Superfluid-insulator transition and BCS-BEC crossover in "dirty" ultracold Fermi gas

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Superfluid-insulator transition in an ultracold Fermi gas in the external disorder potential of the amplitude $V_0$ is studied as a function of the concentration of the gas $n$ and magnetic field $B$ in the presence of the Feshbach resonance. We find the zero temperature phase diagrams in the plane $(B,n)$ at a given $V_0$ and in the plane $(V_0,n)$ at a given $B$. Our results for BEC side of the diagram are also valid for the superfluid-insulator transition in a Bose gas.

Using the Feshbach resonance in the magnetic field $B$ one can study lots of interesting physics in ultracold Fermi gases (see the recent review article and references therein). In the vicinity of the Feshbach resonance $B = B_0$ the scattering length of two fermions typically changes as

$$a = a_0 \frac{\Delta B}{B_0 - B},$$

(1)

where we omitted the non-resonant term. As a result by the decreasing magnetic field the Fermi gas can be transformed from the phase of weakly attracting fermions (at $B > B_0$) to the phase of repelling each other compact composite bosons, dimers made of two fermions with opposite spins (at $B < B_0$). At $B = B_0$ the gas goes through unitarity. In a clean Fermi gas all mentioned above phases are superfluid. Far enough from the resonance at $B > B_0$ superfluidity is described by the Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer (BCS) theory, while on the other side, at $B < B_0$, the theory of Bose-Einstein condensation (BEC) of composite bosons works. Thus, reduction of magnetic field $B$ leads the gas through BCS-BEC crossover.

The aim of this paper is to consider the zero temperature BCS-BEC crossover in a "dirty" Fermi gas, i.e. in the gas situated in a three-dimensional (3D) random potential. Such a random potential can be created, for example, by superposing a 3D speckle on the ultracold gas sitting in a trap. Obviously, a strong enough disorder can localize the Fermi gas on BCS side and the BEC condensate on BEC side, destroying superfluidity in both cases. For brevity, we call the localized phase "insulator" and the localization transition "superfluid-insulator" (SI) transition. In this paper we are talking about SI transition in uniform in average infinite gas but some of our results can be applicable to experiments with wide enough traps.

Expansion of BEC condensate of ultracold Bose gases in the disorder potential of one-dimensional speckles has been recently studied experimentally. It was found that the disorder stops expansion at some distance. In this case, however, a big role may be played by rare very high hills of the random potential. Apparently several laboratories are planning similar studies of SI transition in a potential created by 3D speckles. One can expect that in this case the rare high hills are less important and theory of SI transition in infinite system is more relevant.

In a Fermi gas in a fixed external random potential the SI transition can be driven by the decreasing concentration of fermions $n$ at a given magnetic field $B$, or by the decreasing $B$ at a given $n$. Therefore, one can think about the SI phase diagram of a Fermi gas in the plane $(B,n)$. In this paper, we find the zero temperature SI border line $n(B)$ on such a phase diagram (see Fig. 1). Because $B$ and $n$ can be independently controlled this diagram can be verified experimentally. We characterize disorder by the amplitude of the random potential energy $V_0$ (mean square deviation of random potential $V(r)$ from average value) and the characteristic size of potential wells and hills $R$. In the first part of this paper we assume that both $V_0$ and $R$ are so large that if $m$ is the mass of the fermion

$$V_0 \gg \frac{\hbar^2}{mR^2}.$$  

(2)

This means that a typical potential well has many levels. In this sense we are talking about classical random potential. From the beginning we assume that $n(B)$ is so large that the average number of atoms in a well $nR^3 \gg 1$, but in the end we show that near the SI border this inequality follows from (2).

Let us first consider BCS phase corresponding to $B > B_0$. Here the criterion of superfluidity coincides with the condition that the Fermi level of weakly interacting Fermi

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**FIG. 1:** The phase diagram of the SI transition. Magnetic field $B$ is plotted on the horizontal axis, while the fermion concentration $n$ is plotted on the vertical one. S stands for superfluid and I for insulator. $B_0$ is the Feshbach resonance point. Critical concentrations $n_f$ and $n_i(B)$ for the classical random potential are straight lines given by Eqs. (9) and (10) respectively.

