

## Experimental Development of Dilute atomic Bose-Einstein Condensation

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### Introduction

In 1925, Albert Einstein showed theoretically that a phase transition occurs below a critical temperature for a system of identical, non-interacting particles. Usually the temperature of a sample corresponds to the average velocity of its atoms or molecules. However, there is always a distribution of particles moving faster or slower. In a Bose-Einstein condensate (BEC) this characteristic distribution vanishes. Instead, a large number of atoms in the sample are nearly at rest. They constitute the BEC. The sample remains in gaseous state. Hence, it is not a usual phase transition from gas to liquid or a solid.

Einstein's result can be explained in terms of wave nature of matter i.e. each atom can be regarded as wavepacket with a size determined by its temperature. During cooling process, the atomic wavepackets grow & start to overlap at a certain temperature. At this point, the statistics of particles that can occupy the same quantum state, the so-called bosons, predicts that atoms accumulate in the lowest energy state of the system. They form a BEC. In this state, the wave nature of all particles becomes identical. Hence, all atoms have a distinct phase relationship, a property often called coherence.

Einstein made his predictions based on work by S. Bose (1924), who had developed the statistics of bosons in 1924. It took physicists 1995 to produce BEC in dilute atomic gases (Anderson et al. 1995; Bradley et al. 1995; Davis et al. 1995; Fried et al. 1998; Robert et al. 2001; Santos et al. 2001)

Bose-Einstein condensates in dilute atomic gases, which were first realized experimentally in 1995 for Rubidium, sodium & lithium provide unique opportunities for exploring quantum phenomena on a macroscopic scale. These systems differ from ordinary gas liquids & solids in a number of respects; The particle density at the centre of a Bose-Einstein condensed atomic cloud is typically  $10^{13}$ - $10^{15}$   $\text{cm}^{-3}$ . By contrast, the density of molecules in air at room temperature & atmospheric pressure is about  $10^{19}$   $\text{cm}^{-3}$ . In liquids & solids, the density of atoms is of  $10^{22}$   $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , while the density of nucleons in atomic nuclei is about  $10^{38}$   $\text{cm}^{-3}$ . To observe quantum phenomena in such low-density systems, the temperature must be of order  $10^{-5}$  K or less. This may be contrasted with the temperature at which quantum phenomena occur in solids & liquids. In solids, quantum effects become strong for electrons in metals below the Fermi temperature, which is typically  $10^4$ - $10^5$  K and for phonons below the Debye temperature, which is typically of order 10K. For the helium liquids, the temperatures required for observing quantum phenomena are of order 1K. Due to the much higher particle density in atomic nuclei, the corresponding degeneracy temperature is about  $10^{11}$  K.

The path that led in 1995 to the first realization of Bose-Einstein condensation in dilute gases exploited the powerful methods developed over the past quarter of century for cooling alkali metal atoms by using lasers. Since laser cooling alone cannot produce sufficiently high densities & low temperatures for condensation, it is followed by an evaporative stage, in which the more energetic atoms are removed from the trap, thereby cooling the remaining atoms.

### **Experimental Development**

Now, we present a brief Review of experimental development within BEC field.

