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Majorana Zero Modes in 1D Quantum Wires Without Long-Ranged Superconducting Order

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We show that long-ranged superconducting order is not necessary to guarantee the existence of Majorana fermion zero modes at the ends of a quantum wire. We formulate a concrete model which applies, for instance, to a semiconducting quantum wire with strong spin-orbit coupling and Zeeman splitting coupled to a wire with algebraically-decaying superconducting fluctuations. We solve this model by bosonization and show that it supports Majorana fermion zero modes. We show that electron backscattering in the superconducting wire, which is caused by potential variations at the Fermi wavevector, generates quantum phase slips which cause a splitting of the topological degeneracy which decays as a power law of the length of the superconducting wire. The power is proportional to the number of channels in the superconducting wire. Other perturbations give contributions to the splitting which decay exponentially with the length of either the superconducting or semiconducting wires. We argue that our results are generic and apply to a large class of models. We discuss the implications for experiments on spin-orbit coupled nanowires coated with superconducting film and for LaAlO3/SrTiO3 interfaces.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Kitaev1 showed that a class of superconducting quantum wires supports a pair of Majorana fermion zero modes, one at each end. Lutchyn et al.2 and Oreg et al.3 discovered that, in the presence of a parallel magnetic field, semiconducting wires with strong spin-orbit coupling fall in this class if superconductivity is induced by proximity to a bulk 3D superconductor, see Fig. 1. As a result of the Majorana zero modes, the ground state is doubly degenerate. The two states differ by fermion parity, which is not locally measurable; therefore, they form a protected qubit. Networks of such semiconducting wires have been proposed for topological quantum information processing4–7.

Long-ranged superconducting order is an essential feature of these analyses. Though such order is sufficient, it does not seem necessary. Protected Majorana zero modes also exist in models of the 5/2 fractional quantum Hall state8–13 and in Kitaev’s honeycomb lattice spin model14, and neither of these systems has long-ranged superconducting order. Therefore, one might expect that a quantum wire with strong superconducting fluctuations but no long-ranged order could also support Majorana fermion zero modes. Consider, on the other hand, a spinless one-dimensional Luttinger liquid, which has algebraic order, i.e. the two-point correlation function of the superconducting order parameter decays to zero as a power of the separation, rather than approaching a constant. Such a system has gapless bulk fermionic excitations, so if Majorana fermion zero modes were found at the ends of such a model, there would be nothing protecting them against small perturbations. Furthermore, in the absence of superconducting order, the two states of a pair of Majorana fermion zero modes would have different electric charges – and not merely fermion parity. Simply changing the electrostatic potential should cause an energy splitting between states with different electric charges. Therefore, one might, instead, conclude that long-ranged superconducting order is necessary to protect Majorana fermion zero modes in quantum wires.

In this paper, we show that this is not the case. We construct a model of a spin-orbit coupled semiconducting wire in a magnetic field which is coupled to an s-wave superconducting wire with power-law order. A schematic picture of such a heterostructure is depicted in Fig. 2. We show that this model supports Majorana fermion zero modes at the ends of the wire. However, a single wire does not support a qubit; at least two wires are needed. The basic idea is simple. Consider Kitaev’s1 model of a superconducting quantum wire of spinless fermions.

\[ \mathbf{H} = -t \sum_i (c^\dagger_i c_{i+1} + e^{i\gamma} c^\dagger_i c_{i+1}) + |\Delta| \sum_i (e^{i\phi} c_i c_{i+1} - e^{-i\phi} c^\dagger_i c^\dagger_{i+1}) \] (1)

Here, \( \phi \) is the phase of the superconducting order parameter. Let us assume, for the moment, that \( \phi \) is a constant, as in Kitaev’s original paper1 and in Refs. 2,3. If we rotate the fermion operators to the local value of the phase of the order parameter: \( c_i \rightarrow e^{-i\phi/2} \hat{c}_i \), then the Hamiltonian takes the form

\[ \mathbf{H} = -t \sum_i (\hat{c}_{i+1}^\dagger \hat{c}_i + \hat{c}_i^\dagger \hat{c}_{i+1}) + |\Delta| \sum_i (\hat{c}_i \hat{c}_{i+1} - \hat{c}_i^\dagger \hat{c}_{i+1}^\dagger) \] (2)

At the special point \( t = |\Delta| \), this Hamiltonian can be diagonalized by introducing the Majorana fermion operators \( \gamma_{2i-1} = \hat{c}_i + \hat{c}_i^\dagger \), \( \gamma_{2i} = (\hat{c}_i - \hat{c}_i^\dagger)/i \):

\[ \mathbf{H} = i|\Delta| \sum_i \gamma_{2i+1} \gamma_{2i+1} \] (3)

These operators satisfy \( \gamma_i = \gamma_i^\dagger \) and \( \{\gamma_i, \gamma_j\} = 2\delta_{ij} \). Note that \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \gamma_{2N} \) do not appear in the Hamiltonian. Therefore, the ground state is doubly degenerate: \( i\gamma_1 \gamma_{2N} \) can be either \( \pm 1 \) while \( i\gamma_i \gamma_{2i+1} = -1 \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq N - 1 \). Apart from the degeneracy of the ground state, there is a gap \( 2|\Delta| \) to excitations. The operators \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \gamma_{2N} \) are Majorana fermion zero
modes, and the qubit which they form, $i\gamma_1\gamma_{2N} = \pm 1$, is protected since the two states are distinguished only by fermion parity, which cannot be measured by a local operation. Only an operator which acts on both sites 1 and $N$ can affect it. Away from the special point, $t = |\Delta|$, the physics is very similar: there is a gap in the bulk above two nearly degenerate ground states which have an energy splitting $\sim e^{-N\alpha/\xi}$, where $\xi$ is inversely proportional to the bulk gap and $\alpha$ is the lattice spacing. This phase persists to the more physical $|\Delta| \ll t$ limit. Electron-electron interactions in the wire determine the region of the phase diagram occupied by this phase.

Now suppose that $\phi$ is a fluctuating dynamical field. We can still perform a change of variables similar to the one which we made in going from Eq. (1) to Eq. (2). This will remove the phase of the order parameter from the second term in Eq. (1), the pairing term. However, it will introduce a coupling between the fermions and gradients of the order parameter. If these terms can be neglected, then we will have mapped a model with fluctuating order parameter to one with fixed order parameter which is decoupled from the fluctuations of $\phi$; therefore, it will have Majorana fermion zero modes. However, there are some subtleties involved in the change of variables from $c_i$ to $\bar{c}_i$ when $\phi$ fluctuates. These are most easily handled using a bosonized formulation of the electronic degrees of freedom in the wire. We find a special point in Sections III and IV at which the bosonized formulation simplifies and allows us to completely analyze the model. We then show in Section V that our analysis is qualitatively unchanged by perturbations which take the system away from the special point.

The technical subtleties alluded to above have a physical origin related to the conservation of charge. Note that the ground state energy has the form

$$E(N) = NE + E_{\text{even, odd}} + O(e^{-\alpha L})$$  

for even and odd electron numbers $N$, respectively. (See Ref. 19 for the analogous relation for paired quantum Hall states.) The signature of Majorana fermion zero modes at the endpoints of a wire is that $E_{\text{odd}} = E_{\text{even}}$. In a superconducting system without zero modes, we would have $E_{\text{odd}} > E_{\text{even}}$. The difference $E_{\text{odd}} - E_{\text{even}}$ would simply be the energy cost of an unpaired electron. In the presence of zero modes, this cost vanishes. As may be seen from (4), however, a single wire does not have degenerate states unless the electrostatic potential is tuned so that $E = 0$. Note that, in the presence of unscreened Coulomb interactions, $E$ is not a constant but also includes a term which is linear in $N$. One can find a particular $N$ at which $E = 0$ but this requires fine-tuning.

If, however, we consider two such wires, then there are two degenerate states for fixed total electron number without any fine-tuning. Suppose that there are $2N$ electrons in the system. Let us denote the energy of the two wires, isolated from each other, by $E_1(N)$, $E_2(N)$. They are given by (4) with $\mathcal{E}^{(1)}$, $\mathcal{E}^{(2)}$ and $E_{\text{even, odd}}^{(1)}$, $E_{\text{even, odd}}^{(2)}$ taking the place of $E$ and $E_{\text{even, odd}}$. If there are Majorana zero modes at the endpoints of both wires in isolation, then $E_{\text{odd}}^{(1)} = E_{\text{even}}^{(1)}$ and $E_{\text{odd}}^{(2)} = E_{\text{even}}^{(2)}$. Then

$$E_1(N) + E_2(N) = E_1(N - m) + E_2(N + m)$$  

for any $m$, so long as $\mathcal{E}^{(1)} = \mathcal{E}^{(2)}$. Now suppose that the two semiconducting wires are coupled to the same (power-law) s-wave superconducting wire (which is assumed to be much longer than either semiconducting wire so that it can be coupled to both while keeping them far apart), so that the electrochemical potential must be the same in the two wires. Then $\mathcal{E}^{(1)} = \mathcal{E}^{(2)}$. Furthermore, Cooper pairs can tunnel from either semiconducting wire to the superconductor. Therefore, rather than a degenerate ground state for each value of $m$ in (5), there will be two nearly degenerate states, corresponding to an even or odd number of electrons in each wire. Furthermore, there will only be a charging energy for the whole system, not for each wire separately, which justifies taking $\mathcal{E}^{(1)}$, $\mathcal{E}^{(2)}$ as constants.) Such a protected qubit exists for any fixed electron number. If the electron number were odd, then the two states would correspond, instead, to (a) even electron number in wire 1, odd in wire 2; and (b) odd electron number in wire 1, even in wire 2.

