

# ICTS School on Strongly Correlated Systems

## Many body physics review

### Kinematics

~~Recap~~ We are interested in electronic systems. Electrons are fermions. Our collection of electrons may be modeled to live in the continuum or on a lattice depending on the problem of interest.

In the continuum,  $c_\sigma^+(\vec{r})$  creates an electron at position  $\vec{r}$ , and similarly on a lattice we may create an electron at site  $i$  with  $c_{i\sigma}^+$ . where  $\sigma$  stands for the spin label which may be  $\uparrow$  or  $\downarrow$ . The fermion operators

satisfy

$$\{c_\sigma(\vec{r}), c_{\sigma'}^+(\vec{r}')\} = \delta_{\sigma\sigma'} \delta(\vec{r}-\vec{r}')$$

$$\{c_\sigma(\vec{r}), c_{\sigma'}(\vec{r}')\} = 0$$

or

$$\{c_{i\sigma}, c_{j\sigma'}^+\} = \delta_{ij} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'}$$

$$\{c_{i\sigma}, c_{j\sigma'}\} = 0.$$

where  $\{ \}$  is the anticommutator.

we will move freely between real and  $k$  space via

$$c_{\sigma}^+(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\vec{k}} e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}} c_{\vec{k}\sigma}^+(\vec{k})$$

and

$$c_{i\sigma}^+(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{VN} \sum_{\vec{k}} e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}} c_{\vec{k}\sigma}^+(\vec{k})$$

$\hookrightarrow$  BZ

where  $V$  and  $N$  are volume and number of sites respectively.

Dynamics : The dynamics of the system is determined by its Hamiltonian. The Hamiltonian is written down typically by

- ① Identifying the system
- ② Identifying the energy scales

For example, the problem of electrons in a ~~solid~~ ~~clean~~ solid has a well known Hamiltonian

$$H = \int d\vec{r} \psi_{\sigma}^+(\vec{r}) \left(-\frac{\nabla^2}{2}\right) \psi_{\sigma}(\vec{r}) + \int d\vec{r} V(\vec{r}) \frac{\psi_{\sigma}^+(\vec{r})}{\psi_{\sigma}(\vec{r})}$$

(chemical potential)  $\xleftarrow{-\mu} \int d\vec{r} \psi_{\sigma}^+(\vec{r}) \psi_{\sigma}(\vec{r})$

$$+ \frac{e^2}{4\pi} \int d\vec{r} d\vec{r}' \psi_{\sigma}^+(\vec{r}) \psi_{\sigma}^+(\vec{r}') \frac{1}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \psi_{\sigma}(\vec{r}') \psi_{\sigma}(\vec{r})$$

Or, the Hubbard model on the a lattice.

$$\mathcal{H} = -t \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} (c_{i\sigma}^\dagger c_{j\sigma} + h.c) - \mu \sum_i c_{i\sigma}^\dagger c_{i\sigma} + U \sum_i c_{i\uparrow}^\dagger c_{i\downarrow}^\dagger c_{i\downarrow} c_{i\uparrow}$$

Discuss:  
what is short correlation?

Note that both these Hamiltonians are endowed with all the usual symmetries such as ① Translation ② Rotation / lattice ~~symmetries~~ ③ Time reversal ④ Phase symmetry etc:

~~especially~~, let us suppose that we can diagonalize this Hamiltonian and write

$$\mathcal{H} |1\psi_n\rangle = E_n |1\psi_n\rangle$$

where  $|1\psi_n\rangle$  are the energy eigenvectors and  $E_n$  are the energy eigenvalues

Let's say the  $|G\rangle$  is the ground state

If  $U$  is a symmetry of the system ( $U^\dagger \mathcal{H} U = \mathcal{H}$ ), then if  $U|G\rangle \neq |G\rangle$ , then  $|G\rangle$  breaks a symmetry. A symmetry is broken if the ~~symmetric~~ state of the system does not have all the symmetries

of the Hamiltonian. While this is quite clear at  $T=0$  (temperature), what can we say about finite temperatures?

At a finite ( $T = \frac{1}{\beta}$ ) temperature, the state is described by a density matrix

$$\rho = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\beta H} \quad \text{where } Z = \text{tr } e^{-\beta H}$$

$$Z = \sum_n e^{-\beta E_n} \quad \text{and } \rho = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_n e^{-\beta E_n} |n\rangle \langle n|$$

Again if  $U \neq U^\dagger$  then we will have broken a symmetry (if  $U$  is a symmetry of  $H$ ).

While the symmetry of the distribution  
so far

Suppose we know the state of the system  $S$ , then we can obtain the expectation value of any observable

$A$  as

$$\langle A \rangle = \text{tr}(SA).$$

This discussion, in principle (only in principle) solves all problems!

Responses: As introduced, we are also interested in obtaining/predicting the responses of the systems. ~~that~~ Responses in general can be nonlinear. We ~~will~~ will focus only on linear response. Suppose, I go on to apply a "stimulus" to the system, changing the Hamiltonian

$$\text{to } \mathcal{H}_f \rightarrow \mathcal{H} - f(t) \mathcal{B} \quad \begin{matrix} \downarrow \\ \text{some operator} \end{matrix}$$

"force" /

Stimulus

where  $f(t)$  is the force and  $\mathcal{B}$  is the operator of the system. We now look for the response of the system via the expectation value of an operator

$$\Delta A(t) = \langle A \mathcal{B} \rangle_f^{(t)} - \langle A \rangle \equiv \int dt' \chi_{AB}(t-t') f(t')$$

$\chi_{AB}(t-t')$  is the response function. (Generically  $\mathcal{B}$  this will be  $\chi_{AB}(t,t')$ , but we ~~will~~ ~~not~~ focus on nice systems). This looks much ~~nicer~~ nicer in ~~frequency~~ domain as

$$\Delta A(\omega) = X_{AB}(\omega) f(\omega).$$

The Fourier transforms are defined as

$$f(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt e^{i\omega t} f(t) \quad \& \quad f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega e^{-i\omega t} f(\omega)$$

The important thing to remember is that  $X_{AB}(t-t')$  is a causal function. i.e.,

$$X_{AB}(t-t') = 0 \quad \text{if } t-t' < 0.$$

This is the statement that future cannot affect the present, only the past can.

What is ~~the~~ one pointed  $X_{AB}(t-t')$ ?

Kubo and others provided the answer to this question. The Kubo formula

$$X_{AB}(t-t') = -i \Theta(t-t') \langle [A(t), B(t')] \rangle$$

$$\text{where } A(t) = e^{i\omega t} A e^{-i\omega t} \quad (\text{and}$$

a similar formula for  $B(t')$ ) is the Heisenberg operator. This is a formally exact relation but is not ~~generally~~ generally easy to calculate. We can also get more revealing expressions for  $X_{AB}(\omega)$

For this we need some mathematical results.

