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Emergence of nodal-knot transitions by disorder

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 16 January 2025

Received in revised form 4 March 2025

Accepted 15 April 2025

Available online 2 May 2025

Keywords:

Nodal-knot

Disorder

Topological phase transition

Renormalization group

ABSTRACT

Under certain symmetries, degenerate points in three-dimensional metals form one-dimensional nodal lines. These nodal lines sometimes exhibit intricate knotted structures and have been studied in various contexts. As one of the most common physical perturbations, disorder effects often trigger novel quantum phase transitions. For nodal-knot phases, whether disorder can drive knot transitions remains an open and intriguing question. Employing renormalization-group calculations, we demonstrate that nodal-knot transitions emerge in the presence of weak disorder. Specifically, both chemical-potential-type and magnetic-type disorders can induce knot transitions, resulting in the emergence of distinct knot topologies. The transition can be quantitatively characterized by changes in topological invariants such as the knot Wilson loop integrals. Our findings open up a new avenue for manipulating the topology of nodal-knot phases through disorder effects.

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1. Introduction

In the 1860s, Lord Kelvin's vortex atom theory introduced the concept of knots to physics, which was further developed by Peter Tait [1,2]. Despite its unfortunate failure, the efforts made by Kelvin and Tait significantly advanced the mathematical study of knot theory [1,2]. A century later, the development of topological quantum field theory revitalized knot theory, paving the way for fault-tolerant quantum computation [3–7]. To this day, the development of knot theory has far exceeded expectations, and knot-like states may even play an important role in the formation of the early universe [8].

As the condensed matter counterpart of topological quantum field theories, topological bands serve as ideal platforms for studying the emergence of novel phenomena. Specifically, degenerate points of three-dimensional (3D) topological bands can form one-dimensional (1D) nodal lines under the protection of symmetries

[9,10]. These nodal lines provide a rich landscape of knots (nodal-knots) [11–25], and have been studied across a wide range of physical systems [11,26–30], including ultra-cold atoms [31–36], photonics [37–42], acoustics [43–47], and topological circuits [48–50]. The focus has also been extended from Hermitian physics to non-Hermitian physics [46,51–58].

Regardless of the systems that realize nodal-knots, a fundamental question is how these knotted structures can be tuned through perturbations. Unlike traditional symmetry-protected topological phases [59–61], the flexibility in the ways that 1D nodal lines are embedded into the 3D Brillouin zone to form knots enables the manipulation of nodal-knot structures. On the other hand, it is well-known that disorder effects can significantly renormalize dispersions and even cause localization transitions [62,63]. Consequently, quantum phase transitions can be triggered, and novel orders may emerge. Therefore, a fundamental and intriguing question naturally arises: Can nodal-knot phases of matter be manipulated by disorder?

In this work, we address this question by asserting that knot transitions of nodal-knot phases can be triggered by different types of disorder. Employing two-band models of semimetallic systems

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that host nodal-knot degeneracies, we study the evolution of nodal-knots with various knot topologies under weak disorder. With the help of renormalization-group (RG) calculations, we find that both chemical-potential-type disorder and magnetic-type disorder can trigger transitions in knot structures. Different types of disorder lead to the evolution of nodal-knots into different knot structures, as sketched in Fig. 1.

Mathematically, these knot transitions can be characterized by the knot Wilson loop integrals, which are knot invariants, and their change can be detected through the de Haas-van Alphen experiment. Our results uncover the fascinating interplay between knots, topological phases, and disorder effects and provide valuable insights for the study of nodal-knots in disordered systems across diverse backgrounds.

2. Model for 3D nodal-knots

To begin with, we construct the Hamiltonian for 3D nodal-knots. A general two-band Hamiltonian reads $H(\mathbf{k}) = f_0(\mathbf{k})\sigma_0 + \sum_{i=x,y,z} f_i(\mathbf{k})\sigma_i$, where σ_i are the Pauli matrices. In the presence of chiral symmetry $S = \sigma_z$, the Hamiltonian satisfies $SH(\mathbf{k})S^{-1} = -H(\mathbf{k})$, which forces the σ_0 and σ_z terms to vanish. Then

$$H(\mathbf{k}) = f_x(\mathbf{k})\sigma_x + f_y(\mathbf{k})\sigma_y. \quad (1)$$

The models that host different types of nodal-knots can be obtained by setting [12,13]

$$f_x(\mathbf{k}) = \text{Re}\mathcal{F}_{pq}(\mathbf{k}), \quad f_y(\mathbf{k}) = \text{Im}\mathcal{F}_{pq}(\mathbf{k}), \quad (2)$$

where

$$\mathcal{F}_{pq}(\mathbf{k}) = v_p(k_x + ik_y)^p + v_q[k_z + i(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 k^2)]^q + m_1 + im_2. \quad (3)$$