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gas reaches the mobility edge in a given external potential. Roughly speaking, this happens when the Fermi energy of the gas $E_F = (\hbar^2/2m)(3\pi^2 n)^{2/3}$ becomes larger than the amplitude $V_0$ of the random potential. This condition leads to the critical concentration of SI transition $n = n_f$ on the side of free fermions ($B > B_0$)

$$n_f = C_f R^{-3} \left( \frac{V_0}{\hbar^2/mR^2} \right)^{3/2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

Thus, the segment of the SI border at $B > B_0$ is horizontal as shown in Fig. 1. It is known that in a classical long range potential the numerical coefficient $C_f$ can be found using the idea that in the classical potential the mobility edge coincides with the classical percolation level $V_p$. This is the level at which Fermi gas lakes formed in the random potential wells merge to create the infinite cluster or the Fermi sea. In a generic three-dimensional gaussian potential with the distribution function

$$F(V) = \frac{1}{V_0 \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-V^2/2V_0^2),$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

this level corresponds to occupation of $\theta_c = 17\%$ of the space by lakes. This gives

$$V_p = -0.96V_0.$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

Now we can find $n_f$ as the total concentration of fermions in wells deeper than $V_p$. Inequality (2) lets us use Thomas-Fermi (TF) approximation

$$n_f = \frac{1}{3\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{V_p} \left( \frac{2m(V_p - V)}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} F(V)dV.$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

For a gaussian potential this leads to the coefficient in Eq. (3)

$$C_f = \frac{2}{3\pi^{5/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{V_p/V_0} \left[ V_p/V_0 - x \right]^{3/2} \exp(-x^2/2)dx \simeq 0.008.$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

Let us switch to the less trivial BEC side of the diagram which corresponds to $B < B_0$. In this case, interaction of dimers plays the crucial role. Following Ref. we refer to the scattering length of the two dimers as $a_{dd}$. Then the uniform gas of interacting dimers has the positive chemical potential

$$\mu(n) = \frac{4\pi\hbar^2 (n/2)a_{dd}}{2m} = \frac{\pi\hbar^2 na_{dd}}{m}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

Here we took into account that the concentration of dimers is $n/2$, while the dimer mass is $2m$. If $\mu(n)$ is larger than the amplitude of the random potential, $V_0$, the gas of dimers can screen the random potential redistributing a small fraction of its density from the hills of the random potential to the wells. On the other hand, if $\mu(n) \ll V_0$ the gas is fragmented in many disconnected lakes. Thus, the condition of delocalization of dimers and, therefore, the condition of superfluidity in this case is roughly speaking $\mu(n) = V_0$. Substituting the nontrivial result of Ref. into Eq. (3) and using Eq. (11) we get for the SI border concentration of fermions $n_b$ on the compact bosons side ($B < B_0$)

$$n_b(B) = C_b R^{-3} R \left( \frac{V_0}{\hbar^2/mR^2} \right) = C_b R^{-3} \frac{R}{a_0} \frac{V_0}{(\hbar^2/mR^2)} \frac{B_0 - B}{\Delta B}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

Let us now estimate the numerical coefficient $C_b$. To this end we again appeal to the percolation theory and deal with the percolation level $2V_p$ in the potential energy of a dimer $2V(r)$. The local concentration $n(r)/2$ of dimers adjusts to external potential according to the Gross-Pitaevskii equation (GPE)

$$\mu\psi(r) = -\frac{\hbar^2 \nabla^2}{4m} + 2V(r) + \frac{4\pi\hbar^2 a_{dd}|\psi(r)|^2}{2m} \psi(r),$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

where $\mu$ is the condensate chemical potential, $2V(r)$ is the potential acting on a dimer, and the condensate wave function $\psi(r)$ is normalized to total number of dimers, $\int d^3 r |\psi(r)|^2 = N/2$, where $N$ is the total number of fermions. Thus, $|\psi(r)|^2$ has the meaning of the local concentration of dimers $n(r)/2$. Let us show that near the SI border one can use the TF approximation and drop the kinetic energy term of GPE. This can be done if the healing length $\lambda_h = [(n/2)a_{dd}]^{-1/2}$ of the condensate is much smaller than characteristic length of potential, $\lambda_h \ll R$. Using above estimate for the critical concentration $n_b$ we get that for the classical disorder potential (Eq. (2)) at the BEC side SI border

$$\frac{\lambda_h(n_b)}{R} = \left( \frac{\hbar^2/mR^2}{V_0} \right)^{1/2} \ll 1.$$  \hspace{1cm} (12)

Thus, one can proceed in the TF approximation, where at every point local concentration of the condensate $n(r)$ satisfies equation

$$\frac{\pi\hbar^2 na_{dd}}{m} + 2V(r) = \mu.$$  \hspace{1cm} (13)

The chemical potential $\mu$ is determined by normalization of concentration of dimers $n(r)/2$ to the total number of dimers $N/2$ and grows with increasing $N$. If $\mu < 2V_p$ we get only disconnected Bose gas lakes. If $\mu > 2V_p$ the merging lakes form the Bose sea or the infinite cluster. Thus, similarly to the BCS side on the BES side the SI transition also happens when $\mu = 2V_p$. For a gaussian potential with the help of Eq. (6) this gives for $C_b$ in Eq. (10)

$$C_b = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{0.6\pi^{3/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{V_p/V_0} [V_p/V_0 - x] \exp(-x^2/2)dx \simeq 0.01.$$  \hspace{1cm} (14)
For more realistic distribution of the speckle potential we do not know the percolation threshold, but on the basis of approximate universality of the $\theta_c$ we guess that $C_t$ is the same as for gaussian potential within 20%.