① The Fourier transform of the  $\Theta$  function

$$\Theta(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t > 0 \\ 0 & t \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\Theta(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt e^{i\omega t} \Theta(t)$$

is not well defined. So we do  $\omega = \omega + i\eta = \omega^+$

$\eta > 0$  is a small +ve quantity. Then

$$\Theta(\omega^+) = \frac{1}{\omega^+} + \frac{i}{\omega^+}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \frac{1}{\omega^+} = P\left(\frac{1}{\omega}\right) - i\pi\delta(\omega)$$

For example for a ~~real~~ nice function  $f(\omega)$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dw f(\omega) \frac{1}{\omega^+} = P \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dw \frac{f(\omega)}{\omega} - i\pi f(0)$$

We are ready to obtain  $\chi_{AB}(\omega)$ .

$$\text{Define } p_n = \frac{e^{-\beta E_n}}{Z} \quad S = \sum_n p_n |n\rangle\langle n|$$

(we have changed notation  $|4_n\rangle \equiv |n\rangle$ )

$$-i\Theta(t-t') \sum_n p_n \langle n | [A(t), B(t')] | n \rangle.$$

$$-i\Theta(t-t') \sum_{m,n} p_n [\langle n | A(t) | m \rangle \langle m | B(t') | n \rangle \dots]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 -i\theta(t-t') \sum_{m,n}^1 p_m \left[ \langle n|A|m\rangle \langle m|B|n\rangle \right. \\
 \left. e^{-i\omega_{mn}(t-t')} \right. \\
 \left. \langle m|B|m\rangle \langle m|A|m\rangle \right. \\
 \left. e^{i\omega_{mn}(t-t')} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\omega_{mn} = E_m - E_n$$

change  $m \leftrightarrow n$  in second term

$$\begin{aligned}
 \chi_{AB}(t-t') = \\
 -i\theta(t-t') \times \sum_{m,n}^1 (p_n - p_m) \langle n|A|m\rangle \langle m|B|n\rangle \\
 e^{-i\omega_{mn}(t-t')}.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \chi_{AB}(\omega^+) = \sum_{m,n}^1 \frac{(p_n - p_m) \langle n|A|m\rangle \langle m|B|n\rangle}{\omega^+ - \omega_{mn}}$$

This is the famous Lehmann representation.

$$\chi_{AB}(\omega^+) = \chi_{AB}^r(\omega) + i\chi_{AB}^i(\omega)$$

$$\chi_{AB}^i(\omega) = -i\sum_{m,n}^1 (p_n - p_m) \langle n|A|m\rangle \langle m|B|n\rangle \\
 \delta(\omega - \omega_{mn})$$

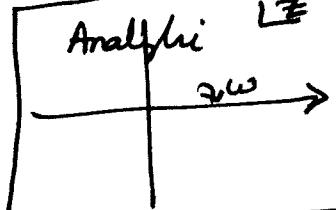
Note that  $\chi_{AB}^r(\omega)$  is completely determined by  $\chi_{AB}^i(\omega)$ . This is called the

the Kramer's Kröning relation. By the same token if  $\chi_{AB}^n(\omega)$  is known, then one can obtain  $\chi_{AB}^i(\omega)$ .

One can define  $\chi_{AB}(z)$  for any complex frequency

$$\chi_{AB}(z) = \sum_{m,n} (P_n - P_m) \frac{\langle n | A | m \rangle \langle m | B | n \rangle}{z - \omega_{mn}}$$

by analytic continuation. The key thing is that for causality and stability, this function of  $z$  is analytic in the upper half ~~plane~~ of  $z$ -plane.



~~Also~~ In the discussion so far, A and B are observable operators and are usually quadratic in the fermion operator. For example, to obtain the magnetic susceptibility

$$B = \vec{S}_{\text{tot}} \quad (\text{total spin operator})$$

$$\text{and } A = \frac{\vec{S}_{\text{tot}}}{N} \quad (\text{also!}). \quad \vec{S}_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i C_{i\alpha}^{\dagger} \vec{c}_{i\alpha} C_{i\alpha}$$

In practice we are also interested in other ~~causal~~ ~~non-causal~~ ~~non-causal~~ correlation functions

A core in point is the retarded Green's function

$$G_{ab}(t-t') = -i\theta(t-t') \langle \{c_a(t), c_b^\dagger(t')\} \rangle$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  label some one particle state of the system. We will see later that this is a very important correlation function from the point of view of experiment. Let's analyse this in some detail. We will begin with a Lehmann representation of the retarded Green's function.

$$G_{ab}(t-t') = -i\theta(t-t') \times$$

$$-i\omega_{mn}(t-t')$$

$$\sum_{m,n} \left[ P_m \left( \langle m | c_a | m \rangle \langle m | c_b^\dagger | n \rangle e^{i\omega_{mn}(t-t')} \right) \right.$$

$$\left. + \langle n | c_b^\dagger | m \rangle \langle m | c_a | n \rangle e^{i\omega_{mn}(t-t')} \right]$$

$$G_{ab}(\omega^+) = \sum_{m,n} (P_m + P_m^*) \frac{\delta \langle m | c_a | m \rangle \langle m | c_b^\dagger | n \rangle}{\omega^+ - \omega_{mn}}$$

Now imaginary part of this

$$-\frac{1}{\pi} G_{ab}(\omega^+) = \sum_{m,n} (P_m + P_m^*) \langle n | c_a | m \rangle \langle m | c_b^\dagger | n \rangle \frac{\delta(\omega - \omega_{mn})}{9}$$

$$A_{ab}(\omega) = \sum_{m,n} (p_n + p_m) \langle n | c_a | m \rangle \langle m | c_b^\dagger | n \rangle \delta(\omega - \omega_{mn}).$$

Now consider

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A_{ab} d\omega A_{ab}(\omega)$$

$$= \sum_{m,n} (p_n + p_m) \langle n | c_a | m \rangle \langle m | c_b^\dagger | n \rangle$$

$$= \sum_n p_n \left( \langle n | c_a^\dagger c_b^\dagger + c_b^\dagger c_a | n \rangle \right)$$

$$= \langle \{c_a, c_b^\dagger\} \rangle = \delta_{ab}$$

if  $a$  and  $b$  are orthonormal particle states. In particular, in this case,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A_{aa}(\omega) = 1.$$

Note that  $A_{aa}(\omega) = \sum_{m,n} (p_n + p_m) (\langle m | c_a | m \rangle)^2 \underbrace{\delta(\omega - \omega_{mn})}_{>0}.$

We now see that  $A_{aa}(\omega)$  has the interpretation of a probability.

