## CHAPTER 9

## VORTEX SOLITONSIN POLY-ACETYLENE

## 9. 1 POLYACETYLENE

Polyacetylene (IUPAC name: polyethyne) usually refers to an organic polymer with the repeating unit $\left(\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{H}_{2}\right)_{\mathrm{n}}$. The name refers to its conceptual construction from polymerization of acetylene to give a chain with repeating olefingroups. This compound is conceptually important as the discovery of polyacetylene and its high conductivity upon doping helped to launch the field of organic conductive polymers. The high electrical conductivity discovered by Hideki Shirakawa, Alan Heeger, and Alan MacDiarmid for this polymer led to intense interest in the use of organic compounds inmicroelectronics (organic semiconductors). This discovery was recognized by the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 2000. Early work in the field of polyacetylene research was aimed at using doped polymers as easily processable and lightweight "plastic metals." Despite the promise of this polymer in the field of conductive polymers, many of its properties such as instability to air and difficulty with processing have led to avoidance in commercial applications.

Compounds called polyacetylenes also occur in nature, although in this context the term refers to polyynes, compounds containing multiple acetylene groups ("poly" meaning many), rather than to chains of olefin groups ("poly" meaning polymerization of).

### 9.2 STRUCTURE OF POLYACETYLENE



Figure 1 Structural diagram


Figure 2 Ball-and-stick model
Polyacetylene consists of a long chain of carbon atoms with alternating single and double bonds between them, each with one hydrogen atom. The double bonds can have either cis or trans geometry. The controlled synthesis of each isomer of the polymer, cis-polyacetylene or trans-polyacetylene, can be achieved by changing the temperature at which the reaction is conducted. The cis form of the polymer is thermodynamically less stable than the trans isomer. Despite the conjugated nature of the polyacetylene backbone, not all of the carbon-carbon bonds in the material are equal: a distinct single/double alternation exists. Each hydrogen atom can be replaced by a functional group. Substituted polyacetylenes tend to be more rigid than saturated polymers. Furthermore, placing different functional groups as substituents on the polymer backbone leads to bending of the polymer chain out of conjugation.

### 9.3 INTRODUCTION.

We derive the vortex soliton solutions for the 2D nonlinear optical lattice described by a double Sine-Gordon equation. The presence of the vortex induces energy gaps in the system. Due to the presence of vortices a large block of states are absent in the wave-vector space forcing the original number of spins and charges to redistributed in the depleted number of states. This redistribution forces spin-charge separation in the system. Thus the vortices may be with or without spin or charge

Solitons in conducting polymers have been attracting considerable attention in recent years [119]. In these conducting polymers, Poly-acetylene is a particularly
important example. Each carbon atom in a pure trans-polyacetylene contributes only a single $p \pi$ electron, and $\pi$ band is only half full.

It was recognized that in addition to electron and hole excitations in such a dimerized chain a new type of excitation could exist: namely, a domain wall separating regions of different bonding structure. In view of the fact that the domain wall is a nonlinear shape preserving excitation which propagates freely, it has been called a soliton. To determine the shape of the soliton calculations were carried out by Su , Schrieffer and Heeger. The dynamics of the Solitons is given by the nonlinear Schrodinger equation. We note that the nonlinear Schrodinger equation also describes the dynamics in the nonlinear optical lattice. Hence we consider the dynamics of the nonlinear optical lattices in BEC. However we note that our results of spin charge separation are valid for both Bose Einstein condensates and Poly acetylene.

Bose Einstein Condensation (BEC) has been both predicted and observed in harmonic oscillator potentials [78]. Nonlinear optical lattices have been known to simulate BEC [46]. It is therefore natural to assume a harmonic potential at each site of the nonlinear optical lattice. Further, Solitons have been predicted [20] and observed [87] in these lattices. We know from the seminal work of Krumhansl and Schrieffer [80] that a double well potential gives rise to domain wall Solitons. Since domain wall Solitons are indeed observed [101] in nonlinear optical lattices we suggest that a double well potential may model nonlinear optical lattices. Using the double well model for coupled nonlinear optical lattices we obtain Soliton solutions for one and higher dimensions. For the one dimensional lattice we find domain wall Solitons which induce lattice compression, which have been observed experimentally [116].

Recently in the seminal paper of H. Sakaguchi and B.A Malomed [111] the Lagrangian corresponding to the Gross-Pitaevskii equation was derived. The potential in the Lagrangian is the double well potential which has been treated in the classic paper of Krumhansl and Schrieffer [80]. As shown in [80] the double well potential
admits Domain wall Solitons. Further we find light and dark Solitons in the coupled lattice (but not in the uncoupled lattice) which is again verified by recent experiments on coupled lattices [28, 36].