Thus, the SI border $n(B)$ consists of the two straight lines, as shown in Fig. 1. At $B < B_0$ it follows the line with the negative slope, Eq. (10) and at $B > B_0$ the border line is horizontal, Eq. (11). Eq. (11) is valid until $n_b(B) \gg n_f$. At $B = B_0 - \delta B$, where $\delta B = \Delta B(V_0/(\hbar^2/m a_0)^1/2$ Eq. (10) crosses over to Eq. (8). In the unitarity interval of the width $\delta B$ around $B = B_0$ at the SI border we arrive at $n(B) a^3 \sim 1$. In other words in this interval $k_F a \sim t_h/a \sim 1$. Because the length of a dimer, $\xi \sim a_{dd} \sim a$, one can also say that only in the unitarity interval $n\xi^3 \sim 1$ and dimers touch each other. This differs from the superconductor-insulator transition in a toy Coulomb model, where the $n\xi^3 \sim 1$ at the long intermediate segment of the superconductor-insulator border.

The fact that the critical concentration $n_b$ exceeds $n_f$ is easy to understand. Indeed, at a given $n$ dimers have much smaller chemical potential than weakly interacting fermions. Thus, dimers need a larger concentration $n$ in order to get delocalized. In the similar way one can understand the growth of $n(B)$ with the decreasing $B$ at $B < B_0$. Indeed, at a given $n$, the farther from the resonance, the more ideal the Bose gas of dimers is, the smaller is its chemical potential. Again, to compensate for this trend $n(B)$ should grow with the decreasing $B$.

Above we assumed that the number of particles in a well of the random potential is large, $n R^3 >> 1$ and used the mean field approximation on the BEC side, ignoring discreetness of particles. As we see from Fig. 1 the minimum value of the border concentration $n(B)$ is $n_f$. Therefore, inequality $n_f R^3 \gg 1$ guarantees that everywhere on the border $n(B) R^3 \gg 1$. Substituting Eq. (3) into $n_f R^3 \gg 1$ we arrive at inequality (2). Thus, this inequality is the single condition of validity of the above theory of SI border.

It is clear from the above discussion that the insulating phase on the BEC side consists of disconnected lakes, populated by dimers. One can use the term Bose glass for this phase, because it has no excitation gap and is compressible.

Until now we assumed that the disorder is classical in the sense of inequality (2). Let us now discuss what happens for a quantum random potential, when the opposite strong inequality
\[ V_0 \ll \frac{\hbar^2}{m R^2} \]  
(15)
takes place. In an experiment one can move from inequality (2) to inequality (15) by scaling down the intensity of the light beams creating speckles, while keeping the rest of the speckle set up (including $R$) fixed. How will then the phase diagram in $(B, n)$ plane change?

Let us start this discussion from the BCS side of the diagram ($B > B_0$) and concentrate on the disorder induced density of states (DOS) at small energies. For simplicity, we assume that we are dealing with a gaussian potential $V(r)$ which two point correlation function decays as $1/r^3$ or faster at $r \gg R$. According to inequality (15) the case of quantum disorder the wells of the size $R$ do not have levels. In this case, the characteristic energy of the low energy tail of DOS is determined by wells of the size $L \gg R$, which are large enough to get a level spacing
\[ \frac{\hbar^2}{m R^2} \]
(16)
Substituting $L_c$ to $V(L)$ we arrive at the characteristic energy scale of the low energy tail
\[ V_t = C_t V_0 \left( \frac{V_0}{\hbar^2/m R^2} \right)^3. \]
(17)
The energy which separates localized and delocalized states (the mobility edge) is also of the order of $V_t$. For a quantum random potential (Eq. (15)) $V_t \ll V_0$ and the concentration of fermions which can be localized in the tails or, in other words, the critical concentration of SI transition, $n_f$ is very small, too
\[ n_f \sim R^{-3} \left( \frac{V_0}{\hbar^2/m R^2} \right)^6, \quad (V_0 \ll \hbar^2/m R^2). \]
(18)
Let us switch now to the BEC side of the phase diagram ($B < B_0$). In this case, the tails of DOS can accommodate more dimers in the band of energies $V_t$ because we can condense many bosons at one level. Only if the chemical potential of bosons given by Eq. (8) becomes larger than $V_t$ the states become delocalized. Thus, $n_b$ can be estimated equating $\mu$ and $V_t$. Using Eq. (8) and