Here, $k^2 = \sum_{i=x,y,z} k_i^2$, p and q are integers. The parameters $v_p, v_q, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, m_1$, and m_2 govern the shape of the nodal-knot. The degenerate points with $E(\mathbf{k}) = \sqrt{f_x^2(\mathbf{k}) + f_y^2(\mathbf{k})} = 0$ determine the nodal lines in momentum space. When $v_p = v_q \neq 0, m_1 = m_2 = 0, \lambda_2 = 0.5$, and $\lambda_1 > 0$, the nodal line of $\mathcal{F}_{pq}(k)$ forms the torus knot (or link) of type (p, q) , thus different choices of (p, q) in $H(\mathbf{k})$ yield different nodal-knots. For example, $(2, 2)$ -the Hopf link, $(2, 3)$ and $(3, 2)$ -the trefoil knot, and $(3, 3)$ -the valknut. When p and q are relatively prime to each other, the nodal-knot is connected (such as the trefoil knot), otherwise, it is disconnected (such as the Hopf link). The nodal lines of $H(\mathbf{k})$ are oriented, similar to the superconducting or superfluid vortex lines [64]. The orientation is determined by the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{k}_0)$ [18] at point \mathbf{k}_0 .

3. Disorder and renormalization

We model the disorder potential by a coupling term $H_{\text{dis}} = \int d^3\mathbf{r} U_v(\mathbf{r})\psi^\dagger(\mathbf{r})\sigma_v\psi(\mathbf{r})$, where $v=0$ denotes the chemical-potential type disorder and σ_v with $v=x, y, z$ denote the magnetic-type disorders in three directions [65]. $U_v(\mathbf{r})$ is the disorder potential of Gaussian white noise with probability distribution $p[U_v(\mathbf{r})] \propto \exp[-1/2\Delta_v U_v^2(\mathbf{r})]$ and spatial correlation $\langle U_v(\mathbf{r}) \rangle = 0$, $\langle U_v(\mathbf{r})U_v(\mathbf{r}') \rangle = \delta_{vp}\delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}')$. Through the replica method [62,63,66], the fermionic mode $\psi(\mathbf{r}, \tau)$ is replicated into N copies as $\psi_i(\mathbf{r}, \tau)$ ($i = 1, \dots, N$) (Supplementary material Sect. I). In this way, the ensemble average results in an effective attractive interaction between replica fields with disorder strength Δ_v . The total action (Supplementary material Sect. I) comprises a free and a disorder part. We note that although chiral symmetry is externally broken by σ_z disorder, it is restored after disorder averaging, since $\langle U_z(\mathbf{r}) \rangle = 0$.



Fig. 1. Schematics of the knot transition of nodal-knots in the presence of disorder. The nodal line features a valknut linked structure (middle) in the clean limit. Under different types of disorders (highlighted with different colors), it can undergo transitions into a trefoil knot (left) or a single unknot (right).

To study how the band parameters $v_p, v_q, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, m_1$, and m_2 are renormalized by disorder strength $\Delta_{0,x,y,z}$, we then perform the Wilsonian momentum-shell RG calculations for the total action, with details shown in Supplementary material [63,67,68]. We set the momentum cut off as Λ . By integrating the fermionic modes inside the momentum-shell defined by $e^{-dl}\Lambda < |\mathbf{k}| < \Lambda$ and rescaling the momentum as $\mathbf{k} \rightarrow e^{-dl}\mathbf{k}$, we investigate the running of band parameters and disorder strengths $\Delta_{0,x,y,z}$ with respect to the running scale l . We consider one type of disorder at a time, taking the chemical-potential-type disorder Δ_0 and the magnetic-type disorder Δ_z as examples. Parameters $v_p, v_q, \lambda_1, \lambda_2$ are not renormalized by disorder and only do scale transformations. The RG equations for m_1 , and m_2 read

$$\begin{aligned} dm_1/dl &= m_1 + (-\Delta_0 + \Delta_z)\mathcal{G}_1^x, \\ dm_2/dl &= m_2 + (-\Delta_0 + \Delta_z)\mathcal{G}_1^y, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

and the RG equations for Δ_0 and for Δ_z are

$$\begin{aligned} d\Delta_0/dl &= -\Delta_0 + 2\Delta_0^2(\mathcal{G}_2^{xx} + \mathcal{G}_2^{yy}), \\ d\Delta_z/dl &= -\Delta_z - 2\Delta_z^2(\mathcal{G}_2^{xx} + \mathcal{G}_2^{yy}). \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