These arguments are supported by explicit calculations in Sections III and IV. First, we show in Section II how the topological degeneracy is manifested when a semiconducting nanowire is coupled to a bulk 3D superconductor. Pair tunneling between the wire and the 3D superconductor is represented by a term in the bosonized effective Hamiltonian of the form

$$H_{\text{pair tun.}} \propto \sin 2\theta$$  

where $\theta$ is the bosonic field satisfying $\rho = \frac{1}{2}\partial_\theta \phi$, where $\rho$ is the charge density. The two ground states of the system correspond to the two minima of $\sin 2\theta$ as a function of $\theta$. As we discuss in Section II, these two states differ in fermion parity, as expected for a pair of Majorana zero modes. Furthermore, if the two ends of the wire are connected to form a ring, then the ground state degeneracy disappears because only the equal amplitude superposition of the two minima is allowed for periodic boundary conditions of the electrons (while the orthogonal superposition occurs for anti-periodic electronic boundary conditions). When we turn in Sections III and IV to the case in which the superconductor is also one-dimensional and, therefore, does not have long-ranged order, our analysis will depend on a careful treatment of the target space of the bosonic fields. The periodicity conditions satisfied by these fields encode the quantization of charge, and the ground state degeneracy cannot be counted properly without accounting for them. The use of bosonization techniques also requires a careful treatment of locality: putative Majorana modes in a transformed system may simply be a reflection of a spontaneously broken global $\mathbb{Z}_2$ in the original variables, c.f. the duality between the transverse field Ising model and a Majorana wire. We wish to stress the topological nature of the Majorana degeneracy in our model: no local observable can distinguish the two states. A key feature of these models is that there is a single-fermion gap even though there are gapless superconducting phase fluctuations, as is already apparent in (2) if
the second line is benign (as we show it to be). This may be viewed as a form of the “spin-gap proximity effect”\textsuperscript{20,21}. This gap protects the Majorana fermion zero modes. However, as we show below, in addition to fermion tunneling events which lift the topological degeneracy even in models with long-range superconducting order, there is another error-causing process involving quantum phase slips which will have a vanishingly small probability of occurring in a bulk 3D superconductor.

The effect of a quantum phase slip in the middle of a superconducting wire can be understood as that of a vortex enclosing a pair of Majorana zero modes. Such a process results in reading out the fermionic parity via the Aharonov-Casher effect and effectively leads to a splitting of the degeneracy. We show that backscattering from impurities generates quantum phase slips which will have a vanishingly small probability of occurring in a bulk 3D superconductor. This may be difficult to tune a semiconducting wire be- between topological and non-topological phases by applying a magnetic field. The low-energy limit of this Hamiltonian then leads to a spin splitting \( V_s = g_{NW} \mu_B B_L/2 \), where \( g_{NW} \) and \( \mu_B \) are the g-factor in the semiconducting nanowire and the Bohr magneton, respectively. In the simplest model for the nanowire, we assume that the semiconductor nanowire (NW) is in tunneling contact with a bulk 3D superconductor (SC), as depicted in Figure 1. Then, electron tunneling between the NW and the SC leads to the proximity effect described by the Hamiltonian \( H_T \). The superconducting pairing potential \( \Delta_0 \) is assumed to be a static classical field and quantum fluctuations of the superconducting phase are neglected.

The nanowire described by the Hamiltonian \( H_T = H_{NW} + H_{P} \) can be driven into a non-trivial topological state by adjusting the chemical potential so that it lies in the gap \(|\mu| < \sqrt{V_s^2 - \Delta_0^2} \). Under these conditions the Hamiltonian can be projected to the lower band of the two bands which form as a result of the combined effect of the spin-orbit coupling and magnetic field. The low-energy limit of this Hamiltonian then takes the same form as Eq. (2) for low energies \( E \ll t \), assuming \(|\Delta| \ll t^2 \). Therefore, the topological superconducting phase described by \( H_T \) harbors Majorana fermion operators \( \gamma_L \) and \( \gamma_R \) which are zero modes, up to exponential corrections, localized about the two endpoints:

\[
\gamma_a = \gamma_a^\dagger, \quad \{\gamma_a, \gamma_b\} = 2\delta_{ab}
\]

\[
[H_T, \gamma_a] = 0 + O(e^{-L/\xi}).
\]

\[
\{\gamma_L, \psi_a(x)\} \sim e^{-|x+L/2|/\xi}, \quad \{\gamma_R, \psi_a(x)\} \sim e^{-|x-L/2|/\xi}
\]

Here, \( \xi \) is the effective coherence length. The presence of these zero-modes leads to topological degeneracy up to an exponential splitting energy \( \delta E \propto e^{-L/\xi} \). The two nearly-degenerate states correspond to the two eigenvalues of \( i\gamma_a^\dagger \gamma_b \) and have even and odd fermion-parity\textsuperscript{1}, respectively, which can be exploited for topological quantum computation\textsuperscript{25}.

II. A SEMICONDUCTOR NANOWIRE COUPLED TO A BULK 3D SUPERCONDUCTOR: BOSONIZED FORMULATION

Before introducing our model, we briefly review the proposal for realizing Majorana quantum wires in semiconductor-superconductor heterostructures\textsuperscript{2,3} and recast it in bosonic form. Its basic ingredient is a semiconductor nanowire with strong spin-orbit interactions. Superconductivity is induced via the proximity effect. The Hamiltonian for the nanowire is
These results were obtained using the properties of the free fermion band structure embodied by $H_T$. We now rederive them using a bosonic representation. In later sections, we will use this representation to analyze the case when there is no long-ranged superconducting order, unlike in $H_T$. First, we bosonize the semiconductor Hamiltonian (7). In the helical regime corresponding to a large Zeeman gap, $H_{NW}$ can be approximated by projecting the system to the lowest subband and writing the field operator $\Psi(x) \equiv (\psi_R(x), \psi_L(x))$ as

$$\Psi(x) \approx \Phi_-(p_F)e^{ip_Fx}c_R(x) + \Phi_-(p_F)e^{-ip_Fx}c_L(x)$$

(11)

where the spinor $\Phi_-(p_F) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a}} \left( -e^{i\phi(x)}, 1 \right)$ and $\phi(p_F) = \tan^{-1}(o_{pF}/V_{F0})$. Substituting (11) into $H_{NW}$, the Hamiltonian can be written in terms of the spinless right- and left-moving fermions $c_R(x)$ and $c_L(x)$ and eventually bosonized using $c_R = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a}} e^{-i(\pm\phi-\theta)}$

$$H_{NW} \approx v \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \left[ ic_L^* (x) \partial_x c_L(x) - ic_R^* (x) \partial_x c_R(x) \right]$$

(12)

$$\approx v \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \left[ K(\partial_x \theta)^2 + K^{-1}(\partial_x \phi)^2 \right]$$

(13)

Here $v$ is the fermion velocity $v = p_F(\frac{1}{m^*} - \frac{a^2}{\sqrt{4\pi^2 + a^2} p_F^2})$ and $K$ the Luttinger parameter for the nanowire. The fields $\phi$ and $\theta$ satisfy the canonical commutation relation:

$$[\partial_x \phi(x), \theta(x')] = i\pi \delta(x-x')$$

(14)

The charge density and current near wavevector zero are given by $\rho = \frac{1}{\pi} \partial_x \phi = \frac{1}{\pi} \partial_x \theta$ and $j = \frac{1}{\pi} \partial_x \phi = \frac{1}{\pi} \partial_x \theta$. The fields $\phi$ and $\theta$ can be interpreted as the phase of the density at wavevector $2k_F$ and the pair field, respectively:

$$\rho_{2k_F}(x) \equiv e^{-2i\phi(x)}$$

$$\Psi_{pair}(x) \equiv \psi_\uparrow(x)\psi_\downarrow(x) = e^{2i\theta(x)}$$

(15)

For the Hamiltonian $H_{NW}$, in which electron-electron interactions in the semiconductor have been neglected, $K = 1$, the free-fermion value. However, the bosonic representation accommodates short-ranged interactions in the nanowire such as

$$H_{NW \text{ int.}} = u \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \psi_\sigma^\dagger(x) \psi_\sigma(x) \psi_\sigma^\dagger(x) \psi_\sigma(x)$$

(16)

simply by shifting the value of $K$ and rescaling $v$. $K < 1$ for repulsive interactions and $K > 1$ for attractive interactions. As we shall see below, the Majorana degeneracy persists for a whole range of $K$ which includes the free fermion point $K = 1$. The bosonic form for $H_P$ in Eq. (7) is:

$$H_P = \frac{\Delta_P}{(2\pi a)} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \sin(2\theta)$$

(17)

Therefore, $H_T$ can be written in the bosonic form

$$H_T = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \left( \frac{v}{2\pi} \left[ K(\partial_x \theta)^2 + K^{-1}(\partial_x \phi)^2 \right] + \frac{\Delta_P}{(2\pi a)} \sin(2\theta) \right)$$

(18)

This interaction term, $H_P$, is relevant unless there are very strong repulsive interactions in the nanowire. To be more precise, the lowest-order RG equation for the dimensionless coupling $y = 2\Delta_P/a/v$ is:

$$\frac{dy}{dl} = (2 - K^{-1}) y$$

(19)

For non-interacting electrons, $K = 1$, and even for repulsive interactions up until $K = 1/2$, this is a relevant perturbation. If $y$ is initially small at short distances, then we can use Eq. (19) to conclude that $y(l) \approx 1$ at the length scale $l = \ln(\xi/a_0)$, where the effective coherence length, $\xi$, in the semiconducting nanowire is given by $\xi \approx a_0(v/2\Delta_P a_0)^{K/(2K-1)}$. Here, $a_0$ is the short-distance cutoff, which is the shortest length scale at which the effective description (18) is valid. We can take it to be the coherence length or the Josephson length of the bulk 3D superconductor but, at any rate, it must be larger than the Fermi wavelength in the semiconducting wire.