Indeed,  $A_{aa}(\omega)$  is the probability that an added particle in the state  $a$  has an energy  $\omega$ . Let us get a better understanding. At  $T=0$ ,

$$A_a(\omega) = \sum_m |\langle m | c_a^\dagger | a \rangle|^2 \delta(\omega - \omega_{m a})$$

since only the ground state is occupied. If the ground state has  $M$  particles then the state  $|m\rangle$  must have  $M+1$  particles. The state  $c_a^\dagger |a\rangle$  may have matrix elements with many such  $M+1$  particle states, and which have different energy eigenvalues. Thus the added particle "can have any energy" depending on the matrix elements. Let us see some of these things in action. The best place to start the discussion is the free Fermi gas.

For the free fermi gas

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_{\vec{k}} \left( \frac{\vec{k}^2}{2} - \mu \right) c_{\vec{k}\sigma}^\dagger c_{\vec{k}\sigma} = \sum_{\vec{k}} \xi(\vec{k}) c_{\vec{k}\sigma}^\dagger c_{\vec{k}\sigma}$$

where  $\mu$  is determined at any temperature to ~~fix~~ fix the number of particles

~~we have~~ choose the one particle states as the momentum states

$$G_{\vec{k}\sigma, \vec{k}'\sigma'}(t-t') = -i \delta(t-t') \langle \{ c_{\vec{k}\sigma}(t), c_{\vec{k}'\sigma'}^\dagger(t') \} \rangle$$

~~Now~~ Now what are  $c_{\vec{k}\sigma}^\dagger(t')$  and  $c_{\vec{k}\sigma}(t)$  for the free gas?

~~we have~~ Note that the  $|n\rangle$  states are the states determinants with filled momentum

$$c_{\vec{k}\sigma}^\dagger(t) e^{i\mathcal{H}t} c_{\vec{k}\sigma}^\dagger(t') e^{-i\mathcal{H}t'} |n\rangle = e^{i\sum_{\vec{k}} \xi(\vec{k}) t} c_{\vec{k}\sigma}^\dagger(t')$$

$$c_{\vec{k}\sigma}(t) = e^{-i\sum_{\vec{k}} \xi(\vec{k}) t} c_{\vec{k}\sigma}^\dagger(t')$$

With this

$$G_{\vec{k}\sigma, \vec{k}'\sigma'}(t-t') = -i \delta(t-t') e^{-i\sum_{\vec{k}} \xi(\vec{k}) t} e^{i\sum_{\vec{k}} \xi(\vec{k}) t'} \langle \{ c_{\vec{k}\sigma}, c_{\vec{k}'\sigma'}^\dagger \} \rangle$$

$$G_{\vec{k}\sigma, \vec{k}'\sigma'}(t-t') = -i\theta(t-t') \frac{-i\mathcal{E}(\vec{k})t - i\mathcal{E}(\vec{k}')t'}{e-e} \delta_{\vec{k}\vec{k}'} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'} e^{-i\mathcal{E}(\vec{k})(t-t')}.$$

Thus

$$G_{\vec{k}\sigma, \vec{k}'\sigma'}(t) = \frac{\delta_{\vec{k}, \vec{k}'} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'}}{\omega^+ - \mathcal{E}(\vec{k})}$$

Note that the ~~ket state~~, do not break translation or rotation symmetry. We ~~not~~ write

$$G_{\vec{k}\sigma}(\omega^+) = \frac{1}{\omega^+ - \mathcal{E}(\vec{k})}$$

We get

$$A(\vec{k}\sigma, \omega) = \frac{\delta(\omega - \mathcal{E}(\vec{k}))}{A(\vec{k}\sigma, \omega)}$$

Note that this  $A$  satisfies the sum rule, and also note that ~~A~~ for a given  $\vec{k}$  there ~~excitation energy~~ has a ~~precise~~ energy. ~~Heavy~~ says that ~~precise~~

We say that the presence of particle-like excitations is characterized by a pole in the Green's function.

$$G_{k\sigma}(z) = \frac{1}{z - \xi(k)}$$

and there is a pole at  $z = \xi(k)$

DISCUSS  $G_{k\sigma, 0}$

What happens if there are interactions? Generically, we cannot find the Green's function exactly. Let us assume that the system does not break any symmetry. We can then discuss

$$G_{k\sigma}(z) = \sum_{n,m} (p_n + p_m) \frac{|Km|c_{k\sigma}^+(n)|^2}{z - \omega_{mn}}$$

This is a function that is analytic in the upper half space. It may have

~~a pole in the lower half plane. Suppose it does,~~

~~analytic~~

We will ~~come~~ come back to this later in the course.

We now know that calculation of correlation functions such as  $\chi$  and  $G$  etc are ~~quite~~ important for understanding experiments and even making predictions. How do we calculate these things? Here is where further development is needed. The idea is to use field theoretic techniques formulated via the Feynman-Polya integral

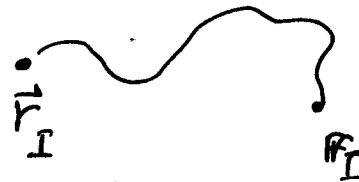
Feynman Path Integral

Consider a particle ~~is~~ at state  $|\vec{r}_I\rangle$ , the initial state at time  $t=0$ . What is the amplitude that at time  $t=t_f$  (the final time) the particle is in the state  $|\vec{r}_f\rangle$ . If we know the Hamiltonian  $H = \frac{P^2}{2} + V(\vec{r})$ , then we know

$$K(\vec{r}_f, t_f; \vec{r}_I, 0) = \langle \vec{r}_f | e^{-i \int_0^{t_f} d\tau H} | \vec{r}_I \rangle.$$

Feynmann gave a different prescription for the ~~radiation of~~ amplitude.

Feynman thought about how the particle reaches from  $\vec{r}_I$  to  $\vec{r}_F$  via



He said that

① The particle is allowed to chose any path  $P$  such that  $\vec{r}(0) = \vec{r}_I$  and  $\vec{r}(t_f) = \vec{r}_F$ . ;  $P \in \{ \vec{r}(t) \}$ ;  $\vec{r}(0) = \vec{r}_I$  ;  $\vec{r}(t_f) = \vec{r}_F$

② Associated with every path  $P$  there is an amplitude

③ The amplitude  $K(\vec{r}_F, t_f; \vec{r}_I, 0)$  is a sum ~~over all paths~~ over all ~~paths~~ such amplitudes

$$K(\vec{r}_F, t_f; \vec{r}_I, 0) = \sum_P K(P).$$

But what is  $K(P)$ ? Here, Feynman, possibly motivated by comments from Dinal

$$i S_{\text{class}}[\vec{r}(t)].$$

$$K(P) = e^{i S_{\text{class}}[\vec{r}(t)]}$$

$S_{\text{class}}$  is the classical action associated with this path  $P$ .

