Phase transitions occur at all energy scales, from Bose-Einstein condensation near absolute zero to the sub-Planckian temperatures relevant for symmetry breaking in a cosmological setting. While the dynamics of some types of first-order transitions (i.e., the process of nucleation) has been extensively studied and is well understood for some time, analogous understanding of second-order transitions is emerging only now. In this case there is no supercooling and the final state of the system is asymptotically approached through phase ordering. Until recently, research has focused largely on the asymptotic scalings of this post-transition ordering \( \psi \) rather than on the dynamics of the transition itself.

The change in focus is relatively recent. Kibble, in a seminal paper [3], pointed out that topological defects may have significant cosmological consequences – i.e., they may act as seeds for structure or as constraints on models. While their distribution at the time they appear is largely forgotten by the present, some of its features (such as the \textit{ab initio} existence of ‘infinite’ string) are essential for the scenario. Moreover, the initial density of topological defects may be directly relevant for generation of baryons [4].

The initial configuration of the order parameter established in the course of the transition is therefore important. Furthermore, it is accessible in cases where topological defects are formed, as they bear witness to the dynamics of the order parameter in the immediate vicinity of the critical point. Experiments based on this idea allow one to probe the critical dynamics of symmetry breaking, and have been carried out in liquid crystals [5] and in superfluids [6]. This has already led to new insights into the dynamics of the transition between phases A and B of \(^3\text{He} \) [7].

We study the consequences of second order phase transformation of the order parameter \( \psi \), a complex scalar field, with Landau-Ginzburg dynamics in two spatial dimensions and the associated gauge field \( A_a \). This is the Abelian Higgs model coupled to a heat bath and with a dissipative term. When cast into first order form, the equations of motion are the following \( \psi_X = (\psi_1, \psi_2), \) \( i \) runs over \( \{x, y\} \), and \( D_a \psi = \partial_a + ieA_a \psi \);

\[
\pi_X = \partial_t \psi_X, \quad \Pi_i = \partial_t A_i, \quad \partial_t \pi_X = \nabla^2 \psi_X - e^2 A^2 \psi_X - 2e\epsilon_{XY} A^i \partial_i \psi_Y - \frac{\partial V}{\partial \psi_X} - \eta \pi_X + \theta, \tag{1}
\]

\[
\partial_t \Pi_i = \nabla^2 A_i - e\epsilon_{XY} \psi_X \partial_i \psi_Y - e^2 A_i \psi_X^2 - e^2 A_i \psi_Y |\psi|^2, \tag{2}
\]

\[
V(\psi) = -\frac{1}{2}m_0^2 \psi^2 + \frac{1}{4}\psi^4. \tag{3}
\]

The system is subjected to the white noise \( \theta(x, y, t); \) \( \langle \theta(x, y, t)\theta(x', y', t') \rangle = 2\eta \delta(x - x')\delta(y - y')\delta(t - t') \). Here \( \theta \) is the heat bath temperature and \( \eta \) sets the rate at which the field is damped, in accord with the fluctuation-dissipation theorem.

We induce the symmetry breaking by changing the sign of the dimensionless parameter \( \epsilon \) in the effective potential over the quench timescale \( \tau_Q \), so that \( \epsilon = t/\tau_Q \) \((|\epsilon| \leq 1)\). The phase transition occurs when it becomes energetically and entropically favourable for the order parameter to assume (in equilibrium) a finite expectation value. In our case this happens in the region \( 0 < \epsilon \ll 1 \). The shift of critical temperature from \( \epsilon = 0 \) occurs as a consequence of the coupling to the gauge field \( m_0^2 \sim m_0^2 + e^2 (A^2) \) and as a result of finite temperature \( \theta \), which we take to be 0.01.

The equations of motion are evolved on a square lattice of \( 512^2 \) grid points, using the standard staggered leapfrog method with periodic boundary conditions. We impose the gauge \( A_t = 0 \), implicit in Eqns. (2) and (3), and average each case over 20 realisations. Defects were resolved by several grid spacings at low temperatures.

We begin the simulations well above the phase transition, allowing the system to come to equilibrium under the influence of the noise and relaxation at constant \( \epsilon \). We monitor the behaviour of the order parameter and the gauge field throughout the subsequent evolution. The focus of attention, however, is the number of topological defects, which can be identified as zeroes of \( \psi \) in the broken symmetry phase. Initially, in the symmetric phase, such zeroes are plentiful and short lived (see Fig. 1). While they cannot be identified with defects, their density and arrangement gives an idea of the nature of the thermal fluctuations.
Below the transition their overall density decreases, although there still exist regions where the field has a near-zero expectation value and, hence, plenty of unstable zeros. Eventually, only a few isolated defects (as well as a few pairs which are about to annihilate) remain. We count only zeroes that have no companions within \( \xi_0 = m_0^{-1} \).