At longer length scales, the field $\theta$ is pinned to the minimum of $\sin(2\theta)$. Since there are two minima, $\theta = -\pi/4, 3\pi/4$, there are two degenerate ground states in the $L \rightarrow \infty$ limit. These two ground states are related to each other by the global $Z_2$ symmetry of the model, $\theta \rightarrow \theta + \pi$. To understand this symmetry better, it is helpful to note that the fermion parity $(-1)^N_F$ can be written in the form

$$(-1)^N_F = e^{i(\phi(L/2) - \phi(-L/2))}$$

(20)

Therefore, using the commutation relation (14), we see that the fermion parity $(-1)^N_F$ generates the symmetry transformation $\theta \rightarrow \theta + \pi$. Since the two degenerate ground states corresponding to $\theta = -\pi/4, 3\pi/4$ are transformed into each other by fermion parity, the following quantum superpositions are fermion parity eigenstates:

$$|\text{even, odd}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( |\pm \pi/4\rangle \pm |\mp \pi/4\rangle \right)$$

(21)

The ends of the wire are crucial for this qubit. If we were to connect the two ends of the wire to form a ring of circumference $L$, then we would expect only a single ground state, not a degenerate pair. To see that this is, indeed the case, consider the fermion annihilation operators:

$$c_{R,L}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a}} e^{-i(\pm \phi-\theta)}$$

(22)

Since $\rho = \frac{1}{\pi} \partial_x \phi$, the ring will have even fermion parity if the boundary conditions on $\phi$ are:

$$\phi(x + L) = \phi(x) + 2n\pi$$

for integer $n$. If the fermions have periodic boundary conditions, $c_{R,L}(x + L) = c_{R,L}(x)$, then the boundary condition on $\theta$ must be

$$\theta(x + L) = \theta(x) + 2n'\pi$$

for integer $n'$. Since constant solutions are allowed for this boundary condition on $\theta$, the ground state $|\text{even}\rangle = \cdots$
\[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( -\pi/4 + 3\pi/4 \right), \] which is a linear superposition of constant solutions, is allowed in this case. This state has even fermion parity (20), so it is consistent with the boundary conditions on \( \phi \). If the ring has odd fermion parity, however, then \( \phi(x + L) = \phi(x) + (2n + 1)\pi \). Consequently, if the fermions have periodic boundary conditions, the boundary condition on \( \theta \) must be \( \theta(x + L) = \theta(x) + (2n' + 1)\pi \). This precludes a constant solution. Therefore, the state \( |\text{odd} \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( -\pi/4 - 3\pi/4 \right) \), which is odd under fermion parity (20), is not an allowed state if the fermions have periodic boundary conditions. As expected, we conclude that there is only a single ground state for a ring, in contrast with a line segment which has a doubly degenerate ground state.

The Majorana fermion zero modes of this system are manifested on a ring by the presence of a corresponding state for anti-periodic boundary conditions on the fermions. If \( c_{R,L}(x + L) = -c_{R,L}(x) \), then for odd fermion parity, \( \phi(x + L) = \phi(x) + (2n + 1)\pi \), the boundary condition on \( \theta \) must be \( \theta(x + L) = \theta(x) + 2n'\pi \) for integer \( n' \). This boundary condition allows constant solutions, so the ground state is \( |\text{odd} \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( -\pi/4 - 3\pi/4 \right) \). Therefore, the ground state with periodic boundary conditions and the ground state with anti-periodic boundary conditions have the same energy density and opposite fermion parities. This can already be seen in the Kitaev chain. On a line segment, the operators \( \gamma_{1} \) and \( \gamma_{2N} \) do not appear in the Hamiltonian, as we saw in the introduction. On a ring with periodic boundary conditions, there is a term \( i\theta \gamma_{2N} \gamma_{1} \). If the boundary conditions are anti-periodic, the term is instead \( -i\theta \gamma_{2N} \gamma_{1} \). The ground state energy is the same in both cases, but the ground states differ in fermion parity, \( \gamma_{2N} \gamma_{1} = \pm 1 \).

Returning now to the case of open boundary conditions, we observe that, for finite \( L \), these two states are split in energy because there are instantons which tunnel between the two minima. The Euclidean action in the strong coupling limit is

\[
S = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int dx \, d\tau \left[ (\partial_{x}\theta)^{2} + v^{-2}(\partial_{x}\theta)^{2} + \frac{y}{\xi^{2}} \sin(2\theta) \right], \tag{23}
\]

The splitting is then given by \( \delta E \propto N_{f} e^{-S_{0}} \), where \( S_{0} \) is the action of the Euclidean instanton \( \theta_{0}(x, \tau) \) satisfying \( \partial_{x}(x, -\infty) = -\frac{\pi}{2}, \theta_{0}(x, \infty) = \frac{\pi}{2} \) and \( N_{f} \) is a prefactor that comes from fluctuations. Clearly the lowest action instanton is translationally invariant, at least away from \( x = -L/2, L/2 \), so the problem reduces to a 0 + 1 dimensional problem, with action

\[
S_{QM} = \frac{L}{\pi} \int dz \left[ \frac{1}{2} (\partial_{z}\theta)^{2} + V(\theta) \right], \tag{24}
\]

where \( V(\theta) = \frac{y}{\xi^{2}} \sin(2\theta) \) and \( z = v\tau \). Following Ref. 26,

\[
S_{0} = \frac{L}{\pi} \int_{-\pi/4}^{3\pi/4} d\theta \sqrt{2(V(\theta) - E)} = \frac{4\sqrt{y} L}{\pi} \xi, \tag{25}
\]

where \( E = -y/\xi^{2} \) is the energy of the minimum of the potential. The splitting then scales like \( \delta E \propto \exp \left( -\frac{4\sqrt{y} L}{\pi} \xi \right) \), as expected.

Since \( 2\theta \) changes by \( 2\pi \) while the phase of the bulk superconductor is unchanged, such an instanton can be interpreted roughly as the motion of a vortex between the NW and the bulk superconductor. (We say “roughly” because our instanton is a spatially uniform phase slip, rather than a spatially-localized vortex.) Since it causes a transition between the states \( |\pm \pi/4 \rangle \) and \( |\pm 3\pi/4 \rangle \), it splits the states (even) and (odd). Thus, it can also be interpreted as Majorana fermion tunneling between the two ends of the wire.

III. A SINGLE SEMICONDUCTING NANOWIRE COUPLED TO AN ALGEBRAICALLY-ORDERED SUPERCONDUCTING WIRE

We now include the effect of quantum fluctuations by replacing the bulk superconductor in the above proposal with an \( s \)-wave superconducting wire with power-law order. This model preserves the overall \( U(1) \) charge symmetry (there is no spontaneous \( U(1) \) breaking) and allows for the study of the topological superconducting phase in the particle number-conserving setting. For the sake of concreteness and simplicity, we will take the Hamiltonian for the superconducting wire to be the attractive-\( U \)-Hubbard model. However, our results hold for any spin-gapped system with \( s \)-wave superconducting fluctuations.

We use the standard bosonization procedure for spinful fermions, with the convention\(^{28}\) that

\[
\psi_{r,\sigma} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a}} e^{-\frac{i}{\alpha} \sqrt{2}(\phi_{\rho,\sigma} - \theta_{\rho,\sigma}) + \sigma (\phi_{\rho,\sigma} - \theta_{\rho,\sigma})} \tag{26}
\]

where \( r = \pm \) and \( \sigma = \pm \) for right/left-moving fermion with \( \uparrow \) / \( \downarrow \) spin, and \( a \) the lattice cutoff. The fields \( \phi_{\rho,\sigma} \) and \( \theta_{\rho,\sigma} \) satisfy the same commutation relations (14). In terms of these fields, the Hamiltonian for the superconducting wire can be

FIG. 2: A semiconductor nanowire in contact with a 1D superconducting wire. The superconducting wire could be a coating which (a) completely covers the semiconductor or (b) only covers part of it.
written as

\[
H_{SC} = H_{SC}^{(p)} + H_{SC}^{(γ)}
\]

(27)

\[
H_{SC}^{(p)} = \frac{v_F}{2\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \left[ K_\rho (\partial_x \theta_\rho)^2 + K_\rho^{-1} (\partial_x \phi_\rho)^2 \right]
\]

(28)

\[
H_{SC}^{(γ)} = \frac{v_F}{2\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \left[ K_\sigma (\partial_x \theta_\sigma)^2 + K_\sigma^{-1} (\partial_x \phi_\sigma)^2 \right] - \frac{2|U|}{(2\pi a)^2} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \cos(2\sqrt{2}\phi_\sigma)
\]

(29)

where \( v_F, a \) and \( U \) are the Fermi velocity, the effective cutoff length and the interparticle interaction potential, respectively.

Tunneling between the superconducting wire and the semiconducting wire can be described using a simple model Hamiltonian

\[
H_t = t \sum_\sigma \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx (\psi^\dagger_\sigma \eta_\sigma + \eta^\dagger_\sigma \psi_\sigma)
\]

(30)

where \( t \) is the tunneling amplitude and \( \psi_\sigma \) and \( \eta_\sigma \) represent fermion annihilation operators in the semiconducting and superconducting systems, respectively. Given that single-electron tunneling into the superconducting wire is suppressed due to the presence of the spin gap \( E_g \) (see below), the dominant contribution to the action comes from pair hopping. The perturbative expansion in \( t \) to second order leads to the following imaginary-time action

\[
S_{PH} = -i^2 \sum_\sigma \int dx \int d\tau \int dx' \int d\tau' \left[ \psi^\dagger_\sigma (x, \tau) \psi^\dagger_\sigma (x', \tau') \eta_\sigma (x, \tau) \eta^\dagger_\sigma (x', \tau') + \text{h.c.} \right]
\]

(31)

We now analyze the bosonized action. First, the spin field \( \phi_\sigma \) orders as a result of the last term in Eq. 29, opening a spin gap \( E_g \) in the superconducting wire. The dual field \( \theta_\sigma \) is disordered, and its correlation function decays exponentially \( \langle e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2} \theta_\sigma (x, \tau)} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2} \theta_\sigma (0, 0)} \rangle_\sigma \sim a / \sqrt{x^2 + (v_F \tau)^2} \exp[-E_g \sqrt{\tau^2 + x^2 / v_F^2}] \). This allows us to simplify the action (31) and make a local approximation

\[
S_{PH} \approx -\frac{\Delta_P}{(2\pi a)} \int d\tau \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \sin(2\theta_\rho - 2\theta)
\]