In other words,

$$S_{\text{class}}[P] = \int_0^{t_f} dt \underbrace{L(\vec{F}, \dot{\vec{r}})}_{\text{Lagrangian}},$$

The amplitude now is written as a path integral.

$$K(F, I) = \int \mathcal{D}[\vec{F}(t)] e^{i S_{\text{class}}[\vec{r}(t)]}$$

It turns out that all of the other postulates of quantum mechanics, such as the uncertainty principle etc follow from these postulates of Feynman.

Keep all of this in mind. I will now change gears and work with ~~something~~ discuss something else.

~~Let's~~ discuss something else.

Back to our problem of calculation of response functions. We know that this is the correlator of A and B operators.

Let us play a little game, at and at the end of this we will see a rather neat thing. Consider the Schrödinger propagator of our system  $U_s(t) = e^{-iHt}$

Now consider the partition function

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z &= \text{tr } e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}} &= \text{tr } e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}} \\
 &= \text{tr } e^{-(-i^2) \beta \mathcal{H}} \\
 &= \text{tr } e^{-i(-i\beta) \mathcal{H}} \\
 &= \text{tr } e^{-i(-i\beta) \mathcal{H}} \\
 &= \cancel{\text{tr}} \, \text{tr } U_S(-i\beta)
 \end{aligned}$$

We see that the partition function is related to propagation in imaginary time! Inspired by this realization, we get carried away and define an imaginary time  $\tau$  (which is a real quantity) and define

$$U_S(\tau) = e^{-\tau \mathcal{H}}. \quad \boxed{\frac{\partial U_S}{\partial \tau} = -\tau \mathcal{H} U_S!}$$

For any operator  $A$ , we now define a

Heisenberg version, now in imaginary time

$$A(\tau) = e^{\tau \mathcal{H}} A e^{-\tau \mathcal{H}} \quad \cancel{\text{tr}}$$

Now define

$$\begin{aligned}
 \chi_{AB}(\tau - \tau') &= -\langle T_\tau A(\tau) B(\tau') \rangle \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \tau \in [0, \beta] \\ \tau' \in [0, \beta] \end{array} \right\} \\
 &\Rightarrow \tau - \tau' \in [-\beta, \beta] \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \tau \in [0, \beta] \\ \tau' \in [0, \beta] \end{array} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $A$  and  $B$  can be either  
 # bosonic (quadratic in  $c^+, c$ ) or fermionic  
 (say linear in  $c, c^+$ ).  $T_c$  denotes  
 the ~~time~~ imaginary time ordering.

$T_c$  is defined as

$$A(\tau) B(\tau') \quad \tau > \tau'$$

$$T_c A(\tau) B(\tau) = \begin{cases} \text{Bosonic} & + \\ & \downarrow \\ & \text{Fermionic.} \end{cases} B(\tau') A(\tau) \quad \tau' > \tau$$

Note the + sign is for bosons, and - for  
 fermions. we immediately see that

$$\chi_{AB}(\tau) = \begin{cases} \tau - \tau' \text{ variable} & \text{can be} \\ \text{replaced by a single variable} & \tau \in [-\beta, \beta] \end{cases}$$

$$\chi_{AB}(\tau) = - \langle T_c A(\tau) B(0) \rangle; \tau \in [-\beta, \beta]$$

Now consider  $\tau > 0$ , and ask  
 what is

$$\chi_{AB}(\underbrace{\tau - \beta}_{\tilde{\tau}}) = - \langle T_c A(\tilde{\tau}) B(0) \rangle$$

Since  $\tilde{\tau} < 0$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_{AB}(\tau - \beta) &= - \langle B(0) A(\tau - \beta) \rangle \\ &= - \text{tr} \left( e^{-\beta \tilde{\tau}} B \underbrace{e^{-(\tau - \beta) \tilde{\tau}}}_{A} \right) \end{aligned}$$

By cyclic invariance of the trace  
we see that

$$\chi_{AB}(z-\beta) = \pm \chi_{AB}(z)$$

+ "Boson" operators, - Fermion operators.

Now, since  $\chi_{AB}(z)$   
in the interval  
write this down

$$\chi_{AB}(z) =$$

$$\text{where } i\omega_n = \frac{2\pi k}{(2\beta)}, (k \text{ is } \cancel{\text{integer}}).$$

is a function defined  
in the interval  $[-\beta, \beta]$ , we can  
write this down as a Fourier Series.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega_n z} \underbrace{\chi_{AB}(i\omega_n)}_{\text{Fourier coefficient}}$$

For since  $\chi_{AB}(z-\beta) = \pm \chi_{AB}(z)$

We see that

$$e^{+i\omega_n \beta} = \pm 1 \text{ for}$$

all  $n$ .

$$e^{i \frac{2\pi k}{2\beta} \beta} = \pm 1$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{i \pi k} = \pm 1.$$

This means that for Bosonic operators  $n$  must be even, and for fermionic operators  $n$  must be odd. We will use notation to distinguish this.

~~These~~ ~~Bosonic~~ ~~for bosonic~~

$$i\omega_e = \frac{\pi\zeta}{\beta} (2e) \quad e \text{ even}$$

$$i\omega_h = \frac{\pi\zeta}{\beta} \quad e \text{ odd.}$$

These are called ~~Bohmian~~ ~~Matsumoto~~ ~~Bohmian~~ frequencies and fermionic ~~Matsumoto~~ frequencies.