The details for $\mathcal{G}_1^{(x/y)}$ and $\mathcal{G}_2^{(xx/yy)}$ can be found in Supplementary material.

The band parameters $v_p, v_q, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, m_1$, and m_2 renormalized by disorder deviate from their bare values, potentially resulting in distinct knot structures. In other words, disorder may trigger the emergence of knot transitions. We analyse the renormalization of the parameters by numerically solving the RG equations. As an example, we take $p=q=2$, and set the initial conditions at $l=0$ as $v_p(0) = v_q(0) = 0.1, m_1(0) = m_2(0) = 0, \lambda_1(0) = 0.4$, and $\lambda_2(0) = 0.5$. This set of parameters describes the hopf-linked nodal-knot in the clean limit (corresponding to the nodal-knot configuration in the absence of the disorder effect). The momentum cut off takes $\Lambda=5$. We show the results of the RG flow of m_1 in Fig. 2a and b under different initial disorder strength $\Delta_0(l=0)$ or $\Delta_z(l=0)$, together with the RG flows of Δ_0 and Δ_z in Fig. 2d and e. Here, m_2 keeps zero for the momentum-shell integration forces \mathcal{G}_1^y to vanish. Clearly, both Δ_0 and Δ_z can drive the emergence of m_1 , but in opposite signs. Similar results also hold for $p=q=3$, the valknut link (Fig. 3a and b). This strongly implies that different types of disorders can trigger different knot transitions. However, only the RG flow of these parameters is not adequate for displaying the features and types of the knot transitions; a more intuitive mathematical object, e.g., a topological invariant, is needed.

4. Knot invariants and knot transitions in (2,2) and (3,3) systems

Unlike band topological numbers such as TKNN numbers [69] and Z_2 numbers [59–61] that unambiguously characterize the symmetry-protected topological phases, the complexity of knots