The local and global \((e = 0)\) gauge cases are qualitatively indistinguishable until this late stage. However, local defects do not interact significantly over more than a few correlation lengths and annihilate relatively slowly, even when the friction coefficient is small. By contrast, global defects interact via a potential logarithmic in distance, and disappear much more rapidly. Estimates of initial defect densities become more difficult in this case. Below, we shall focus primarily on the local case, leaving the detailed global-local comparisons for the future.

The theory of defect formation combines the realisation, due to Kibble [3], that the domains of the order parameter \( \psi \) which break symmetry incoherently must contain of the order one ‘fragment’ of a defect, with the estimate \( \xi \) of the relevant size based on the comparison of the relaxation timescale of \( \psi \) with the effective rate \( \psi_0 \). This results in

\[
\frac{\eta \tau_0}{|\epsilon|}, \quad \tau_\psi = \frac{\tau_0}{|\epsilon|^{1/2}} \quad (\tau_0 = 1/m_0)
\]

in the overdamped and underdamped cases respectively, where correspondingly the first or second time derivative in Eqn. \( \xi \) dominates. The overdamped scenario is presumably more relevant for condensed matter applications, while in the cosmological settings \( \psi \) may be underdamped.

The characteristic timescale of variations of \( \epsilon \) is \( \epsilon/\dot{\epsilon} = t \).

The system is able to readjust to the new equilibrium as long as the relaxation time is smaller than \( t \). Hence, outside the time interval \([-\dot{t}, \dot{t}]\) defined by the equation \( \tau(\epsilon(\dot{t})) = \dot{t} \), the evolution of \( \psi \) is approximately adiabatic, and physical quantities follow their equilibrium expectation values. Thus the times

\[
\dot{t}_\psi = \pm \tau_0 \sqrt{\eta \tau_Q} \quad \dot{\epsilon}_\psi = \pm \sqrt{\frac{\eta \tau_0^2}{\tau_Q}} \quad (6)
\]

and

\[
\dot{\psi}_\psi = \pm m_0^{-2/3} \tau_0^{1/3} \quad \dot{\epsilon}_\psi = \pm \left( \frac{m_0^3}{\tau_Q} \right)^{2/3} \quad (7)
\]

mark the borders between the (approximately) adiabatic and impulse (or, perhaps, “drift”) stages of evolution of \( \psi \) in the overdamped and underdamped cases, respectively.

In particular, the correlation length \( \xi \) of \( \psi \) above the transition will cease to increase with the Landau-Ginzburg scaling \( (\xi = \xi_0/|\epsilon|^{1/2}) \) above the transition once the adiabatic–impulse boundary at \(-\dot{t} \) is reached. Dynamics will be suspended (except for the drift and noise) in the interval \([-\dot{t}, \dot{t}] \) and will resume at \(+\dot{t} \) below the transition, as the mass term drives the symmetry breaking.

We expect, then, that the characteristic length scale over which \( \psi \) is ordered already in the course of the transition will be the correlation length at freeze-out, \( \dot{\xi} = \xi_0/\sqrt{\eta} \). This results in

\[
\dot{\psi} = \xi_0 \left( \frac{\tau_Q}{\eta \tau_0^2} \right)^{1/4} \quad \dot{\epsilon}_\psi = \xi_0 \left( \frac{\tau_Q}{\tau_0} \right)^{1/3} \quad (8)
\]

in the two cases. The initial density of vortex lines in two dimensions should then scale as

\[
n_\psi = \frac{1}{(f_\psi \dot{\psi})^2} = \frac{1}{(f_\psi \dot{\psi})^2} \sqrt{\frac{\eta \tau_0}{\tau_Q}}. \quad (9)
\]
in the over- and under-damped regimes respectively. Above, \( f \) is the proportionality factor which is expected to be of the order of a few \([5] \), and which may be estimated analytically in some cases \([11] \).

The relative importance of the \( \dot{\psi} \) and \( \ddot{\psi} \) terms in Eqn. \([9] \) also depends on \( \dot{\psi} \). What matters for the formation of defects is – in view of the arguments above – which of the two terms dominates at \( t \). Thus, \( \eta^2 > \dot{\psi} \) is the condition for overdamped evolution, which leads to the inequality \( \eta^2 \tau_Q > n_0^2 \). Therefore, one can enter the overdamped regime by performing a sufficiently slow quench, as well as increasing the damping parameter \( \eta \).

We verify these scalings in Fig. 2, where the numbers of defects obtained in both the overdamped and under-damped cases are plotted as a function of the quench time \( \tau_Q \). In the overdamped case the annihilation of the well-separated topological defects is slow. Consequently, it is relatively easy to count them at some fixed time. This yields Fig. 2b with \( n \sim \tau_Q^\gamma \), \( \gamma = -0.44 \pm 0.1 \) for \( \tau_Q \geq \tilde{t} \), in good agreement with the theoretical prediction of \( \gamma = -1/2 \) \([5] \). A similar conclusion can be reached for the underdamped case, Fig. 2a, except that annihilation is now quite rapid, and the initial number of defects is harder to define. This is especially true for the fastest quenches which produce most defects. However, when the two left-most points most affected by annihilation are ignored, straightforward counting of vortices yields \( \gamma = -0.6 \pm 0.07 \). This is in agreement with the theory – which in this case predicts \( \gamma = -2/3 \) \([12] \) – and with the indications from kink formation in one dimension \([3] \).