(32)

valid in the long-time limit \( |\tau - \tau'| \gg E_g^{-1} \). Here the Cooper pair hopping amplitude \( \Delta_P \) is given by \( \Delta_P \sim \frac{t^2}{v_F \sqrt{(\alpha_\rho)^2 + v_F^2}} \), similarly to the proximity-induced gap in the perturbative tunneling limit \( t \ll E_g \). If the field \( \theta_\rho \) were pinned (i.e. \( \theta_\rho = 0 \)), we would recover the model considered in Refs. 2, 3. In the present case, however, overall \( U(1) \) symmetry is not broken due to the presence of fluctuating field \( \theta_\rho \). Henceforth we thus analyze the following effective low-energy model

\[
H_{SM} = \frac{v}{2\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \left[ K_\rho (\partial_x \theta_\rho)^2 + K_\rho^{-1} (\partial_x \phi_\rho)^2 \right] + \frac{v_F}{2\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \left[ K_\sigma (\partial_x \theta_\sigma)^2 + K_\sigma^{-1} (\partial_x \phi_\sigma)^2 \right] - \frac{\Delta_P}{(2\pi a)} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \sin(2\sqrt{2}\theta_\rho - 2\theta)
\]

(33)

and study the effect of quantum fluctuations of \( \theta_\rho \) on the stability of the topological superconducting phase. This model is quadratic, except for the interaction \( \Delta_P \). The dimensionless coupling \( y = 2\Delta_P a / v \) has RG equation

\[
\frac{dy}{dl} = (2 - \frac{1}{2} K_\rho^{-1} - K_\rho^{-1}) y
\]

(34)

For \( \frac{1}{2} K_\rho^{-1} + K_\rho^{-1} > 2 \), this interaction is irrelevant, and we can ignore Cooper pair tunneling between the wires. However, inter-wire pair tunneling is relevant for \( \frac{1}{2} K_\rho^{-1} + K_\rho^{-1} < 2 \), which includes the case of weakly-attractive interactions in the superconducting wire, \( K_\rho \lesssim 1 \), and weakly-repulsive interactions in the semiconducting wire, \( K_\rho \gtrsim 1 \).

This model simplifies significantly at the special point \( v_F = v \) and \( 2K_\rho = K_\sigma \). At this point, one can diagonalize the Hamiltonian (33) by introducing new variables \( \theta_+ = \theta_\rho / \sqrt{2} + \theta \) and \( \theta_- = \theta_\rho / \sqrt{2} - \theta \):

\[
H = \frac{v}{2\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \left[ K_\rho (\partial_x \theta_+)^2 + K_\rho^{-1} (\partial_x \phi_+)^2 \right] + \frac{v_F}{2\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \left[ K_\rho (\partial_x \theta_-)^2 + K_\rho^{-1} (\partial_x \phi_-)^2 \right] - \frac{\Delta_P}{(2\pi a)} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \sin(2\theta_-)
\]

(35)

The first line of this Hamiltonian describes gapless superconducting phase fluctuations. The second and third lines, which are decoupled from these gapless fluctuations, are identical to the Hamiltonian (18) for the proximity effect from a bulk 3D superconductor with long-ranged superconducting order parameter. At this point, the dimensionless coupling \( y = 2\Delta_P a / v \) has RG equation

\[
\frac{dy}{dl} = (2 - K_\rho^{-1}) y
\]

(36)

Therefore, a fermionic gap \( \Delta_F \sim \frac{v}{a_\rho} (\Delta_P a_\rho / v)^{(1/2 - K_\rho^{-1})} \) opens up as a result of the coupling between the wires.

The single wire model, however, does not exhibit Majorana degeneracy without fine tuning of the electrostatic potential. Semiclassically, this is because the moduli space of low energy field configurations (i.e. those where \( \theta_- \) is pinned) has only one connected component. Naively, the \( \Delta_P \sin(\sqrt{2}\theta_\rho - 2\theta) \) term might lead one to expect two connected components, corresponding to the two minima \( \theta = \theta_\rho - \frac{3\pi}{4}, \theta_\rho - \frac{7\pi}{4} \). However, these are in fact connected in
the \( \theta_\rho, \theta \) moduli space, see Fig.3. One can interpolate from one to the other by winding \( \sqrt{2} \theta_\rho \rightarrow \sqrt{2} \theta_\rho + 2\pi \) and simultaneously winding \( \theta \) half as fast, so that \( \theta \rightarrow \theta + \pi \). \( \theta_- \) remains pinned throughout the interpolation, but the two vacua are exchanged. Therefore, there is no potential barrier; the field \( \theta / \sqrt{2} + \theta \) is free to fluctuate along a flat direction of the potential between these two points. Consequently, there is just a single vacuum, not two degenerate states. This reflects the conservation of charge: when \( \theta_\rho / \sqrt{2} + \theta \) has large fluctuations, the total charge is fixed. Given that the two states [even/odd] correspond to different fermion parity states and, thus, satisfy different boundary conditions for the field \( \phi_\sigma \), there is a degeneracy splitting determined by the charging energy of the system \( E_c = v_\rho / 2LK_\rho \).

Note that, in the argument above, the two minima were exchanged if we could identify \( \sqrt{2} \theta_\rho \equiv \sqrt{2} \theta_\rho + 2\pi \). Naively, these two field values are not equivalent since a shift of \( \sqrt{2} \theta_\rho \) by \( 2\pi \) changes the sign of the fermion according to Eq. 26. However, \( (\sqrt{2} \theta_\rho, \sqrt{2} \theta_\rho) \equiv (\sqrt{2} \theta_\rho + 2\pi, \sqrt{2} \theta_\rho + 2\pi) \). Since \( \phi_\sigma \) is fixed, \( \theta_\sigma \) is disordered, so there is no energy cost for shifting \( \theta_\sigma \). Thus, we can treat \( \sqrt{2} \theta_\rho \) as \( 2\pi \) periodic, rather than \( 4\pi \) periodic, and the flat direction of the potential connects the two putative minima.

IV. TWO MAJORANA WIRES

As discussed in the introduction and as we saw in the previous section, if the electron number is fixed then states with different electron numbers will not be degenerate without fine-tuning. However, if we have two semiconducting wires of length \( L \) coupled to the same superconducting wire, of length \( L \), then there will be two degenerate states of the system for any fixed total charge. These states correspond to even or odd electron numbers in each semiconducting wire, with a constraint that the sum of the parities of the two wires must equal the parity of the total electron number. There need not be literally two separate wires. We could instead have a single wire similar to the spin-orbit coupled semiconducting wire of Eq. 7. In the regions \( -L/2 < x < -L/2 + \ell \) and \( L/2 - \ell < x < L/2 \), we would need to adjust the chemical potential so that \( |\mu| < \sqrt{V_0^2 - \Delta_{0}^2} \) and in the region \( -L/2 + \ell < x < L/2 - \ell \) we would need \( |\mu| > \sqrt{V_0^2 - \Delta_{0}^2} \). Then, the system would be in a topological (power-law) superconducting phase for \( L/2 - \ell < |x| < L/2 \) and in a non-topological (power-law) superconducting phase for \( -L/2 + \ell < x < L/2 - \ell \). While we will sometimes call the region \( -L/2 + \ell < x < L/2 - \ell \) the “non-topological region”, we will usually simply treat the system as if there were no wire there since the section of non-topological wire in this region has a qualitatively similar effect to the absence of a wire.

Let us analyze this setup in more detail. The Hamiltonian for such a system takes the form:

\[
H_{2 \text{ wires}} = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \left( \frac{v_1}{2\pi} [K_1 (\partial_x \theta_1)^2 + K_1^{-1} (\partial_x \phi_1)^2] - \frac{\Delta_{\rho 1}}{(2\pi \alpha)} \sin(\sqrt{2} \theta_\rho - \theta_1) \right) + \int_{L/2 - \ell}^{L/2} dx \left( \frac{v_2}{2\pi} [K_2 (\partial_x \theta_1)^2 + K_2^{-1} (\partial_x \phi_1)^2] - \frac{\Delta_{\rho 2}}{(2\pi \alpha)} \sin(\sqrt{2} \theta_\rho - \theta_2) \right) + \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \frac{v_\rho}{2\pi} [K_\rho (\partial_x \theta_\rho)^2 + K_\rho^{-1} (\partial_x \phi_\rho)^2]
\]

(37)

The first two lines are the Hamiltonian for the first semiconducting wire, of length \( \ell \ll L \) and its Josephson coupling to the superconducting wire of length \( L \). The third and fourth lines are the analogous terms for the second semiconducting wire. The final line reflects the charge degrees of freedom of the Hamiltonian for a wire with power-law superconducting fluctuations. The gapped spin degrees of freedom have been integrated out. In Eq. (37) we have neglected exponentially small corrections \( \propto \exp[-E_\theta (L - 2l)/v_F] \) due to tunneling between the wires, see Sec. V for details.

As in the single wire case, we introduce the fields:

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_+(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \theta_\rho (x) u_{12}(x) + \theta_\rho (x) (1 - u_{12}(x)) + \theta_1 (x) u_1(x) + \theta_2 (x) u_2(x) \\
\theta_-(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \theta_\rho (x) u_{12}(x) - \theta_1 (x) u_1(x) - \theta_2 (x) u_2(x)
\end{align*}
\]

(38)

where \( u_1(x) = 1 \) for \( -L/2 \leq x \leq -L/2 + \ell \) and \( u_1(x) = 0 \) otherwise; \( u_2(x) = u(-x) \); and \( u_{12}(x) = u_1(x) + u_2(x) \). The field \( \theta_-(x) \) is only defined for \( L/2 - \ell \leq |x| \leq L/2 \). Then, for \( v_1 = v_2 = v_\rho = v \) and \( K_1 = K_2 = 2K_\rho = K \), the
Hamiltonian takes the form:

\[
H_{2\text{ wires}} = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \frac{v}{2\pi} \left[ K_\rho (\partial_x \theta)^2 + K_\rho^{-1} (\partial_x \phi)^2 \right] + \frac{v}{2\pi} (\Delta p_1 u_1(x) + \Delta p_2 u_2(x)) \sin(2\theta -) + \frac{v}{2\pi} \left[ K_\rho (\partial_x \theta)^2 + K_\rho^{-1} (\partial_x \phi)^2 \right]
\]

(39)

Naively, this Hamiltonian has four semi-classical ground states: \(\theta(x) = \theta_1 u_1(x) + \theta_2 u_2(x)\), with \(\theta_{1,2} = \frac{3\pi}{4}, \frac{7\pi}{4}\). However, by acting with \((-1)^{N_F^{(1)}}, -1)^{N_F^{(2)}}\), and \((-1)^{N_F^{(1)} + N_F^{(2)}}\) on any one of these states, we can obtain the other three. Thus, we can form two quantum superpositions of these states with \((-1)^{N_F^{(1)}}, -1)^{N_F^{(2)}}\) and \((-1)^{N_F^{(1)} + N_F^{(2)}}\) = 1 and two with \((-1)^{N_F^{(1)} + N_F^{(2)}}\) = -1. If we fix the total electron number, then one of these two sets will be allowed.