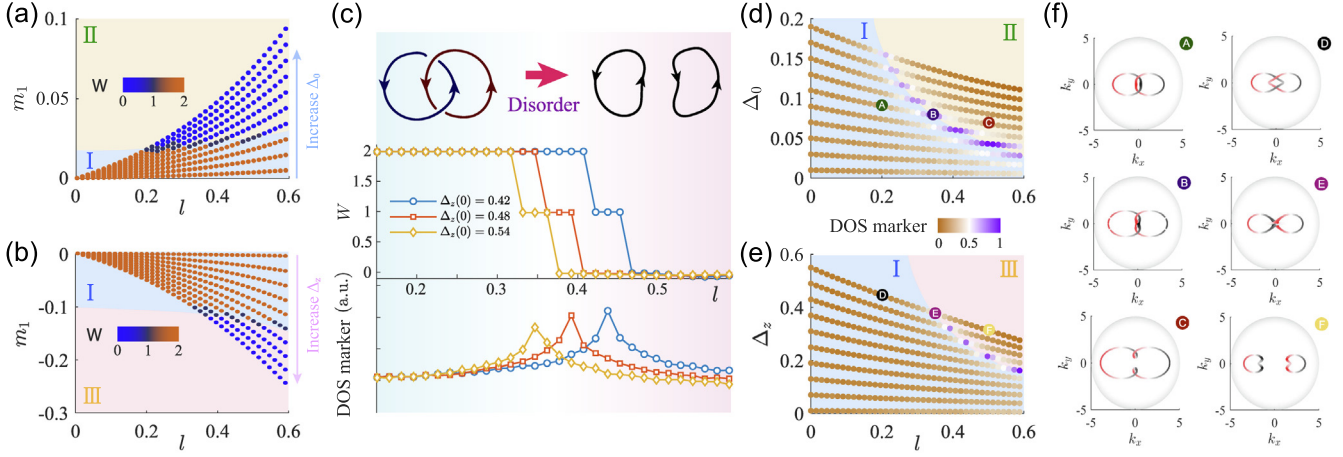


Fig. 2. RG flows of Hopf linked nodal-knots. (a), (b) The RG flows of m_1 under the renormalization of Δ_0 and Δ_z , respectively. The flow curves are colored by the knot Wilson loop W , and colored regions denote I the Hopf link, II the unknot, and III the unlink. (c) The RG flows of the knot Wilson loop (upper panel) and the DOS marker (lower panel) under the renormalization of Δ_z with different initial values. (d), (e) The RG flows of Δ_0 and Δ_z , respectively. The flow curves are colored by the DOS marker. The colored regions I, II, and III are the same as those in (a) and (b). The corresponding nodal-knot configurations of representative points labeled A–F on the RG curves are plotted in (f), colored by the y -component of unit tangent vector $T_y(\mathbf{k})$.

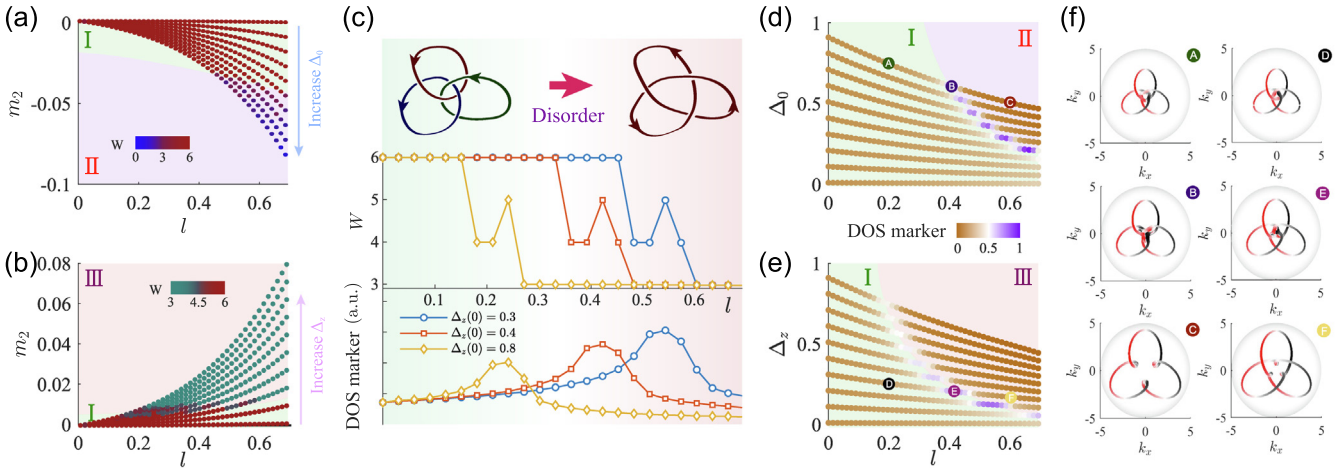


Fig. 3. RG flows of valknot linked nodal-knots. (a), (b) The RG flows of m_2 under the renormalization of Δ_0 and Δ_z , respectively. The flow curves are colored by the knot Wilson loop W , and colored regions denote I the valknot link, II the unknot, and III the trefoil knot. (c) The RG flows of the knot Wilson loop (upper panel) and the DOS marker (lower panel) under the renormalization of Δ_z with different initial values. (d), (e) The RG flows of Δ_0 and Δ_z , respectively. The flow curves are colored by the DOS marker. The colored regions I, II, and III are the same as those in (a) and (b). The corresponding nodal-knot configurations of representative points labeled A–F on the RG curves are plotted in (f), colored by the y -component of unit tangent vector $T_y(\mathbf{k})$.

makes it mathematically impossible to find a knot invariant that can provide a one-to-one characterization of the knot configuration. Nevertheless, knot invariants, the jumps of which can adequately reveal nodal-knot transitions, can still be calculated. Here, we adopt the knot Wilson loop integral to determine the nodal-knot transitions [5,15]. The knot Wilson loop integral is

$$W(L_1, \dots, L_N) = \frac{1}{\pi} \oint_{l \in L_1, \dots, L_N} \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{k}) \cdot d\mathbf{l}. \quad (6)$$