### 9.4 MODEL.

Following Sakaguchi and Malomed [111] we use the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
i u_{t}=\frac{1}{2}\left(u_{x x}+u_{y y}\right)+\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)-\cos (2 y)\right)|u|^{2} u \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The discretized form of the above equation is
$i \frac{d u_{n, m}^{U}}{d t}=\Delta u_{n, m}-\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)-\cos (2 y)\right)\left|u_{n, m}\right|^{2} u_{n, m}$
where $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$ are the lattice indices for the 2D optical lattices and the Laplacian
$\Delta u_{n, m}$ is given by $\Delta u_{n, m}=\left(u_{n+1, m}+u_{n-1, m}\right)+u_{n, m+1}+u_{n, m-1}-4 u_{n, m}$
This is the discretized form of the GPE. Note that this DNLS has been treated extensively by [79]. For the origin of the factor $\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right)$ refer to [79]. As in [79] we define the norm

$$
\begin{equation*}
N=\sum_{n, m}\left|u_{n, m}\right|^{2} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Further Lagrangian corresponding to (1) in the discrete form is

$$
\begin{equation*}
L=\sum_{n, m}\left[\quad u_{n, m+1} u_{n, m}+u_{n+1, m} u_{n, m}-u_{n, m}^{2}+\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right) u_{n, m}^{4}\right] \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

To solve (2) we use

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{n, m}=u_{n, m}^{(0)} e^{i \Lambda t} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where $u_{n, m}^{(0)}=A \exp (-a|n|-b|m|)$
We wish to find under what condition of $a$ and $b$ we will find stable solution of (2)
Substituting (6),(7)in (2) we get

$$
\Lambda A e^{-a|n|-b|m|}=A\left[\begin{array}{l}
e^{-a|n+1|-b|m|}+e^{-a|n-1|-b|m|}+e^{-a| ||-b| m+1 \mid}  \tag{8}\\
+e^{-a|n|-b|m-1|}-4 e^{-a|n|-b|m|}
\end{array}\right]-A^{2} e^{-2(|n+1|-b|m|)} e^{-a|n|-b|m|}
$$

Dividing by $A e^{-a|n+1|-b|m|}$ one may obtain
$\Lambda=\left[e^{-a}+e^{a}+e^{-b}+e^{b}-4\right]-\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right)$
However $N=\sum_{n, m}\left|u_{n, m}\right|^{2}=\sum_{n, m}\left|u_{n, m}^{(0)}\right|^{2}=A^{2} \sum_{n, m} e^{-2 a|n|}-2 b^{|m|}=\frac{A^{2}}{\operatorname{Tanh} a \operatorname{Tanh} b}$
$A^{2}=N \operatorname{Tanh} a \operatorname{Tanh} b$
We have
$\sum_{n, m}\left[u_{n, m+1} u_{n, m}+u_{n+1, m} u_{n, m}\right]=A^{2} \sum_{n, m}\left[e^{-a|n|-2 b|m+1|} e^{-a|n|-2 b|m|}+e^{-a|n+1|-b|m|} e^{-a|n|-b|m|}\right]$
$=A^{2} \sum_{n, m}\left[e^{-a|n|-b|m|}+e^{-a|n|-b|m|}\right]\left[e^{-b}+e^{-a}\right]=\left[e^{-b}+e^{-a}\right] A^{2} \sum_{n, m}\left[e^{-2 a|n|-2 b|m|}\right]$
$A^{2}=N \operatorname{Tanh} a \operatorname{Tanh} b$
Substituting (13) in (5) we obtain
$\sum_{n, m}\left[e^{-2 a|n|-2 b|m|}\right]=\frac{1}{\operatorname{Tanh} a \operatorname{Tanh} b}$
Hence
$\sum_{n, m}\left[u_{n, m+1}, u_{n, m}+u_{n+1, m} u_{n, m}\right]=N\left[e^{-b}+e^{-a}\right]$
Without loss generality considering all the neighboring points we may write
$\sum_{n, m}\left[u_{n, m+1}, u_{n, m}+u_{n+1, m} u_{n, m}\right]=N\left[e^{b}+e^{-b}+e^{a}+e^{-a}\right]=2 N(\operatorname{sech} b-\operatorname{sech} a)$
$\sum_{n, m} u_{n, m}^{2} \rightarrow N$
$\sum_{n, m}\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right) u_{n, m}^{4}=\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right) \sum_{n, m} u_{n, m}^{4}=\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right) \frac{N^{2}}{16} \frac{\operatorname{Cosh}(2 a) \operatorname{Cosh}(2 b) \operatorname{Sinh} a \operatorname{Sinh} b}{\operatorname{Cosh}^{3}(a) \operatorname{Cosh}^{3}(b)}$
After the summation the Lagrangian becomes
$L_{e f f}=N(\operatorname{sech} b-\operatorname{sech} a)-N+\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right) \frac{N^{2}}{16} \frac{\operatorname{Cosh}(2 a) \operatorname{Cosh}(2 b) \operatorname{Sinh} a \operatorname{Sinh} b}{\operatorname{Cosh}^{3}(a) \operatorname{Cosh}^{3}(b)}$
For a stationary profile we must have $\frac{\partial L_{e f f}}{\partial N}=\frac{\partial L_{e f f}}{\partial a}=\frac{\partial L_{e f f}}{\partial b}=0$
$\frac{\partial L_{e f f}}{\partial N}=(\operatorname{sech} b-\operatorname{sech} a)-1+\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right) \frac{N}{8} \frac{\operatorname{Cosh}(2 a) \operatorname{Cosh}(2 b) \operatorname{Sinh} a \operatorname{Sinh} b}{\operatorname{Cosh}^{3}(a) \operatorname{Cosh}^{3}(b)}=0$
$\frac{\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right) N}{8} X=1-(\operatorname{sech} b-\operatorname{sech} a)$ where $X=\frac{\operatorname{Cosh}(2 a) \operatorname{Cosh}(2 b) \operatorname{Sinh} a \operatorname{Sinh} b}{\operatorname{Cosh}^{3}(a) \operatorname{Cosh}^{3}(b)}$
$N=\frac{8}{X\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)\right)}[1-(\operatorname{sech} b-\operatorname{sech} a)]$
As $[1-(\operatorname{sech} b-\operatorname{sech} a)] \rightarrow 0 N \rightarrow 0 \quad g_{0} \rightarrow \cos 2 x \quad N$ attains max imum