We write

$$\chi_{AB}(z) = \frac{1}{\beta} \sum_{i\omega_e} e^{-i\omega_e z} \quad \chi_{AB}^{(i\omega_e)}$$

$$\frac{1}{\beta} \sum_{i\omega_h} e^{-i\omega_h z} \quad \chi_{AB}^{(i\omega_h)}$$

(Fermionic)

$$\chi_{AB}(i\omega_e) = \int_0^B dz e^{i\omega_e z} \chi_{AB}(z).$$

$$\chi_{AB}(i\omega_h) = \int_0^B dz e^{i\omega_h z} \chi_{AB}(z)$$

Heisenberg picture

Now, we can write a Lehmann representation of ~~that~~  $\chi_{AB}(iq_e)$

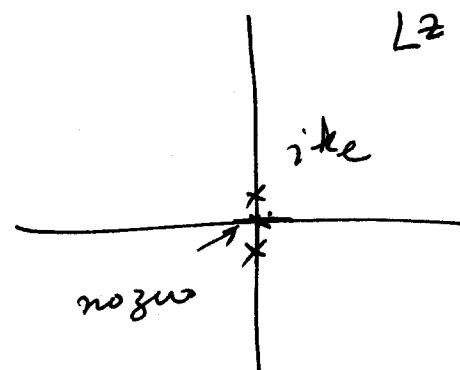
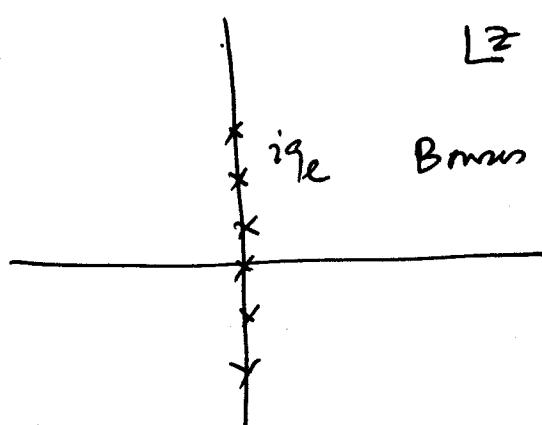
$$\chi_{AB}(iq_e) = \sum_{m,n} (p_n - p_m) \frac{\langle n|A|m\rangle \langle m|B|n\rangle}{iq_e - \omega_{mn}}$$

(Bohr)

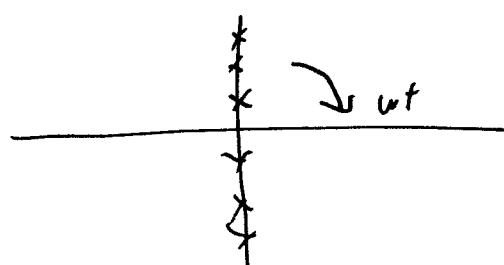
$$\chi_{AB}(ik_e) = \sum_{m,n} (p_n + p_m) \frac{\langle n|A|m\rangle \langle m|B|n\rangle}{ik_e - \omega_{mn}}$$

(Fermi)

Note that there are exactly the same fractions we obtained before



Thus if we calculate  $\chi_{AB}(iq_e)$  or  $\chi_{AB}(ik_e)$  we can analytically continue this to obtain  $\chi_{AB}(\omega^+)$



what is quite remarkable is that we can use field theoretic techniques to calculate  $\chi_{AB}(z) \rightarrow \chi_{AB}(\text{isospin})$

~~$\rightarrow$~~

$\rightarrow \chi_{AB}(w^+)$ .

~~We now start the calculation~~

We now see that  $\chi_{AB}^{(+,-)}$  and  $\chi_{AB}(z)$  are really the same thing.

We will see how to calculate  $\chi_{AB}(z)$ , but before that let us understand

$$G_{ab}(z) = -\langle T_C C_a(z) C_b^+(0) \rangle.$$

(temporal Green's function)  
For simplicity, let us assume that the state does not break translational invariance and hence momentum is a good quantum number.

Let us take the Hamiltonian to be

$$H = \underbrace{\sum_{k0} \epsilon \epsilon(k) C_{k0}^+ C_{k0}}_{2b} + \underbrace{\frac{U}{N} \sum_{\substack{k \\ k' \\ k''}}}_{23} \begin{matrix} C_{q-k}^+ \\ \times \\ C_{q+k} \end{matrix}$$

Consider free fermions

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \xi(\mathbf{k}) c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}^\dagger c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}$$

Let us obtain

$$g_{\mathbf{k}\sigma, \mathbf{k}'\sigma'}(\tau - \tau')$$

$$= -\theta(\tau - \tau') \langle c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}(\tau) c_{\mathbf{k}'\sigma'}^\dagger(\tau') \rangle$$

$$+ \theta[-(\tau - \tau')] \langle c_{\mathbf{k}'\sigma'}^\dagger(\tau') c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}(\tau) \rangle$$

By the same arguments we have seen  
before

$$c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}(\tau) = e^{-\tau \xi(\mathbf{k})} c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}^{\text{free fermi}}$$

$$c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}^\dagger(\tau) = e^{\tau \xi(\mathbf{k})} c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}^+$$

$$g_{\mathbf{k}\sigma, \mathbf{k}'\sigma'}(\tau - \tau') = -\frac{\theta(\tau - \tau') e^{-\tau \xi(\mathbf{k})}}{e^{\tau \xi(\mathbf{k})}}$$

$$= [-\theta(\tau - \tau') \langle c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma} c_{\mathbf{k}'\sigma'}^\dagger \rangle$$

$$+ \theta[-(\tau - \tau')] \langle c_{\mathbf{k}'\sigma'}^\dagger c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma} \rangle] e^{-\tau \xi(\mathbf{k})} e^{\tau \xi(\mathbf{k}')}}$$

$$\langle c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}^\dagger c_{\mathbf{k}'\sigma'} \rangle = (1 - n_f(\xi_{\mathbf{k}})) \delta_{\mathbf{k}\mathbf{k}'} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'}$$

$$\langle c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}^\dagger c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma} \rangle = n_f(\xi_{\mathbf{k}}) \delta_{\mathbf{k}\mathbf{k}'} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'} \quad \boxed{24}$$

$$n_f(x) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta x} + 1}$$

$$g_{k\sigma, k'\sigma', (z-z')}$$

$$= (-\Theta(z-z') (1-n_f(\xi_a)) \\ + \Theta(-(z-z')) n_f(\xi_a)) e^{-\xi(a)(z-z')} \delta_{kk'} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} g_{k\sigma, (z-z')}$$

$$= (-\delta(z-z') (1-n_f(\xi_a)) \\ - \delta(z-z') n_f(\xi_a)) \delta_{kk'} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'} \\ - \xi(a) g$$

$$-\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z} + \xi(a)\right) g_{k\sigma, k'\sigma', (z-z')} = \delta(z-z') \delta_{kk'} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'}$$

$$= \sum_{k, \sigma_i} \int_0^{\beta} dz_i - \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z} + \xi(k)\right) \delta(z-z_i) \delta_{kk_i} \delta_{\sigma\sigma_i}$$

$$g_{k_i \sigma_i, k'_i \sigma'_i, (z_i - z')}$$

$$= \delta(z-z') \delta_{kk'} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'} \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{k, \sigma_i} \int_0^{\beta} dz_i g_{k\sigma, k\sigma_i}^{-1} (z - z_i) g_{k\sigma, k} (z_i - z') = \delta(z-z') \delta_{kk'} \delta_{\sigma\sigma'} \frac{1}{\int 25}$$

$$G_{k\sigma, k'\sigma'}^{-1}(\tau - \tau')$$

$$= - \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} + \xi(\vec{r}) \right) \delta(\tau - \tau') \delta_{k\sigma, k'\sigma'}$$

(This is ONLY for free particles.)