Here, L_1, \dots, L_N denotes the nodal loops oriented by N , and the orientation of the integral path l is determined by the tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{k}_0)$. $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{k}) = -i\langle u_k | \partial_{\mathbf{k}} | u_k \rangle$ is the Berry connection. Mathematically, $W(L_1, \dots, L_N)$ is the sum of the linking numbers Ψ_{ij} of loops L_i and L_j if $i \neq j$, and Ψ_{ii} would be the Gauss linking number of the loop L_i and its frame [1,2]. To faithfully reflect the knot topology, a proper frame should be chosen such that an unknotted loop has no contribution to W . Physically, the knot Wilson loop integral W

reflects the Berry phase accumulated by electrons as they move along the intertwined nodal lines. For the Hopf-linked nodal-knot, each of the electrons moving along the nodal loops L_1 and L_2 gains π Berry phase, thus $W = 2$. For the valknot link, each nodal loop interlocks with the other two, and each gains 2π Berry phase, leading to $W = 6$ in total. With this mathematical tool in hand, we can view the nodal-knot transitions more intuitively. We color the RG flows in Fig. 2a and b with the calculated knot Wilson loop W . Moreover, to demonstrate the phase boundaries of nodal-knot transitions more comprehensively, we have supplemented the calculation with the density of states (DOS) marker colored in the RG flow curves of Δ_0 and Δ_z in Fig. 2d and e, which counts the number of states within the energy window $[0, \epsilon]$ with ϵ an extremely small energy scale. It is worth noting that this DOS marker is different from the real DOS like that was studied in Weyl semimetals [70–72]. There, the disorder can broaden the DOS and lead to Fermi surface instabilities, thus falling into the Landau paradigm and different from our study on the Lifshitz transition of the nodal-knots.

At the transition points, the nodal lines should touch and then separate and reconnect, leading to the divergence of the DOS markers. In this way, the transition boundaries can be determined jointly by W and the DOS markers. Specifically, we take three curves in Fig. 2b and plot them in terms of W and the DOS marker in Fig. 2c. It is clear that the knot Wilson loop integral W drops from 2 to 0, and for each curve, the DOS markers show clear peaks at the transition points.

To visualize the renormalized nodal-knot configurations, we select six points on the RG flow curves marked A–F in Fig. 2d and e. The corresponding knot configurations are displayed in Fig. 2f. Interestingly, although both Δ_0 and Δ_z drive the transition of W from 2 to 0, the results of these transitions are different. As shown in Fig. 2f, Δ_0 drives the transition from a Hopf link (A or D) to an unknot (C), while Δ_z drives the transition to an unlink (F). This difference stems from their renormalization effect on the parameters m_1 and m_2 with opposite signs. Therefore, we can divide the RG flow diagrams into regions I (Hopf link), II (unknot), and III (unlink) (shown in Fig. 2a, b and d, e).

Similar to the Hopf link, the valknot nodal-knot with $p=q=3$ also experiences different transitions under different types of disorder. In parallel to the Hopf link, we show the results of RG flow and the corresponding W and DOS markers (Fig. 3a–e). Different from the Hopf link, only m_2 survives. We see that under the renormalization of Δ_0 , W jumps from 6 to 0, while under Δ_z , W jumps from 6 to 3, which is distinct from the Hopf links. Moreover, representative nodal-knot configurations shown in Fig. 3f suggest that we can similarly divide the RG flow into regions I, II, and III, which describe the nodal-knot configurations of valknot, unknot, and trefoil knot, respectively. Note that under Δ_z , the originally linked valknot evolves into the trefoil knot, which is a knotted structure, in sharp contrast to the case of the Hopf link which evolves into either unknot or unlink.

As summarized in Fig. 4 and Table 1, we can conclude that the ability of different types of disorder to induce different types of nodal-knot transitions is universal. Especially, the presence of magnetic disorders can diversify the knot configurations (see Table 1), giving rise to the emergence of non-trivial nodal-knots

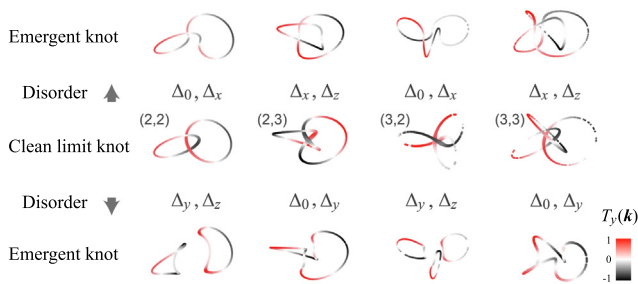


Fig. 4. Summary of the emergent knot configurations under different types of disorders. The middle line of the figure shows the clean limit nodal-knots, with various (p, q) . Specifically, (2, 2)-the Hopf link, (2, 3) and (3, 2)-the trefoil knot, and (3, 3)-the valknot. The y-component of unit tangent vector $T_y(\mathbf{k})$ is colored on the nodal-knots.