### 9.5 VORTEX SOLUTIONS

For the 2D lattice

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial^{2} u_{n, m}^{(0)}}{\partial x^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} u_{n, m}^{(0)}}{\partial y^{2}}-\left(g_{0}-\cos (2 x)-\cos (2 y)+\Lambda\right)=0 \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Laplacian in polar coordinates is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta=\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial r^{2}}+\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r}+\frac{1}{r^{2}} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \theta^{2}} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

We rewrite (24) in polar coordinates where we have absorbed $g_{0}, \Lambda$ in $A_{1}, A_{2}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial r^{2}}+\frac{\partial f}{r \partial r}+\frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial \theta^{2}}-A_{1} \cos \left(\Omega_{1} \theta\right)-A_{2} \cos \left(\Omega_{2} \theta\right)=0 \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (25) is the double Sine-Gordon equation which admits vortex solutions [119]. We look for solutions of the form
$f(r, \theta)=e^{i m \theta} w(r)$
where $m$ is the vortex degree
We thus obtain for the radial equation
$\frac{\partial^{2} w}{\partial r^{2}}+\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial r}-\frac{m^{2}}{r^{2}}=0$
For large $r$ there is very little change in $w$ and we can neglect the double derivative term. We then have
$\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial r}-\frac{m^{2}}{r^{2}}=0$
This may be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial w}{\partial r}=\frac{m}{r} \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

which has the solution $w=m \ln (r)$


Figure 3

The vortex solution is given by
$f(r, \theta)=e^{i m \theta} m \ln (r)$


Figure 4


Figure 5

### 9.6 ENERGY GAPS IN THE PRESENCE OF VORTICES.

The characteristic feature of Vortex solutions is that the system undergoes very large changes in energy due to very small changes in external parameters. This feature induces energy gaps in the system. To understand this feature it is best to use the SSH Hamiltonian.