What happens if we have interactions?

Then one can show that

$$G_{k\sigma, k'\sigma'}^{-1}(\tau - \tau') = - \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} + \xi(\vec{r}) \right) \delta(\tau - \tau') \delta_{k\sigma, k'\sigma'} + \Sigma_{k\sigma, k'\sigma'}(\tau - \tau')$$

↑  
with interactions

where  $\Sigma$  is called the self energy or mass operator. If the state ~~Mass~~ retains translational and spin rotation invariance then  $\Sigma$  will have the form  $\Sigma_{k\sigma}(\tau - \tau') \delta_{k\sigma} \delta_{k\sigma'}$

Rather than derive this result, let us understand the meaning of self energy.

Recall that  $G_{k\sigma, k'\sigma'}^{<}(t - t')$  is the amplitude of propagation for an ~~do~~ added

particle. Assuming that no symmetries are broken, we can write the real time evolution equation for the retarded Green's function

$$\left( i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \Sigma_k \right) G - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt' \Sigma(k_0, t-t') G(t-t') = \delta(t-t')$$

Thus  $\Sigma(k_0, t-t')$  is the effective, retarded time dependent potential seen by the particle. This arises due to the interaction with other particles. ~~including this exp.~~

Going back to the imaginary time domain.

$$g_{k_0}^{-1}(\tau - \tau') = - \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} + \Sigma(k) + \sum_{k_0} \delta(\tau - \tau') \right) \delta_{\tau \tau'}$$

With  $\int g_{k_0}^{-1}(\tau - \tau') g_{k_0}(\tau - \tau') = 1$ .

We get  $(ik_e - \Sigma(k) - \sum_{k_0} (ik_e)) g_{k_0}^{(ik_e)} = 1$

$$g_{k_0}^{(ik_e)} = \frac{1}{ik_e - \Sigma(k) - \sum_{k_0} (ik_e)} = 1$$

This

$$G_{k\sigma}(\omega^+) = \frac{1}{\omega^+ - \xi(\vec{k}) - \sum_{k\sigma}^r(\omega^+) - \frac{\sum_{k\sigma}^i(\omega)}{\pi}}$$
$$\Rightarrow A_{k\sigma}(\omega) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{(\omega - \xi(\vec{k}) - \sum_{k\sigma}^r(\omega))^2 + (\sum_{k\sigma}^i(\omega))^2}$$

Note that  $\sum_{k\sigma}^i(\omega)$  has to be ~~non~~  
non positive for all  $\omega$ !  
The key question now is how to calculate  
 $\sum_{k\sigma}^i(\omega)$ ?

Path Integral Representation of the  
partition function

It turns out that the calculation of  
 $\sum$  can be ~~reduced~~ formulated in terms  
of ~~partition function~~ path integral formulation  
The idea is this:  $\Rightarrow$  The partition function  
 $\text{tr } e^{-\beta H} = \sum_n \langle n | e^{-\beta H} | n \rangle$

Now  $\langle n | e^{-\beta H} | n \rangle$  is the amplitude of  
propagation in imaginary time starting from

the state  $|n\rangle$  and ending up at the state  $|n\rangle$  again. Except that the propagation is in imaginary time nothing is particularly different here. Thus one must be able

to write  $\langle n | e^{-\beta H} | n \rangle$  as a path integral. i.e  $\int \mathcal{D}(\text{classical path}) e^{iS_{\text{class}}}$

But here is key question? Suppose we have many particles. We know that there is indistinguishability and associated statistics. How do we ensure that we deal with bosons and fermions correctly in ~~statistics~~ the classical mechanics. ~~Pass it~~ Clearly we must build up a classical mechanism of fermions. To motivate the idea, consider a ~~classical~~ harmonic oscillator

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2} + \frac{\omega^2 x^2}{2}.$$

Up to a constant

$$H = \omega \underbrace{a^\dagger a}_{\substack{\rightarrow \text{bosonic creation} \\ \text{annihilation operators}}}$$

what are the states of the oscillator that are "most classical". These are the so called coherent states  $a|\phi\rangle = \phi|\phi\rangle$ .

are the right eigenstates of the annihilation operator. ~~the~~  $a$  can be any complex number. The key thing is that  $a^*a = \bar{\phi}\phi$  in any coherent state and is therefore the minimum uncertainty state.

Let us try to do the same thing with fermions. The simplest ~~way~~ to do this would be ~~the~~ two sets 1 and 2

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{---} \\ 1 \quad 2 \end{array} (S)$$

with a hopping between them

$$\text{Say } H = -t(c_1^{\dagger}c_2 + c_2^{\dagger}c_1)$$

Now let us ask: does ~~the~~ G and  $C$  have coherent states? Let us say that to show in  $C$

$$c_1|\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle = \phi_1|\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle$$

$$c_2|\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle = \phi_2|\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle$$

Now  $c_2 c_1 |\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle = \phi_1 c_2 |\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle$   
 $= \phi_1 \phi_2 |\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle$

$c_1 c_2 |\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle = \phi_2 c_1 |\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle$   
 $= \phi_2 \phi_1 |\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle$

$$(c_2 c_1 + c_1 c_2) |\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle = (\phi_1 \phi_2 + \phi_2 \phi_1) |\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle$$

$$= 0$$

$$= (\phi_1 \phi_2 + \phi_2 \phi_1) |\phi_1, \phi_2\rangle$$

We need  $\phi_1 \phi_2 + \phi_2 \phi_1 = 0 !!$

clearly  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  cannot be c-numbers.  
 Thus to make "classical" states of fermions  
 we have to expand our "number system"  
 to include anti commuting numbers. Fortunately  
 for us some mathematicians were at this  
 infact awhile ago! In fact this is also  
 not so surprising since  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ . Now I have

two Grassmann numbers called generators.

They satisfy the algebra

$$\phi_1 \phi_2 + \phi_2 \phi_1 = 0$$

$$\phi_1^2 = 0 \text{ and } \phi_2^2 = 0$$

Now associated with this we have two other generators  $\phi_1^*$  and  $\phi_2^*$ , there are Grammann conjugates the algebra has  $\{\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_1^*, \phi_2^*\}$  it follows that  $\phi_i^* \phi_j + \phi_j^* \phi_i = 0$

$\phi_i^* \phi_j^* + \phi_j^* \phi_i^* = 0$ . Now define complex multiplication  $a \phi_i : \mathbb{B}$  (alike 3i) and etc. one can define complex numbers  $a \phi_1 + b \phi_2 \phi_1 + c \phi_2^* \phi_1^* \phi_2$ .

etc.  $(a \phi_i)^* = a^* \phi_i^*$ .