The argument which led us to conclude that a single nanowire has no ground state degeneracy now shows that the two wire system (37) at fixed electron number has two (nearly) degenerate ground states. There are two connected components in the moduli space of low-energy field configurations. Here there is no electrostatic potential breaking the (almost) degeneracy; the leading contributions instead come from instantons, as we shall see below. To see this, note first that \(\theta_1\) and \(\theta_2\) can be pinned to either \(\frac{\theta_1}{2\pi} - \frac{3\pi}{4}\) or \(\frac{\theta_2}{2\pi} - \frac{3\pi}{4}\), naively leading to four semiclassical ground states. However, as above, one can wind \(\sqrt{2}\theta_1\) to \(\sqrt{2}\theta_2\) and \(2\pi\), thus connecting the ground state \((\theta_1, \theta_2)\) = \((\frac{3\pi}{4}, \frac{3\pi}{4})\) with \((\frac{7\pi}{4}, \frac{7\pi}{4})\), and \((\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4})\) with \((\frac{3\pi}{4}, \frac{3\pi}{4})\). These two equivalence classes cannot be connected to each other, however, since that would require winding \(\sqrt{2}\theta_2\) by \(2\pi\) on only one half of the system, leading to an unwanted monopole in the \(\sqrt{2}\theta_2\) field. This monopole can be removed by a phase slip, leading to degeneracy breaking, as we discuss in Section VI. Note that there are no bulk operators local in the fermion variables which can distinguish the two nearly degenerate states. This is because all local terms on, say, wire 1 must be periodic in \(2\theta_1\); a term that distinguishes the two ground states must necessarily be odd under \(\theta_1 \rightarrow \theta_1 + \pi\).

Our two-wire analysis can be generalized in a straightforward manner to \(N\) wires in series, coupled to the same superconducting wire, produces a degeneracy of \(2^{N-1}\). The ground states correspond to semiclassical vacua \(\frac{3\pi}{4} + n_1 \pi, \frac{3\pi}{4} + n_2 \pi, \ldots, \frac{3\pi}{4} + n_N \pi\), where \(n_i = 0, 1\), subject to the condition that the state \((n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_N) \equiv (n_1 + 1, n_2 + 1, \ldots, n_N + 1)\).

One can formalize this argument for two-fold ground state degeneracy by explicitly constructing an algebra of operators which commutes with the Hamiltonian up to small errors, and satisfies a Pauli algebra, again up to small errors. This algebra then implies an approximate two-fold degeneracy in the spectrum, with a small splitting bounded by the size of the errors.

To define the algebra it suffices to construct two approximate symmetry operators, \(A\) and \(B\), which square to 1 and anti-commute. We let \(A = (-1)^{N_F^{(1)}}\), the fermionic parity of wire 1. (Given that total fermion parity is fixed, the other operator \((-1)^{N_F^{(2)}}\) is not independent.) \(B\) is more subtle: we would like it to act diagonally on the 4 “phase” eigenstates \((\theta_1, \theta_2)\) defined above, having eigenvalue 1 on \((\frac{3\pi}{4}, \frac{3\pi}{4}), (\frac{7\pi}{4}, \frac{7\pi}{4})\) and \(-1\) on \((\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{3\pi}{4}), (\frac{3\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4})\). Since \(\theta_1, \theta_2\) are determined by \(\theta_\pm = \theta_\rho/\sqrt{2} - \theta_1, 2\), a first guess for \(B\) would be

\[
B = \cos(\Theta) \quad \Theta = \frac{1}{\ell} \int dx \left( \frac{\theta(x)}{\sqrt{2}} - \theta_1(x) \right) - \frac{1}{\ell} \int dx \left( \frac{\theta(x)}{\sqrt{2}} - \theta_2(x) \right).
\]

However, \(B\) is not well defined in equation (40), because \(\frac{\theta}{\sqrt{2}}\) is only well defined mod \(\pi\). To ameliorate the situation it is useful for convenience to take the limit in which \(L \gg \ell\), and treat the topological wires as points (the argument also works away from this limit, but the notation is more cumbersome). Then the above definition of \(\Theta\) reduces to \(\Theta = (\theta_\rho(0) - \theta_\rho(L))/\sqrt{2} + \theta_2 - \theta_1\). This is still not well defined but can be made so by replacing the first term with an integral of a total derivative. Thus

\[
A = (-1)^{N_F^{(1)}}\quad (41)
\]

\[
B = \cos \left[ -\int_0^L \partial_2 \theta_\rho(x)/\sqrt{2} + \theta_2 - \theta_1 \right] \quad (42)
\]

forms our desired set of operators. Clearly \(B^2 = 1\), and \(A^2 = 1\) up to errors exponentially small in \(\ell\), because the argument of the cosine in the definition of \(B\) is pinned to 0 or \(\pi\), with fluctuations going like \(e^{-\ell/\ell}\). Furthermore, \(B\) was constructed to exactly anti-commute with \(A\), so we have an approximate Pauli algebra. One can now show that there is topological degeneracy in this system. Consider two different fermion-parity states \(|a\rangle \equiv |\theta_1 = \frac{3\pi}{4}, \theta_2 = \frac{3\pi}{4}\rangle\) and \(|b\rangle \equiv |\theta_1 = \frac{\pi}{4}, \theta_2 = \frac{3\pi}{4}\rangle\). Since they are eigenstates of \(B\) with opposite eigenvalues, and \([H, B] \approx 0\), they must individually be approximate eigenstates of the Hamiltonian, with energies \(E_a, E_b\). Now using \(|a\rangle = A|b\rangle\) and \([H, A] \approx 0\), one can show that the energies \(E_a\) and \(E_b\) must be equal:

\[
E_a|a\rangle = H|a\rangle = H A |b\rangle = A H |b\rangle = A E_b |b\rangle = E_b|a\rangle.
\]

(43)

Now, what terms in the Hamiltonian could fail to commute with this algebra? In the case of \(A\), the only such term would be an electron tunneling between wire 1 and wire 2, which is exponentially suppressed in \(L - \ell\). In the case of \(B\) there are two possibilities: (1) instanton tunneling between two vacua on either wire 1 or 2, as described above, and (2) \(2\pi\) phase slips in \(\sqrt{2}\theta_2\) in the middle region between the wires. These processes are both allowed in the Hamiltonian and anti-commute with \(B\). The first of these is exponentially suppressed with \(\ell\), but the second, as we shall see later, decays only as a power of \(L\), albeit possibly a large one. Hence we get a corresponding bound on the degeneracy splitting.

We now compute these various contributions to the degeneracy splitting. First, we consider the instanton contributions
and show that they lead to an exponentially suppressed splitting; this is done in the next section. In the following section we account for impurities and the associated phase slips. These lead to a power-law splitting, which is naively much worse than exponential suppression. However, the exponent in the power law is proportional to the number of channels in the SC, which can be made large, and the prefactor can be made exponentially small in the length scale associated with the smoothness of the disorder.

V. INSTANTON CONTRIBUTIONS

We now discuss the instanton contributions to the degeneracy splitting, starting with the soluble point where, according to (39), $\theta_\perp$ decouples, leaving a pinned $\theta_\perp$ field on each wire. To tunnel between the two vacua, we need to tunnel from $\theta_\perp = \frac{\pi}{2}$ to $\theta_\perp = \frac{-\pi}{2}$ along a single length $\ell$ wire, say wire 1. The instanton analysis proceeds exactly as that of the proximality induced case, leading to a splitting $\delta E \sim \exp \left(-\sqrt{K_{p_{\perp}} \ell}\right)$.

In such a process, $2\theta_1$ winds by $\pm 2\pi$ relative to $\sqrt{2}\theta_\perp$. This can be interpreted as a vortex tunneling between the helical nanowire and SC wire, as depicted in process (a) in Figure 4. It can equivalently can be interpreted as a fermion tunneling from one end of wire 1 to the other.

We now show that the Majorana degeneracy is stable against all possible translationally-invariant perturbations around the soluble point. We will consider the effect of impurities and phase slips associated with them in the next section. The perturbations come in two varieties. First, there are exponentially small pair hopping terms which involve electrons in different semiconductor nanowires. Secondly, there are couplings between the semiconducting and superconducting wires which we have not included in our initial model (37). Thirdly, there are shifts of the parameters which take us away from the point $K_1 = K_2 = 2K_p$, $v_1 = v_2 = v_p$. As we will see, the second can be accounted for with the third.

