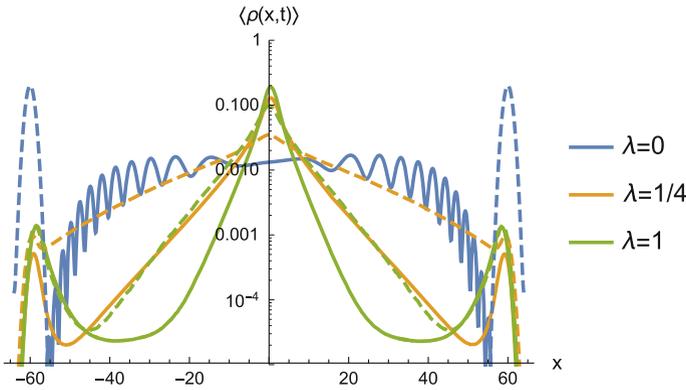


**Fig. 26.6** Comparison of the  $\langle u(x, t) \rangle$  profile and density  $\langle \rho(x, t) \rangle$  for  $m_0 = 0$  (top row) with  $m_0 = 1$  (bottom row)

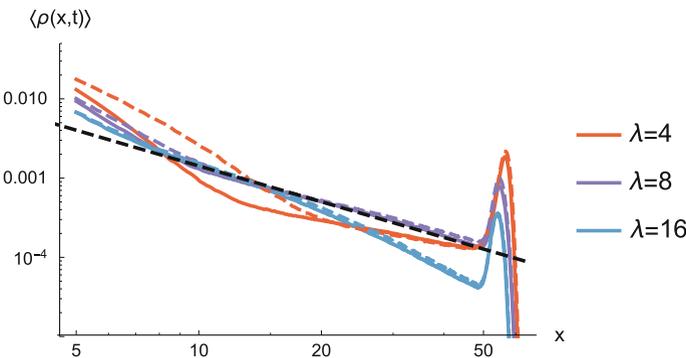
frequency, we use  $\sqrt{\lambda}$  as proxy for the mass term, and set  $\hbar = 1$  as before. This results in the black dashed curve in Fig. 26.5, which indeed qualitatively reproduces the measured sound velocity up to  $\lambda \lesssim 8$ .

Tuning away from zero average mass should result in “conventional” exponentially localized wavefunctions (see also Eq. (26.7)) at zero-energy. Figure 26.6 directly compares hitherto  $m_0 = 0$  simulations with  $m_0 = 1$ . Without disorder ( $\lambda = 0$ ), the  $u$  (and  $d$ ) component exhibits a parabola-shaped stripe pattern (see Fig. 26.6d), instead of linear propagation. The corresponding density has a more uniform profile. When including disorder ( $\lambda = 1/4$ ), one notices that the average density is more strongly confined for  $m_0 = 1$  (Fig. 26.6f) than for  $m_0 = 0$  (Fig. 26.6c).

This stronger confinement is confirmed in Fig. 26.7, which compares the densities on a logarithmic scale for  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ . Besides the oscillatory pattern at  $\lambda = 0$ , the density for  $m_0 = 1$  decays faster than for  $m_0 = 0$  at fixed  $\lambda > 0$ .



**Fig. 26.7** Average density  $\langle \rho(x, t) \rangle$  for  $m_0 = 1$  (solid lines) compared to  $m_0 = 0$  (dashed lines, same data as in Fig. 26.3)



**Fig. 26.8** Average density  $\langle \rho(x, t) \rangle$  on a log-log scale for  $m_0 = 1$  (solid lines) compared to  $m_0 = 0$  (dashed lines, same data as in Fig. 26.4)

Figure 26.8 compares the densities on a log-log scale for  $\lambda \geq 4$ . Somewhat surprisingly, the non-zero average mass  $m_0 = 1$  does not affect the algebraic decay, although one would expect exponential decay away from the “critical”  $m_0 = 0$ . An explanation could be that large values of the noise override small changes in the average mass.

## 26.4 Conclusions and Outlook

We have shown that quantum lattice Boltzmann methods can efficiently simulate the real-time dynamics of the single-particle Dirac equation, Eq. (26.1), for random-mass fermions in one spatial dimension. Since the quantum lattice Boltzmann scheme is not limited to one-dimensional systems [20], for the future it would be interesting to study the transport properties of random-mass fermions in two and three spatial dimensions. Besides analyzing stationary properties, lattice Boltzmann simulations of the Dirac equation could also be used for investigating the time dynamics of out-of-equilibrium systems, including, e.g., thermalization and quasiparticle lifetime, cf. [21]. Work along the lines is currently underway.

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