Let us then construct a coherent start for one state

$\langle 1 \phi_1 \rangle = \phi_1 \langle 1 \phi_1 \rangle$

$\langle 1 \phi_1 \rangle = \cancel{\langle 10 \rangle} - \phi_1 \langle 11 \rangle$

$\langle 1 \phi_1 \rangle = -\phi_2 \phi_1$

hence to have

Consider a single Grammann variable complex number

$f(\phi) = q_0 + q_1 \phi$

$$f(\phi^*, \phi) = q_0 + q_1 \phi + q_2 \phi^* + q_3 \phi^* \phi$$

Calculus of Grammann numbers.

$$\frac{\partial f(\phi)}{\partial \phi} = q_1 \quad \text{in a natural way.}$$

→ How do we do the integration

$$\int d\phi f(\phi) = \int d\phi (q_0 + q_1 \phi)$$

A consistent way to define this is

$$\int d\phi_1 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \int d\phi \phi = 1.$$

$$\text{Thus } \int d\phi f(\phi) = q_1.$$

We see that Grassmann integration is  
some as differentiation:

Armed with this mathematics we  
are ready to define a fermionic  
coherent states. Consider a single  
fermionic state such as a single orbital  
one (say the Hamiltonian is  
 $H = \epsilon_0 c^\dagger c$ )

$$\int d\phi^* d\phi e^{-\phi^* \phi} = \int d\phi^* d\phi (1 - \phi^* \phi)$$

$$= 1.$$

We need one more ~~piece~~ property to do everything consistently. Grassmann numbers anti-commute with fermionic operators

$$\phi c + c \phi = 0.$$

We are now ready to define a fermionic coherent state (that of a single state given by  $\phi$ )

$$c|\phi\rangle = \phi|0\rangle$$

claim  $|0\rangle = |0\rangle - \phi|1\rangle$

$$c|\phi\rangle = c|0\rangle - c\phi|1\rangle$$

$$= 0 + \phi c|1\rangle = \phi|0\rangle$$

$$= \phi(|0\rangle - \phi|1\rangle)$$

$$= |\phi\rangle !$$

$$|\phi\rangle = e^{-\phi c^\dagger}|0\rangle = (1 - \phi c^\dagger)|0\rangle$$

$$= \cancel{|0\rangle} - \phi|1\rangle.$$

Now

$$\langle\phi| = \langle 0| e^{-c\phi^*} = \langle 0| - \langle 1|\phi^*$$

or

$$\langle\phi|c^\dagger = \langle\phi|\phi^*$$

~~Note~~

Now what is

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \psi | \phi \rangle &= (\langle 0 | - \langle 1 | \psi^* \phi) (1 \rangle - \phi | 1 \rangle) \\ &= (1 + \phi \psi^* \phi) \\ &= e^{\psi^* \phi}.\end{aligned}$$

With this we are ready to ~~do~~ obtain the all important relationship

$$\begin{aligned}\int d\phi^* d\phi e^{-\phi^* \phi} | \phi \rangle \langle \phi | &= 1 \\ &= | 0 \rangle \langle 0 | + | 1 \rangle \langle 1 |.\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the ~~to~~ <sup>exp</sup> trace of an operator  $\text{tr}(A) = \langle 0 | A | 0 \rangle + \langle 1 | A | 1 \rangle$

$$= \int d\phi^* d\phi e^{-\phi^* \phi} \langle -\phi | A | \phi \rangle$$

↑  
NOTE!

We can immediately make sense that all this makes sense. The partition function of the one site is

$$\text{tr } e^{-\beta \epsilon_0 c^* c} = 1 + e^{-\beta \epsilon_0}.$$

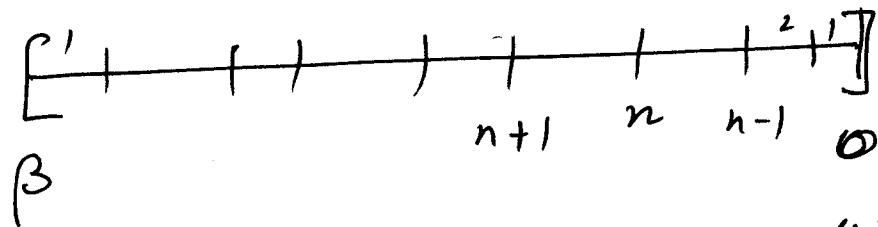
Now we obtain this result using the "classical" states

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z &= \int d\phi^* d\phi \ e^{-\phi^* \phi} \langle -\phi | e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}_0^c t_c} | \phi \rangle \\
 &= \int d\phi^* d\phi \ e^{-\phi^* \phi} \langle -\phi | \phi \rangle (1 - (e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_0} - 1) e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}_0^c t_c}) \\
 &= \int d\phi^* d\phi \ e^{-\phi^* \phi} \ e^{-\phi^* \phi} \ e^{-(e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_0} - 1) \phi^* \phi} \\
 &= \int d\phi^* d\phi \ e^{-\phi^* \phi} - (e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_0} + 1) \phi^* \phi \\
 &= 1 + e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_0} .
 \end{aligned}$$

We are now very encouraged by all of this and are ready to derive the path integral formula of the partition function.

$$Z = \int d\phi^* d\phi \ e^{-\phi^* \phi} \langle -\phi | e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}_0^c t_c} | \phi \rangle$$

Now visualize the interval from  $[0, \beta)$  as



$$\Delta z = \frac{\beta}{N}$$

$$e^{-\beta z} = \prod_{n=1}^N e^{-\Delta z z}$$

$$\phi_0 = \phi \text{ and } \phi_N = \phi$$

$$\langle -\phi | e^{-\beta z} | \phi \rangle = \prod_{n=0}^{N-1} \langle \phi_n^* | \phi_{n+1} \rangle e^{-\phi_n^* \phi_{n+1}}$$

$$\int \prod_{n=0}^{N-1} \langle \phi_{n+1} | e^{-\phi_n^* \phi_{n+1}} | \phi_{n+1} \rangle (1 - \Delta z \epsilon_0 c^+ c^-).$$

$$\langle \phi_{n+1} | \phi_n \rangle e^{-\Delta z \epsilon_0 \phi_{n+1}^* \phi_n}$$

$$\int \prod_{n=0}^N \langle \phi_{n+1}^* | \phi_n \rangle e^{-\phi_n^* \phi_n} e^{+\phi_n^* \phi_{n+1}} e^{-\Delta z \epsilon_0 \phi_n^* \phi_{n+1}}$$

$$\int \prod_n \langle \phi_{n+1}^* | \phi_n \rangle e^{-\sum_n \Delta z \left( \frac{\phi_n^* (\phi_n - \phi_{n+1})}{\Delta z} + \epsilon_0 \phi_n^* \phi_n \right)}$$