First, we derive an effective action for interwire pair hopping, starting with the following microscopic model:

$$H_1 = t_1 \sum_\sigma \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx_1 \left( \bar{\psi}_\alpha^{\dagger}(x_1) \eta_\sigma(x_1) + h.c. \right) + t_2 \sum_\sigma \int_{L/2-\ell}^{L/2} dx_2 \left( \bar{\psi}_\alpha^{\dagger}(x_2) \eta_\sigma(x_2) + h.c. \right).$$

At second order of perturbation theory in $t$, one obtains cross terms proportional to $t_1 t_2$. These exponentially small terms were neglected in Eq. (37). Now we take them into account and study their effect on the degeneracy splitting. Consider the term in the Euclidean effective action proportional to $t_1 t_2$:

$$S^{(12)}_1 = -\frac{2\alpha\rho_F}{\sqrt{\rho_F^2 + V_x}} \int \frac{d\tau_1}{L} \int \frac{d\tau_2}{L} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx_1 \int_{L/2-\ell}^{L/2} dx_2 \times \cos \left( \frac{\phi_\rho(\tau_1) - \phi_\rho(\tau_2)}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \left( \theta_\rho(\tau_1) + \theta_\rho(\tau_2) - \theta(\tau_1) - \theta(\tau_2) \right)$$

$$\times \exp \left( -\frac{E_g}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{(\tau_1 - \tau_2)^2}{V_p} + (\frac{\sigma - \tau_\perp}{\sqrt{2}})^2 \right) \right).$$

Bosonizing the action $S^{(12)}_1$ and integrating out the massive spin fields, one arrives at

$$S^{(12)}_1 = -\frac{2t_1 t_2 \alpha \rho_F}{\sqrt{\rho_F^2 + V_x}} \int \frac{d\tau_1}{L} \int \frac{d\tau_2}{L} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx_1 \int_{L/2-\ell}^{L/2} dx_2 \times \cos \left( \frac{\phi_\rho(\tau_1) - \phi_\rho(\tau_2)}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \left( \theta_\rho(\tau_1) + \theta_\rho(\tau_2) - \theta(\tau_1) - \theta(\tau_2) \right)$$

$$\times \frac{\alpha}{(2\pi a)^2} \left( E_g \left( \frac{(\tau_1 - \tau_2)^2}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{(\sigma - \tau_\perp)^2}{V_p} \right) \right).$$

The dominant contribution to the integral over $\tau_1 - \tau_2$ comes from short times $(|\tau_1 - \tau_2| \ll (L - 2\ell)/v_F)$ and can be approximately carried out. The remaining spatial integral is peaked at $x_{1/2} = \pm (L/2 - \ell)$, and the action can be approximately written as

$$S^{(12)}_1 \propto -\frac{t_1 t_2}{E_g} e^{-\frac{E_g}{\sqrt{2}}} \rho_F \sqrt{\rho_F^2 + V_x} \int \frac{d\tau}{2\pi a} \cos \left( \frac{\phi_\rho(x_0, \tau) - \phi_\rho(x_0, \tau)}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \left( \theta_\rho(x_0, \tau) + \theta_\rho(x_0, \tau) - \theta(x_0, \tau) - \theta(x_0, \tau) \right).$$

with $x_0 = L/2 - \ell$. In fermionic language, the above expression has a very clear physical interpretation: it corresponds to the Josephson coupling between the ends of the two wires. It is due to single fermion tunneling from one wire to the other, as depicted in process (b) in Figure 4. The terms on the second and third lines of (47) are bounded, so such a term causes a splitting which decays exponentially in $(L - 2\ell)$:

$$\Delta E \sim e^{-\frac{E_g}{\sqrt{2}}} \rho_F (L - 2\ell).$$

We now consider interactions between the semiconductor and superconductor wires. We assume that because of the Fermi momenta mismatch in these two systems, one can neglect interactions between the charge and spin-densities at $2E_F^{SC}$ in the superconductor and the corresponding densities at $2E_F^{NW}$ in the semiconductor nanowire since these interactions will be oscillatory. We will now write down all possible operators couplings between the superconductor and the semiconductor and generate all allowed terms preserving $U(1)$ symmetry. For the superconductor, the charge and spin-density operators are given by

$$O_\rho = \psi_\rho^{\dagger} \sigma \psi_\rho^{\dagger} \sigma = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi} \theta_\rho \phi_\rho,$$

$$O_\sigma = \psi_\rho^{\dagger} \sigma \psi_\rho^{\dagger} \sigma = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi} \theta_\rho \phi_\sigma,$$

$$O_\rho = -i (\psi_\rho^{\dagger} \sigma \psi_\rho^{\dagger} \sigma) = -\frac{2}{\pi a} \sin(\sqrt{2} \theta) \cos(\sqrt{2} \phi_\sigma),$$

$$O_\sigma = \psi_\rho^{\dagger} \sigma \psi_\rho^{\dagger} \sigma = \frac{2}{\pi a} \cos(\sqrt{2} \theta) \cos(\sqrt{2} \phi_\sigma),$$

and the singlet and triplet superconducting pairing operators
where SS and TS denote triplet and singlet pairing. We now write down these operators for the semiconductor nanowire. Because of the large Zeeman gap, we perform projection to the lowest subband as explained in Sec. II. The charge- and spin-density operators in the semiconductor now become

\begin{align*}
O_\rho &= n_R + n_L = -\frac{1}{\pi} \partial_x \phi \quad (56) \\
O_\sigma^z &= 0 \quad (57) \\
O_\sigma^n &= \frac{\alpha p_F}{\sqrt{V_x^2 + \alpha^2 p_F^2}} (n_R - n_L) = \frac{\partial_x \theta}{\pi} \frac{\alpha p_F}{\sqrt{V_x^2 + \alpha^2 p_F^2}} \quad (58) \\
O_\sigma^\pm &= \frac{-V_x}{\sqrt{V_x^2 + \alpha^2 p_F^2}} (n_R + n_L) = \frac{\partial_x \phi}{\pi} \frac{V_x}{\sqrt{V_x^2 + \alpha^2 p_F^2}} \quad (59)
\end{align*}

and the superconducting pairing operators read

\begin{align*}
O_{SS} &= \frac{i \alpha p_F}{\sqrt{V_x^2 + \alpha^2 p_F^2}} c_L c_L^\dagger = \frac{i \alpha p_F}{\sqrt{V_x^2 + \alpha^2 p_F^2}} e^{-2i\theta} \quad (60) \\
O_{TS} &= O_{TS} = 0. \quad (61)
\end{align*}

The triplet pairing operators vanish because, in our model, the superconducting wire has a spin gap and, therefore, \( \phi_\rho \) is fixed. Given these operators, one can construct all possible coupling terms between the superconductor and the semiconductor. In addition to the pair-hopping term, which is essential for our proposal to work and was already included in our model (33) one can have additional couplings which represent various density-density interactions

\begin{align*}
H_1 &= V_{\rho\rho} \int dx \partial_x \phi_\rho \partial_x \phi, \quad (62) \\
H_2 &= V^{(x)}_{\sigma\sigma} \int \frac{dx}{a} \sin(\sqrt{2}\theta_\sigma) \cos(\sqrt{2}\phi_\sigma) \partial_x \phi, \quad (63) \\
H_3 &= V^{(y)}_{\sigma\sigma} \int \frac{dx}{a} \sin(\sqrt{2}\theta_\sigma) \cos(\sqrt{2}\phi_\sigma) \partial_x \phi. \quad (64)
\end{align*}

The first term above describes the charge density-density interaction between the wires whereas the Hamiltonians in the second and third lines correspond to spin-spin interactions. The couplings between current fluctuations are similar in form to the density-density interactions and have not been included explicitly because their analysis is so similar. Assuming that \( |V_{\sigma\sigma}^{(x,y)}| \) are small compared to \( |U| \) in Eq. (29), the terms (63) and (64) can be dropped because the field \( \phi_\sigma \) orders and \( \theta_\sigma \) is disordered. Thus, the only coupling that is relevant in the present setup is \( H_1 \) (62). We show below that this quadratic term does not affect the stability of the Majorana modes.

Therefore, a general perturbation is described by the following Euclidean action:

\begin{align*}
S_2^{(E)} \text{ wires} &= \int_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}} dx \int d\tau \left[ \frac{K_1}{2\pi\nu_1} \left( \partial_x \phi_\rho \right)^2 + v_\rho^2 \left( \partial_x \phi_\rho \right)^2 \right] \\
&+ \frac{\Delta R}{2\pi\xi} \sin(\sqrt{2}\theta_\rho - 2\theta_1) + V_{\rho\rho}^{(1)} (\partial_\rho \phi_\rho) (\partial_\rho \phi_\rho) \\
&+ \int_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}} dx \int d\tau \left[ \left( \partial_x \theta_\rho \right)^2 + v_\rho^2 \left( \partial_x \theta_\rho \right)^2 \right] \\
&+ \frac{\Delta R}{2\pi\xi} \sin(\sqrt{2}\theta_\rho - 2\theta_2) + V_{\rho\rho}^{(2)} (\partial_\rho \theta_\rho) (\partial_\rho \theta_\rho) \\
&+ \int_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}} dx \int d\tau \left[ \frac{K_\rho}{2\pi v_\rho} \left( \partial_\rho \phi_\rho \right)^2 + v_\rho^2 \left( \partial_\rho \theta_\rho \right)^2 \right]
\end{align*}

We re-write this action in terms of the new fields \( \theta_+, \theta_- \) defined in (38). Up to local terms proportional to \( \delta(x \pm \frac{L}{2} - \ell) \), which we drop because they will contribute negligibly to the bulk instanton action, we obtain

\begin{align*}
S_2^{(E)} \text{ wires} &= \int_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}} dx \int d\tau \left[ A_+^{(1)} (\partial_+ \phi_\rho)^2 + A_+^{(1)} (\partial_+ \theta_\rho)^2 \right] \\
&+ B_+^{(1)} (\partial_+ \theta_-)^2 + A_+^{(1)} (\partial_+ \theta_-)^2 + \frac{\Delta R}{2\pi\xi} \sin(2\theta_-) \\
&+ C_+^{(1)} (\partial_+ \phi_\rho) (\partial_+ \theta_-) + C_+^{(1)} (\partial_+ \theta_+) (\partial_+ \theta_-) \\
&+ \int_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}} dx \int d\tau \left[ \frac{K_\rho}{2\pi v_\rho} (\partial_\rho \phi_\rho)^2 + \frac{K_\rho v_\rho}{2\pi} (\partial_\rho \theta_\rho)^2 \right]
\end{align*}

where \( A_+^{(1)} = \frac{K_1 v_\rho}{8\pi\nu_1} + \frac{K_\rho v_\rho}{4\pi^2} + \frac{V_{\rho\rho}^{(1)} v_\rho}{2\pi^2} \), \( A_+^{(1)} = \frac{K_1 v_\rho}{8\pi} + \frac{K_\rho v_\rho}{4\pi} \), \( B_+^{(1)} = \frac{K_1 v_\rho}{8\pi\nu_1} + \frac{K_\rho v_\rho}{4\pi^2} - \frac{V_{\rho\rho}^{(1)} v_\rho}{2\pi^2} \), \( C_+^{(1)} = \frac{K_1 v_\rho}{8\pi^2} - \frac{K_\rho v_\rho}{4\pi^2} \), and similarly with 1 replaced by 2.