The first experiment after the realization of BEC in the alkali gases focussed on the macroscopic properties of the sample. There include the growth of condensate fraction as the temperature of the sample is lowered (Ensher et al. 1996) and the propagation of sound (Andrews et al. 1997). These experiments led to a better theoretical understanding of the interaction between the condensate and the thermal cloud (Hutchinsan et al. 1998). Later experiments started to explore the quantum mechanical nature of the condensate. The existence of a well defined phase was demonstrated by interfering two condensates (Andriur et al. 1976) and prompted much debate about the nature of the condensate wavefunction (Castin and Dalibard 1997). The analogy between the coherence of BEC & laser light sparked an interest in producing coherent atomic beams (Mewers et al. 1997), but later experiments produced coherence of BEC & laser light sparked an interest in producing coherent atomic beams (Mewes et al. 1997), but later experiments produced continuous streams of unlimited duration (Hagley et al. 1999; Bloch et al. 1999), beautifully illustrating the concept of an atom laser. The challenge of repopulating the BEC to produce a sustained atomic beam still has to be met. By loading a BEC into a dipole trap (Stamper-Kurh et al. 1998), it was demonstrated that laser-cooling techniques can be used to manipulate BECs. Populating an optical lattice (Anderson and Kasevich 1998) with a BEC has led to the observation of Josephson-type junctions between neighbouring lattice sites. The manipulation of BEC with laser light promises huge possibilities and has resulted in a number of recent publications (Deng et al. 1999; Stamper-Kurh et al. 1999). More recently, the field has focused on the superfluid nature of Bose condensates and the formation of vortices (Mathews et al. 1999; Madison et al. 2000; Abo Shaker et al. 2001). Recently more atomic species and isotopes have been condensed. Two experiments have succeeded in condensing metastable helium (Robert et al. 2001; Santos et al. 2001). The large potential energy of the coherent atomic ensemble is of particular interest for lithographic applications. The rubidium isotope  $^{85}\text{Rb}$  has been condensed (Comish et al. 2000) by exploiting a Feshbach resonance at particular magnetic fields. In this system, the interaction strength between atoms can be controlled accurately, allowing for a few kinds of experiments of quantum degenerate gases (Roberts et al. 2000).

### **Bose-Einstein condensation in atomic clouds**

Bosons are particles with integer spin. The wave function for a system of identical bosons is symmetric under interchange of any two particles. An order of magnitude estimate of the transition temperature to the Bose-Einstein condensed state may be made from dimensional arguments. For a uniform gas of free particles, the relevant quantities are the particle mass 'm', the number density 'n', and the Planck constant 'h' = 2πħ. The only energy that can be formed from n, and m is  $\hbar^2 n^{2/3}/m$ . By dividing this energy by the Boltzmann constant k we obtain an estimate of the condensation Temperature 'Tc'.

$$T_c = \frac{\hbar^2 n^{2/3}}{mk} \quad (1.1)$$

Here C is a numerical factor. When (1.1) is evaluated for the mass and density appropriate to liquid use at saturated vapour pressure one obtains a transition temperature of approximately 3.13k which is close to the temperature below which super fluid phenomena are observed, the so-called lambda point ( $T_h = 2.17k$  at saturated vapour pressure). An equivalent way of relating the transition temperature to the particle density is to compare the thermal de Broglie wavelength with the mean interparticle spacing which is of order  $n^{-1/3}$ . The thermal de Broglie wavelength is conventionally defined by-

$$\lambda_T = \frac{\{2\pi\hbar^2\}^{1/2}}{\{mkT\}} \quad (1.2)$$

At high temperatures, it is small and the gas behaves classically. Bose – Einstein condensation in an ideal gas occurs when the temperature is so low that  $\lambda_T$  is comparable to  $n^{-1/3}$ . For alkali atoms, the densities achieved range from  $10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  to  $10^{14}$ - $10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  in early to recent experiments, with transition temperatures in the range from 100K to a few MK. In experiments, gases are non-uniform, since they are contained in a trap, which typically provides a harmonic oscillator potential. If the number of particles is N, the density of gas in the cloud is of order  $N/R^3$ , where the size R of a thermal gas cloud is of order  $(KT/m\omega^2)^{1/2}$ ,  $\omega$  being the angular frequency of single particle motion in the harmonic-oscillator potential. Substituting the value of the density  $n=N/R^3$  at  $T = T_c$  into equation (1.1), the transition temperature is given by-

$$kT_c = G\hbar\omega_0 N^{1/3}$$

Where G is a numerical constant which we shall later show to be approximately 0.94. The frequencies for traps used in experiments are typically of order  $10^2 \text{ Hz}$ , corresponding to  $\omega_0 = 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and therefore transition temperatures lie in the range quoted above. Estimates of the transition temperature based on results for a uniform Bose gas are therefore consistent with those for a trapped gas.

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