The reason the slope may be expected to become more shallow for small \( \tau_Q \) is easy to understand. A very fast quench becomes indistinguishable from an instantaneous one, which does not allow for the adiabatic regime we have noted above. Instantaneous quenches start the evolution in the broken symmetry phase, but with an initial field configuration which will contain many zeros per healing-length size volume – too many to regard them as well-defined defects. Unless the defects are well-separated at their conception (which in effect requires \( \dot{\psi} \ll 1 \)), annihilation will decide their initial density. We see this already in Fig. 2b, where \( \dot{\psi} = 0.5 \) for the left-most point. The effect is even more pronounced in the under-damped case, which allows for more rapid annihilation (Fig. 2a).

The annihilation rate can be expected to be of the simple form \( \dot{n} = -\chi n^2 \), where \( \chi \) is a function of \( \eta \), as the annihilation is proportional to the rate at which defects encounter one another. This leads to

\[
n^{-1} = n_0^{-1} + \chi t. \tag{11}
\]

Fig. 3 shows (in the underdamped case, when the annihilation is appreciable) the fit between \([11] \) and the data.

We can then infer the value of the initial defect density \( n_0 \), which is also shown in Fig. 2a. This procedure (followed, for instance, in the superfluid work \([11] \)) yields a somewhat different slope \( n_0 \sim \tau_Q^{-0.79 \pm 0.04} \), steeper than equal-time data, and somewhat steeper than the theoretical prediction. It also seems to successfully correct for the annihilation (although the left-most point still seems to be affected). Also, using the data in Fig. 2, we estimate \( f_\psi \approx 12 \) and \( f_\psi \approx 8 \) (equal-time measurements), \( f_\psi \approx 4 \) (from fitting to Eqn. \([11] \)).

One of the issues in the formation of topological defects is the relative significance of the thermal fluctuations, which continue to re-arrange the configuration of the order parameter down to the Ginzburg regime (i.e. below the phase transition temperature). If, as was once thought, fluctuations and Ginzburg temperature were to determine initial defect density, then taking the system above the critical point would be expected to erase the pre-existing configuration of defects and create a new one. We have performed a numerical experiment designed to test the importance of fluctuations. The initial configuration with defects present is the one shown above in Fig. 1c. We reheat this by varying \( \epsilon \) from the broken symmetry value \( \epsilon = 1 \) to several values in the vicinity of the critical point \( \epsilon \approx 0 \), using the same \( \tau_Q \) as was used as in the original quench of Fig. 1.

The results (Fig. 4) demonstrate that even when the system is taken above the critical point, the initial configuration of defects is eventually recovered, as long as the re-heating does not take it further than \( \dot{\psi} \) into the symmetric phase. This confirms the theory put forward in \([11] \), and leads one to conclude that thermal fluctuations cannot significantly re-arrange configurations of the order parameter on scales larger than \( \sim \xi \), unless the “impulse strip” \( |\epsilon| < |\dot{\psi}| \) is traversed (or unless the time spent in that regime is set by a timescale other than the original quench timescale \( \tau_Q \)).

We have used high-resolution numerical simulations to explore phase transitions in two dimensions and have found the scaling with quench timescale and damping agree with the predictions of the Kibble-Zurek scenario. The importance of the freeze-out time \( t \) as the defining moment for defect formation has been illustrated.

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FIG. 2 (left) The variation of defect count $N$ with $\tau_Q$ in both (a) under- and (b) over-damped regimes. The fitted slopes are (a) $-0.60 \pm 0.07$ ($\chi^2 = 0.034$, dropping the 3 left-most points) and (b) $-0.44 \pm 0.10$ ($\chi^2 = 0.44$, dropping 2 points) Predicted values were $-2/3$ and $-1/2$. The points fitted by the dashed line are inferred from the fits in fig. 3. The slope is $-0.79 \pm 0.04$ ($\chi^2 = 0.27$).

FIG. 3 (right) Defect annihilation in the underdamped regime. The inverse of the defect count is plotted against time for various $\tau_Q$. Also shown are least-squares fits using Eqn. [1].

FIG. 4. Memory and reheating. The post-transition configuration shown in figure 1 (the point S in the sketch to the left) is reheated to various temperatures close to the critical point (figs. a-c) and cooled again to $\epsilon = 1$ (A-C respectively). The reheat values of $\epsilon$ are (a) $-0.1$, (b) $-0.2$ and (c) $-0.25$. Here $|\hat{\epsilon}| \simeq 0.17$. Notice that the memory of the configuration is largely preserved even when the critical temperature is exceeded during reheating (figs. A and B). Memory is erased only when the temperature crosses the $|\hat{\epsilon}|$ freezeout zone associated with the formation of the original defect configuration.