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{S S H}=H_{\pi}+H_{\pi-p h}+H_{p h} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this Hamiltonian $H_{\pi}$ describes the electron electron interactions, $H_{p h}$ describes the lattice and $H_{\pi-p h}$ describes the interactions between these two. An effective Hamiltonian used is the tight binding Su-Schrieffer-Heeger (SSH) Hamiltonian. This Hamiltonian

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\pi}=-t_{0} \sum_{n, m, s}\left(c_{n+1, m, s}^{\dagger} c_{n, m, s}+c_{n, m, s}^{\dagger} c_{n+1, m, s}\right)+\left(c_{n, m+1, s}^{\dagger} c_{n, m, s}+c_{n, m, s}^{\dagger} c_{n, m+1, s}\right) \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha$ is the electron-phonon interaction constant and $t_{0}$ the hopping constant for an undimerized
structure. $c_{n t, m, s}^{\dagger}$ and $c_{n, m, s}^{\dagger}$ are the electron creation and annihilator operators on position $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m}$ with spin s , respectively.
$H_{\pi-p h}=\alpha \sum_{n, m, s}\left(u_{n+1, m}-u_{n, m}\right)\left(c_{n+1, m s}^{\dagger} c_{n, m, s}+c_{n, m, s}^{\dagger} c_{n+1, m, s}\right)$
$+\left(u_{n, m+1}-u_{n, m}\right)\left(c_{n, m+1, s}^{\dagger} c_{n, m, s}+c_{n, m, s}^{\dagger} c_{n, m+1, s}\right)$
$u_{n}$ is the deviation from the undimerized structure on site $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{p h}=\sum_{n} \frac{p_{n}^{2}}{2 m}+\frac{1}{2}\left(u_{n, m+1}-u_{n, m}\right)^{2} \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

To diagonalize the above Hamiltonian we use the Fourier transform of the creation (annihilation) operators:

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{k s}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n, s} e^{-i k(n+m) a} c_{n m s} \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

k is the wave vector and ranging from 0 to $\pi / 2 a$
Where N is the number of monomer units in the chain.

$$
\begin{align*}
& c_{k s-}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n, s} e^{-i k(n+m) a} c_{n m s}  \tag{38}\\
& c_{k s+}=\frac{-i}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n, s}(-1)^{n} e^{-i k(n+m) a} c_{n m s} \tag{39}
\end{align*}
$$

The Hamiltonian can now be written as

$$
\begin{align*}
H(u)= & \sum_{k} \varepsilon_{k}\left(c_{k s+}^{\dagger} c_{k s+}-c_{k s-}^{\dagger} c_{k s-}\right)+  \tag{40}\\
& \Delta_{k}\left(c_{k s+}^{\dagger} c_{k s-}+c_{k s-}^{\dagger} c_{k s+}\right)+2 N k u^{2}
\end{align*}
$$

Where

$$
\begin{align*}
& \Delta_{k}=4 \alpha u \sin (k a) \\
& \varepsilon_{k}=2 t_{0} \cos (k a) \tag{41}
\end{align*}
$$

And Brillouin zone is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\frac{\pi}{2 a} \leq k \leq \frac{\pi}{2 a} \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally the Hamiltonian can be diagonalized using the Bogoliubov transformation

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{k s-}=\alpha_{k} c_{k s-}-\beta_{k} c_{k s+}  \tag{43}\\
& a_{k s+}=\beta_{k} c_{k s-}+\alpha_{k} c_{k s+} \tag{44}
\end{align*}
$$

The diagonal Hamiltonian is

$$
\begin{align*}
& H=E_{k}\left(n_{k s+}-n_{k s-)}\right)+2 N k u^{2}  \tag{45}\\
& E_{k}=\left(\varepsilon_{k}^{2}+\Delta_{k}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2} \tag{46}
\end{align*}
$$

Here $\Delta_{k}$ is the band gap. Note that band gap is proportional to the coupling parameter $\alpha$ which plays the same role as $\rho$ discussed earlier.

### 9.7 CHARGE AND SPIN STATES OF VORTICES

As pointed out in section 3 changes in the case of vortices changes of external parameters induce changes in the effective potential. This alters the number of states available in the system. The total number charges in the system is Q and the number of states is N . The following cases arise:

1. $\mathrm{N}=\mathrm{Q}$

In this case each state is assigned one charge
2. $\mathrm{N}<\mathrm{Q}$

In this case each state is assigned one charge and extra charges remain.

## 3. $\mathrm{N}>\mathrm{Q}$

Each state cannot be assigned a charge or spin. Hence vortices with or without spin and with or without charge are possible.

### 9.8 CONCLUSION

We have found vortex solutions in the case of 2D nonlinear optical lattices. In the presence of these vortices there is a large change in the internal parameters of the system caused by only a slight change of the external parameters. This behavior allows us to describe the system in terms of the SSH Hamiltonian which predicts that there will be an energy gap in the system and causes large blocks of states to be absent from the wave vector space. These results in vortices with or without spin or charge are possible.