![FIG. 2: Schematic phase diagram of SI transition for a Fermi gas at $B < B_0$ or for a weakly non-ideal Bose gas. The critical concentration of SI transition $n_b$ is plotted against the disorder amplitude $V_0$. S stands for superfluid and I for the insulator. The SI border shows crossover between regimes of quantum and classical random potentials at $V_0 = \hbar^2/m R^2$.](image-url)
Eq. (17) we get for $V_0 \ll \hbar^2/mR^2$

$$n_b \sim R^{-3} \frac{V_0}{\hbar^2/mR^2} \sim R^{-3} \frac{V_0}{\hbar^2/mR^2} \frac{B_0 - B}{\Delta B} \quad \text{(19)}$$

This result can be also obtained from the condition that the SI transition happens at $\mu \tau / \hbar \sim 1$, where $\tau$ is the relaxation time of a delocalized boson with the energy $\mu$. The crossover between Eqs. (18) and (19) happens in the unitarity interval of the width $\Delta B = \frac{\hbar^2}{(a_0/R) V_0 ((\hbar^2/mR^2)^2)}$ around $B_0$. In this interval $n a^3 \sim k F a \sim l_h/a \sim L_c/a \sim 1$ similarly to the case of the classical potential. In the language of GPE the estimates we arrived above correspond to the solution, where all three terms in the right side of Eq. (11) play comparable roles. In other words, expectations of the kinetic energy term, of the random potential term and of the repulsion energy are of the same order of magnitude at SI border. Note, that at the same time the amplitude $V_0$ of the bare potential is much larger than other terms. Only the quantum mechanical averaging makes the disorder potential energy $V(L_c)$ equal to other terms. For a Fermi gas, the idea of such averaging is known, for a long time. For a weakly non-ideal Bose gas idea of quantum mechanical “smoothing” of disorder potential was explored only recently. However, SI phase diagram of an infinite, uniform in average gas could not be studied in Refs. because they dealt with an one-dimensional disorder potential.

Let us discuss applicability of the mean field theory (GPE) for calculation of $n_b$. GPE is applicable if at $n = n_b$ the characteristic length $L_c$ or if $n_b L_c^3 \gg 1$. It is clear that $n_b \gg n_f$. Multiplying this inequality by $L_c^3$ and using Eqs. (10) and (11) we arrive at necessary inequality $n_b L_c^3 \gg n_f L_c^2 \sim 1$. Thus, the mean field theory is applicable for calculation of $n_b$. Mean field approach fails and one arrives at single-particle regime only at $n \ll n_0$. We see from Eqs. (11) and (19) that in the case of a quantum random potential $V_0 \ll \hbar^2/mR^2$ both critical concentrations $n_f$ and $n_b$ decrease very rapidly with the decreasing $V_0$. As a result, while the whole phase diagram in this case looks like Fig. 1 the concentrations $n_f$ and $n_b$ are dramatically smaller than for a classical random potential.

The summary of our results for the BEC phase is given in Fig. 2 where we plot the critical concentration of SI transition $n_b$ as a function of the amplitude of the random potential $V_0$ (or the intensity of the speckle-building light), while scattering length $a$ and the characteristic scale of disorder $R$ are fixed. The fourth order parabola in the beginning of $n_b(V_0)$ curve is given by Eq. (10). At $V_0 = \hbar^2/mR^2$ this parabola crosses over to Eq. (11). Our results for the BEC phase of dimers shown on Fig. 2 are clearly applicable to a generic weakly non-ideal Bose gas with the scattering amplitude $a > 0$.

In conclusion I have studied the zero temperature phase diagram of the superfluid-insulator phase transition for a Fermi gas going through Feshbach resonance with the changing magnetic field and for a Bose gas. I dealt with uniform infinite gases, did not consider the role of the inverse parabolic profile $n(r)$ in the trap, and did not study dynamics of the BEC phase expansion when the trap is eliminated. A likely scenario of this expansion (similar to that of Ref. 13) is as follows. If the maximum concentration of the gas in the center of the trap $n_m > n_b$ there is no expansion. On the other hand, if $n_m > n_b$ only bosons from the central domain $r < r_0$ where $n(r) > n_b$ leave reducing original $n(r)$ to the flat $n(r) = n_b$ at $r < r_0$. This means that at $n_m - n_b < n_b$ the fraction of the gas mass released in an expansion is proportional to $(n_m - n_b)^{3/2}$.

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