We see that in the general case \( \theta_+ \) does not decouple. However, its action is still quadratic, so we can integrate it out exactly. We generate the following terms. On wire 1 we have

\begin{align*}
\delta S_1^{(1)} &= \int d\omega dk \left[ 2\langle C_+^{(1)} \rangle^2 \omega^4 - \frac{A_+^{(1)} \omega^2}{A_+^{(1)} k^2} \theta_+^2 \right] \\
&+ \int d\omega dk \left[ 2\langle C_+^{(1)} \rangle^2 k^4 \frac{A_+^{(1)} \omega^2}{A_+^{(1)} k^2} \theta_+^2 \right]
\end{align*}

We obtain an analogous expression for \( \delta S_2^{(2)} \). We also obtain the following bilinear which couples wires 1 and 2:
\[ \delta S^{(12)} = \int d\tau_1 \, d\tau_2 \, dx_1 \, dx_2 \]
\[ \left[ C^{(1)}_+ C^{(2)}_+ \left( \partial_{\tau_1} \partial_{\tau_2} (\theta_+ (1) \theta_+ (2)) \right) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_-(1) \right) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_-(2) \right) \right. \]
\[ + C^{(1)}_+ C^{(2)}_+ \left( \partial_{x_1} \partial_{x_2} (\theta_+ (1) \theta_+ (2)) \right) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_-(1) \right) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_-(2) \right) \]  
\[ + C^{(1)}_+ C^{(2)}_+ \left( \partial_{x_1} \partial_{x_2} (\theta_+ (1) \theta_+ (2)) \right) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_-(1) \right) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_-(2) \right) \]
\[ \left( \theta_-(1) \theta_+ (2) \right) \]  

\[ \text{(68)} \]

Here \( \langle \theta_+ (1) \theta_+ (2) \rangle \) is the \( \theta_+ \) two point function between wires 1 and 2.

Suppose now that the coupling \( \delta S^{(12)} \) were absent. Then, as in the instanton analysis of the proximity induced case, we could conclude that the lowest action instanton is translationally invariant on 1 and 2 separately; taking \( k = 0 \) in (67) just gives a renormalization of the kinetic term of the \( \theta_+ \) center of mass mode, and similarly for \( \delta S^{(2)} \). We are interested in an instanton that tunnels from \( \theta_\tau = \frac{\pi}{2} \) to \( \theta_\tau = \frac{\pi}{2} \) on wire 1, and remains in the same vacuum on wire 2. In the present context, with \( \delta S^{(12)} \) absent, such an instanton has the same form as that obtained in the proximity induced case on wire 1, and is simply constant on wire 2. According to that analysis, it leads to a splitting \( \delta E \propto \exp(-c_2\xi) \).

Now put back \( \delta S^{(12)} \). We will show that the change in the instanton (and the change in its action) is of order \( \frac{\xi}{L - 2\ell} \), and thus negligibly small when \( L - 2\ell \gg \xi \). To de-clutter the following argument, we set all velocities equal to 1, set all dimensionless constants equal to 1, and let \( \vec{r} = (x, \tau) \). The action is then
\[ S = \int_{1\text{ and }2} d\tau \, dx \left[ \left( \nabla^2 \theta_\tau \right) + \frac{1}{\xi^2} \sin(2\theta_\tau) \right] + \delta S^{(1)} + \delta S^{(2)} \]
\[ + \int d\vec{r}_1 \, d\vec{r}_2 \left[ f(\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_\tau (\vec{r}_1) \right) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_\tau (\vec{r}_2) \right) \right. \]
\[ + g(\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_\tau (\vec{r}_1) \right) \left( \partial_\tau \theta_\tau (\vec{r}_2) \right) \]
\[ \text{(69)} \]

where
\[ f(\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1) = \partial_{\tau_1} \partial_{\tau_2} (\theta_+ (\vec{r}_1) \theta_+ (\vec{r}_2)) \]
\[ g(\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1) = \partial_{x_1} \partial_{x_2} (\theta_+ (\vec{r}_1) \theta_+ (\vec{r}_2)) \]
\[ \text{(70)} \]

We do not need the precise forms of \( f \) and \( g \); rather, all we use is the fact that \( |\nabla f(\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1)| < \frac{c_2}{(L - 2\ell)^2} \) for some constant \( c_2 \), whenever \( x_2 - x_1 > L - 2\ell \), a condition that is always satisfied in (69), and a similar condition for \( g \). Let us start with the instanton solution discussed above, i.e. the one that minimizes the action with \( \delta S^{(12)} \) absent and tunnels between the two vacua only on wire 1, while staying constant in one of the vacua on wire 2. We plug it into (69) and vary with respect to \( \theta_\tau (\vec{r}_2) \) to obtain
\[ \nabla^2 \theta_\tau (\vec{r}_2) = \frac{2}{\xi^2} \cos(2\theta_\tau (\vec{r}_2)) + \frac{\delta S^{(\vec{r}_2)}}{\theta_\tau (\vec{r}_2)} + h(\vec{r}_2) \]
\[ \text{(71)} \]

\[ h(\vec{r}_2) = \pi \int d\tau_1 \delta (\tau_1) \partial_\tau f(\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1) \]
\[ \text{(72)} \]

is sourced by the instanton on 1, which, because it varies on a time scale \( \xi^{-1} \) can be taken to be \( \pi \delta (\tau_1) \) for the purposes of this calculation. From (72) and the previous bound on \(|\nabla f|\), we see that \( |h(\vec{r}_2)| < \frac{\pi \xi^2}{(L - 2\ell)^2} \). The key point now is that the dimensionful quantity \( h(\vec{r}_2) \) is smaller than \( \frac{1}{\xi^2} \) by a factor of \( \frac{c_2^2}{\xi^2} \ll 1 \). Thus the inclusion of \( h(\vec{r}_2) \) in (71) causes \( \theta_\tau (\vec{r}_2) \) to deviate from its zeroth order solution only by an amount order \( \epsilon \). This is the first step in a perturbative expansion in \( \epsilon \) which shows that the inclusion of \( \delta S^{(12)} \) causes only a small change, of order \( \epsilon \), in the instanton and its action.

Our analysis did not require \( 2K_\rho - K \) to be small since we were able to integrate out \( \theta_+ \) exactly regardless of its values. Therefore, so long as \( \frac{1}{2}K_\rho^{-1} + K^{-1} \ll 2 \), which implies that \( \Delta_\rho \) is relevant and generates a coherence length \( \xi \), the instanton argument is still valid and leads to a splitting \( \delta E \propto \exp(-c_2\xi) \). Thus, the Majorana degeneracy is stable over this entire region of the phase diagram, which includes more physically-interesting values than the soluble point.

VI. ELECTRON BACKSCATTERING AND PHASE SLIPS

We now study the effect of processes in the superconducting wire which backscatter a right-moving electron into a left-moving one or vice versa. We can include the effect of an electrostatic potential in the superconducting wire by adding a term to the action:
\[ H_{\text{pot}} = \int dx \, V(x) \psi^\dagger_L (x) \psi_\sigma (x) \]
\[ = \int dx \, V(x) \left[ \psi^\dagger_R (x) \psi_R (x) + \psi^\dagger_L (x) \psi_L (x) \right] \]
\[ + e^{-i2k_F x} \psi^\dagger_R (x) \psi_L (x) + e^{i2k_F x} \psi^\dagger_L (x) \psi_R (x) \]
\[ = \int dx \, V(x) \left[ \sqrt{2} \partial_\tau \phi_\rho + 2 \cos \sqrt{2} \phi_\rho + 2k_F x \right] \cos \sqrt{2} \phi_\sigma \]
\[ = \int dx \, V(x) \left[ \sqrt{2} \partial_\tau \phi_\rho + 2 \cos \sqrt{2} \phi_\rho + 2k_F x \right] \]
\[ \text{(73)} \]

In going from the penultimate line to the final one, we have used the fact that there is a spin gap in the SC wire which pins the value of \( \phi_\rho \). The first term in the final line is harmless and can be absorbed by shifting \( \phi_\rho \) which corresponds to a shift of the chemical potential. Therefore, we will ignore this term from now on. The second term in the final line causes \( 2\pi \) phase slips in the order parameter in the superconducting wire, \( e^{i\sqrt{2} \theta (x)} \), since
\[ \left[ \sqrt{2} \phi_\rho (x), \partial_\tau \left( \sqrt{2} \theta_\rho (x') \right) \right] = -2\pi i \delta (x - x') \]
\[ \text{(74)} \]

This equation expresses the fact that when an electron in a 1D system is backscattered, a \( 2\pi \) phase slip occurs.
These phase slips cause transitions between the two states of the qubit (or, in the fermion parity basis, they cause a splitting between the two states). At a technical level, this occurs because a phase slip at the origin causes \( \sqrt{2} \theta_p \) to wind by \( 2 \pi \) on half of the system. Then \( \theta_1 \) can wind by \( \pi \) (while remaining at the minimum of the cosine potential), and the system will make a transition from the state \( (3 \pi/4, 3 \pi/8) \) to \( (\pi/4, 7 \pi/8) \). At a more physical level, when a phase slip occurs, a vortex tunnels across the wire quantum-mechanically. Since there is no barrier for a vortex to move outside the wire, a vortex which tunnels through the midpoint of the SC wire can then encircle half of the SC wire, along with the NW which is in contact with that half of the SC wire. The vortex thereby measures the fermion parity of that NW by the Aharonov-Casher effect, as is depicted schematically in process (c) in Figure 4.

Note that if the phase slip occurs between \(-L+\ell\) and \(L-\ell\) where the semiconducting wire is non-topological or is absent, there will only be gradient energy in \( \theta_p \) (or its dual equivalent, fluctuation energy in \( \phi_p \)). However, if the phase slip occurs at a point \( x \) satisfying \(|L-\ell| < |x| < |L|\), where there is a topological region of wire, then it will put a kink in \( \sqrt{2} \theta_p \) in a region where it is locked by the potential \( \sin(\sqrt{2} \theta_p) \). Due to the energy cost of a kink, this will leave the system in a higher energy state. The kink is simply a fermion excited above the gap. In order to return to a ground state, another instanton or an anti-instanton must occur. However, this double process does not mix or split ground states.