Table 1

Summary of the emergent knot transitions for various (p, q) triggered by different types of disorders.

| Disorder type | (p, q) | | | |
|---------------|-----------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | (2, 2) | (2, 3) | (3, 2) | (3, 3) |
| Clean | Hopf link | Trefoil knot | Trefoil knot | Valknut |
| Δ_0 | Unknot | Unknot | Unknot | Unknot |
| Δ_x | Unknot | Hopf link | Unknot | Trefoil knot |
| Δ_y | 2-Unlink | Unknot | 3-Unlink | Unknot |
| Δ_z | 2-Unlink | Hopf link | 3-Unlink | Trefoil knot |

from their clean limit. This finding plays a crucial role in realizing and manipulating topological knotted phases in various systems in the future.

5. Phase shifts in quantum oscillation experiments

Experimentally, determining the transition of the Fermi surface topologies (i.e., Lifshitz transition) is typically accomplished by combining transport measurements with quantum oscillation experiments. Therefore, we propose a potentially feasible way to reflect the nodal-knot structures and their transitions through de Haas-van Alphen oscillation or Shubnikov-de Haas oscillation experiment [73–76], as demonstrated in Fig. 5. Taking the Hopf link as an example, before the transition occurs, a magnetic field is applied perpendicular to one of the nodal loops, which is the 1D Fermi surface of the system at $\mu = 0$. According to the semiclassical equations of motion [77]

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{r}} &= \partial \epsilon(\mathbf{k}) / \hbar \partial \mathbf{k} - \dot{\mathbf{k}} \times \boldsymbol{\Omega}(\mathbf{k}), \\ \dot{\mathbf{k}} &= -e / \hbar \mathbf{E} - e / \hbar \dot{\mathbf{r}} \times \mathbf{B}, \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

electrons undergo cyclotron motion in momentum space, moving perpendicular to the magnetic field and around the nodal loop, as indicated by the loops of different colors in the left panel of Fig. 5. The area enclosed by its cyclotron orbit in momentum space is denoted by A_{orb} . When the magnetic field changes, the DOS exhibits periodic oscillations with a period A_{orb}/B , as shown in the right panel of Fig. 5. Under the renormalization of disorder, the linked structure evolves to be unlinked, as shown in the middle panel of Fig. 5. Applying a magnetic field in this situation still results in quantum oscillations, but the phase of the oscillation with A_{orb}/B may shift. When two nodal loops are linked together, the cyclotron motion orbit of electrons on one nodal loop will encircle the other nodal loop. According to the Landau quantization rule

$$A_{\text{orb}}(\mathbf{k}_B) = 2\pi e B (n + 1/2 + \phi_B), \quad (8)$$

where $A_{\text{orb}}(\mathbf{k}_B)$ is the area of the cyclotron orbit with \mathbf{k}_B the wave vector along the \mathbf{B} direction, and ϕ_B is the Berry phase accumulated by the electrons during the cyclotron motion [77,78]. From the previous analysis, the knot Wilson loop integral precisely corresponds to the sum of the Berry phases ϕ_B accumulated by each cyclotron orbit. Therefore, we see that the Berry phase ϕ_B is π in this case. Under the renormalization of disorder, the linked nodal loops are separated, resulting in $\phi_B = 0$. The difference in the Berry phase ϕ_B thus induces the π Berry phase shift in the de Haas-van Alphen oscillation experiment as depicted in the right panel of Fig. 5. Therefore, these accumulated Berry phases ϕ_B for each nodal loop are unique for knotted nodal lines. If all the information of ϕ_B can be obtained, the nodal-knot structure can be determined to a large extent.