We will consider three different types of potentials \( V(x) \) which can backscatter electrons. First, we consider a single impurity. For simplicity, we will focus on the case of a \( \delta \)-function impurity at the origin, \( V(x) = \frac{\delta(x)}{2} \), but the physics will be the same for any potential which is non-zero only in a region of length much less than \( L-2\ell \) near the middle of the SC wire. Then the Hamiltonian (73) takes the form:

\[
H_{1-\text{imp}} = v \cos(\sqrt{2} \phi_p(0))
\]

The RG equation for \( v \) follows from the scaling dimension for \( \cos(\sqrt{2} \phi_p) \):

\[
\frac{dv}{d\ell} = (1 - \frac{1}{2} K_i) v
\]  

For \( K_i > 2 \), this is irrelevant; in the large-\( L \), low-temperature limit the superconductor heals itself and the backscattering amplitude goes asymptotically to zero. However, for \( K_i < 2 \), the SC wire is effectively broken in two by the impurity. The qubit is then lost. Therefore, it is necessary to have sufficiently strong attractive interactions in the SC wire that \( K_i > 2 \). Even when this is satisfied, the backscattering amplitude vanishes as a power-law in the system size, not exponentially. Since backscattering/phase slip processes cause transitions between the two different states of the qubit in the phase basis, they cause an energy splitting between states of different fermion parity:

\[
\Delta E \propto \langle v \cos(\sqrt{2} \phi_p) \rangle \propto \frac{|v|}{L K_i/2}
\]  

Since \( \phi_p \) is fixed at the ends of the SC wire (since no current flows off the ends), the one-point function for \( \cos \sqrt{2} \phi_p \) has the \( L \) dependence shown above.

Now suppose, instead, that there is a random distribution of impurities so that

\[
V(x)V(x') = W \delta(x - x')
\]

Then, we replicate the action by introducing an additional index \( \alpha \) on the field \( \phi^\alpha_p \) with \( \alpha = 1, 2, \ldots, N \). We will take \( N \to 0 \) at the end of the calculation in order to take the quenched average over all realizations of the disorder. The disorder-averaged effective action takes the form:

\[
S_{\text{random}} = \int d\tau d\tau' dx W \cos(\sqrt{2} [\phi^\alpha_p(x, \tau) - \phi^\beta_p(x, \tau')])
\]

The RG equation for \( W \) is:

\[
\frac{dW}{d\ell} = (3 - K_i) W
\]

Thus, we need a larger \( K_i \) for the superconductivity to survive a random distribution of impurities, and if \( K_i > 3 \) is satisfied, then there will be an energy splitting:

\[
\Delta E \propto \frac{W}{L K_i}^{-2}
\]

Thus far, we have focused on backscattering by impurities, which effectively create weak spots in the wire where a vortex can tunnel through. However, even in a completely clean system, there is some amplitude for backscattering. For instance, let us suppose that \( V(x) \) is constant near the middle of the wire and goes to zero smoothly near the ends. To make this concrete, let us take \( V(x) = V_0 \) for \( |x| \ll L/2 \) and \( V(x) = 0 \) for \( |x| = L/2 \). We will assume that \( V(x) \) varies smoothly, so that the Fourier transform \( \tilde{V}(q) \propto e^{-q^2 b^2} \) for \( q \gg 1/L \), where \( b \gg \xi \). Then, from the last line of Eq. 73, we expect a splitting

\[
\Delta E \propto \int_{-\frac{L}{2} - b}^{\frac{L}{2} + b} dx \frac{V(x) \cos(2k_F x)}{\left(\frac{L}{2} - |x|\right) \frac{2\pi}{L} - 2} < \frac{e^{-4k_F^2 b^2}}{\ell \frac{2\pi}{L} - 2}
\]

Therefore, as the potential becomes smoother and smoother, the splitting which it induces through electron backscattering/phase slips goes exponentially to zero with the length scale \( b \) over which the potential varies. Inhomogeneities enhance backscattering, as we saw in Eqs. 77, 81.

VII. DISCUSSION

As we saw in the Section VI, the effects of electron backscattering by impurities can be mitigated by making \( K_i \) large. In a superconducting wire, \( K_i = 2\pi \sqrt{A_w \rho_s \kappa} \propto k_F^2 A_w \propto N_{\text{channels}} \) and \( v = \sqrt{A_w \rho_s \kappa} \) with \( A_w \), \( \rho_s \) and \( \kappa \) being the cross-sectional area, superconducting stiffness and
compressibility, respectively. Therefore, if the superconducting wire has enough channels or, equivalently, if the superconducting wire has sufficiently large cross-sectional area and/or sufficiently large superfluid density, we can have $\kappa_\rho$ large. For a typical quasi one-dimensional superconductor (e.g. aluminum) with the cross-sectional area $A_\omega \sim 10^4 \text{nm}^2$, the Luttinger parameter $K_\rho \sim 10^6$ and velocity $v \sim 10^3 \text{m/s}$. Although this is not as good as exponential decay as a matter of principle, it may be just as good as a practical matter. This may be important since it could be very difficult to tune the chemical potential appreciably in the semiconducting wire (which is necessary to move the Majorana zero modes) if it is in contact with a bulk 3D superconductor. Furthermore, coating the semiconducting wires with superconducting material, as depicted in Figure 2, may be the easiest way to make a complex network of wires (especially a three-dimensional network) which is in contact with a superconductor. However, such an architecture will necessarily be, at best, an algebraically-ordered superconductor (except, perhaps, at the lowest temperatures, at which the coupling between wires causes a crossover to 3D superconductivity). Therefore, it is significant that our results show that such a network supports Majorana fermion nearly-zero modes and that their splitting can be made small (albeit not exponentially so).

We also note that it is only important that $\kappa_\rho$ be large in the regions between the topological semiconducting wire segments. In the topological semiconducting wire segments, the phase is locked so that $2\pi$ phase slips cannot occur (although harmless $4\pi$ phase slips can occur). Therefore, one can imagine a scenario in which the topological segments are coated with a thin superconducting film while the non-topological segments between them are in contact with essentially bulk 3D superconductors. This would lead to a protected topological qubit, although it would be difficult (if not impossible) to move the Majorana zero modes since that would involve tuning the chemical potential in the non-topological regions – which are in contact with bulk 3D superconductors – to drive them into the topological phase. One may alternatively, in a system in which a semiconducting wire is coated with a thin layer of superconducting material, use a gate voltage to occupy a large (even) number of sub-bands of the semiconducting wire in the non-topological regions. This would lead to a large effective $\kappa_\rho$ for the combined superconductor-semiconductor system in the non-topological regions and, therefore, a large power for the decay of the splitting due to phase slips in these regions.

As the previous sentence anticipates, our methods should be generalizable to multi-channel semiconducting wires. They should also apply to a semiconducting wire which is near a superconducting grain (as in a model of quasi-1D wires in LAO/STO interfaces). If the linear size of the grain, $r$, is smaller than the superconducting coherence length, $\xi$, then we can treat the grain as a zero-dimensional system. Suppose that the wire also has length $r$. Then the Hamiltonian for the wire coupled to the grain is simply (1) with $\phi$ independent of position $i$ but dependent on time. There will also be a charging energy $U(N - N_0)^2$ which causes $\phi$ to fluctuate. There will be no long-ranged order in the superconducting grain, but it can still induce a single-fermion gap in the semiconducting wire. Of course, if the wire has length $L \gg \xi$, then the grain will only change the behavior of a short section of the wire, and the two ends of this section will be relatively close to each other. But if the wire passes near many such grains, then they can induce a single-fermion gap in the wire. If the coupling between the grains is large compared to their charging energies, then, in the long-wavelength limit, the grains will develop algebraic order. The superconducting grains can be modeled by a superconducting wire, and this situation can be modeled with the Hamiltonian of Section III, but with a very small velocity. If there is ohmic dissipation, then the grains may not even have power-law superconducting order but may have exponentially-decaying superconducting correlations.

In fact, we will have Majorana zero modes in a system with exponentially-decaying superconducting correlations if we simply take our model to finite temperature. Then, the $\theta_+$ field in Eq. (39) will have exponentially-decaying correlations, with a correlation length inversely proportional to the temperature. The $\theta_-$ field will still be pinned to a minimum of the potential, but it will be possible for the system to be thermally-excited over the barrier from one minimum to the other. Therefore, if $\Delta_F$ is the bulk single-fermion gap, there will be a contribution due to processes (a) and (b) in Fig. 4 to the coherence time for a Majorana qubit of order $\sim e^{-\Delta_F/\theta}$, just as if there were long-ranged superconducting order. However, there will also be a contribution from quantum phase slips, process (c), which will increase with temperature as $T^{K_\rho/2}$ for a single impurity and $T^{K_\rho-2}$ for a random distribution of impurities. We similarly expect Majorana fermion zero modes to survive in two-dimensional structures in which a superconducting gap is induced via the proximity effect to
stabilize a phase with Ising anyons but long-ranged superconducting order is disordered by quantum or thermal fluctuations. If the single-particle gap remains, then the Majorana fermion zero modes associated with the Ising anyons could survive. However, quantum phase slips are suppressed and, therefore, the splitting will be exponentially, rather than algebraically, decaying. Of course, there is nothing surprising about having protected Majorana zero modes in a system with no long-range order or even algebraic order, since this is precisely the case with any true topological phase of matter, as in the examples mentioned in the introduction. However, the particular route which we have found to such a system is new and interesting.

In this paper, we have shown that a gapless system can be nearly as good as a fully-gapped one at supporting protected Majorana fermion zero modes. It is an interesting open question whether a gapless system might be capable of supporting protected degrees of freedom which cannot occur in fully-gapped 1D systems.

Note added: After the initial version of this paper appeared on the arXiv, several other papers on related topics were submitted to the arXiv.

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