6. Discussions

Nodal line semimetals with non-trivial knotted or linked structures have been confirmed to exist in solid materials, such as Co_2S

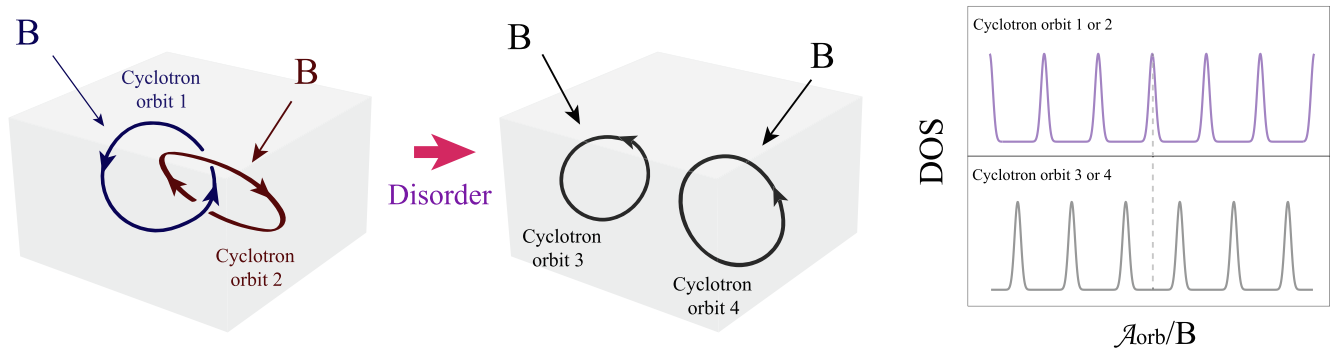


Fig. 5. Schematic diagram of utilizing the de Haas-van Alphen oscillation experiment to reflect the nodal-knot transitions. Before the transition, a magnetic field is applied perpendicular to one of the nodal loops (which is also the 1D Fermi surface). Electrons undergo cyclotron motion in momentum space, moving perpendicular to the magnetic field and around the nodal loop (left). The area enclosed by its cyclotron orbit in momentum space is denoted by A_{orb} . Sweeping B leads to the oscillations of DOS with period A_{orb}/B (right). Under the renormalization of disorder, the linked structure evolves to be unlinked (middle). The phase of the oscillation with A_{orb}/B shifted by a π Berry phase.

MnGa through ARPES experiments [11,29]. In the presence of disorder, the ARPES observations would be affected by the renormalization of the low-energy band structure. Our work predicts the possibility of disorder induced nodal-knot transitions under doping with magnetic or non-magnetic disorders, which awaits further experimental verification.

Aside from the solid materials, it is also achievable to introduce and control disorders in artificial systems such as cold atoms or acoustic and optical systems [32,40,46]. Especially, introducing noise in cold atoms, or utilizing the optical speckle field can simulate the disorder effect [79]. Moreover, the optical Raman lattice can simulate the spin-orbital coupling, which can achieve the magnetic disorder potentials [35]. In these ways, the magnetization directions of the disorders can be controlled more easily. Therefore, our work provides theoretical support for future studies of knotted topological phases and disorder-induced knot transitions in these systems.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (2022YFA1403700), the Innovation Program for Quantum Science and Technology (2021ZD0302400), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (12350402, 12304074, 12234017, and 12525401), the Guangdong Province (2020KCXTD001), the Guangdong Basic and Applied Basic Research Foundation (2023B0303000011), the Guangdong Provincial Quantum Science Strategic Initiative (GDZX2201001 and GDZX2401001), the Science, Technology and Innovation Commission of Shenzhen Municipality (ZDSYS20190902092905285), and the New Cornerstone Science Foundation through the XPLOER PRIZE, and Center for Computational Science and Engineering of SUSTech. Ming Gong was also supported by the China National Postdoctoral Program for Innovative Talents (BX20240004). We acknowledge helpful discussions with Robert-Jan Slager, Qing-Feng Sun, Hua Jiang, Chui-Zhen Chen, Zhenyu Xiao, and Xinchu Zhou.

Author contributions

Ming Gong and Peng-Lu Zhao conceived the idea from discussions with Hai-Zhou Lu. Ming Gong performed calculations with assistance from Peng-Lu Zhao. Ming Gong and Peng-Lu Zhao wrote the manuscript with contributions from all authors. Hai-Zhou Lu, Qian Niu, and X. C. Xie supervised the project.

Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scib.2025.04.061>.

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