Now take limit  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . We will get S

$$Z = \int \mathcal{D}[\phi^*, \phi] e^{-\int_0^B dx \phi^*(x) \frac{\partial \phi(x)}{\partial x} + \int_0^B \phi^*(x) \phi(x)}$$

$$\phi(p) = -\phi(-p)$$

anti periodic

$$L(\phi^*, \phi)$$

classical lagrangian of fermions

We have

We have thus extracted the classical lagrangian. One can go on to show that this is fully consistent with classical mechanics etc. (See my notes on the web).

We are now ready to see Antoine's formulation of the Hubbard model. One defines a coherent state

$$|\sum \phi_{i\sigma}^* \rangle$$

on the lattice relation

$$1 = \int \prod_i d\phi_{i\sigma}^* d\phi_{i\sigma}$$

There is a completeness

$$-\sum_{i\sigma} \phi_{i\sigma}^* \phi_{i\sigma} \langle \sum \phi_{i\sigma} \rangle \langle \sum \phi_{i\sigma}^* \rangle$$

$$Z = \int \mathcal{D}[\phi^*, \phi] e^{- \int_0^B \int_0^B \phi^*(\tau) \left[ -G^{-1}(\tau - \tau') \right] \phi(\tau')}$$

$$S = \boxed{\int_0^B \int_0^B \phi^*(\tau) \left[ -G^{-1}(\tau - \tau') \right] \phi(\tau')}$$

We are now ready to formulate the partition function of the Hubbard model ~~as a path integral~~ as a path integral.

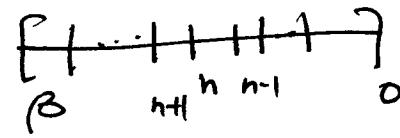
Define Grassmann generators  $\phi_{i\sigma}$  at each site along with their conjugates  $\phi_{i\sigma}^*$ . We have the completeness relation

$$\int \prod d\phi_{i\sigma}^* d\phi_{i\sigma} e^{- \sum_{i\sigma} \phi_{i\sigma}^* \phi_{i\sigma}} \langle \{ \phi_{i\sigma} \} \rangle \langle \{ \phi_{i\sigma} \} \rangle$$

where  $\langle \{ \phi_{i\sigma} \} \rangle$  are the "climat" states of the system. The partition function is

$$Z = \int \prod d\phi_{i\sigma}^* d\phi_{i\sigma} e^{- \sum_{i\sigma} \phi_{i\sigma}^* \phi_{i\sigma}} \langle -\{ \phi_{i\sigma} \} | e^{-\beta H} | \{ \phi_{i\sigma} \} \rangle$$

Again going through the same process  
we get



$$Z = \int \prod_{i=1}^N \prod_i d^* \phi_{i\sigma}^n d^* \phi_{i\sigma}^n$$

$$e^{-\sum \phi_{i\sigma}^{*(n)} \phi_{i\sigma}^{(n)}} \langle \{ \phi_{i\sigma}^{(n)} \} | e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}} | \{ \phi_{i\sigma}^{(n)} \} \rangle \approx :e^{-\Delta \mathcal{H}}:$$

$$= \int \prod_{n=1}^N \prod_i d^* \phi_{i\sigma}^{*(n)} d^* \phi_{i\sigma}^n e^{-\sum \phi_{i\sigma}^{*(n)} \phi_{i\sigma}^{(n)} + \sum \phi_{i\sigma}^{*(n)} \phi_{i\sigma}^{(n-1)}} \\ - \Delta \mathcal{H}(\{ \phi_{i\sigma}^{*(n)} \}, \{ \phi_{i\sigma}^n \}) \times e$$

$$= \int D[\phi_{i\sigma}^*, \phi] e^{-S}$$

$$\{ \phi_{i\sigma}(\beta) \} = - \{ \phi_{i\sigma}(0) \}$$

$$S = \int_0^\beta d\tau \left( \sum_{i\sigma} \phi_{i\sigma}^* \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \phi_{i\sigma} + \left( -t \sum_{i\sigma} (\phi_{i\sigma}^* \phi_{i\sigma} + h.c.) \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. - U \sum_i \phi_{i\sigma}^* \phi_{i\sigma}^* \phi_{i\sigma} \phi_{i\sigma} - \mu \sum_i \phi_{i\sigma}^* \phi_{i\sigma} \right) \right)$$

There are a couple of more things to remember. The path integral formulation allows for the calculation of correlation or response function.

$$-\langle T_z A(z) B(z') \rangle$$

$$= \frac{\int \mathcal{D}[\psi^* \psi] e^{-S[\psi^*, \psi]} A(z) B(z')}{\int \mathcal{D}[\psi^* \psi] e^{-S[\psi^*, \psi]}}$$

The remarkable thing about this is that we do not need to worry about the imaginary time ordering. It is automatic! - path integrals always produce time ordered answers.

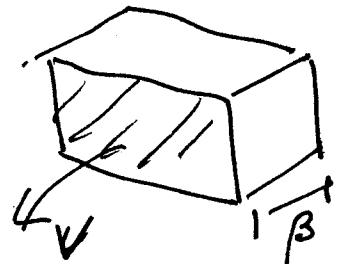
Finally, we see that QM stat mech problem in  $d$  dimensions can be treated as a classical stat mech problem in  $d+1$ .

To see this explicitly, consider the action for the short range interacting fermions that we see in cold atoms.

The action

$$S = \int_0^{\beta} d\tau \int d^d r \left[ c_{\sigma}^* (\vec{r}, \tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} c_{\sigma} (\vec{r}, \tau) \right. \\ \left. + c_{\sigma}^* (\vec{r}, \tau) \left( -\frac{\nabla^2}{2} \right) c_{\sigma} (\vec{r}, \tau) \right. \\ \left. + \nu \cancel{c_{\sigma}^* (\vec{r}, \tau)} c_{\sigma}^+ (\vec{r}, \tau) c_{\downarrow} (\vec{r}, \tau) c_{\uparrow} (\vec{r}, \tau) \right]$$

This is the action of a field in  $d+1$  dimensional space of volume  $\beta V$ !



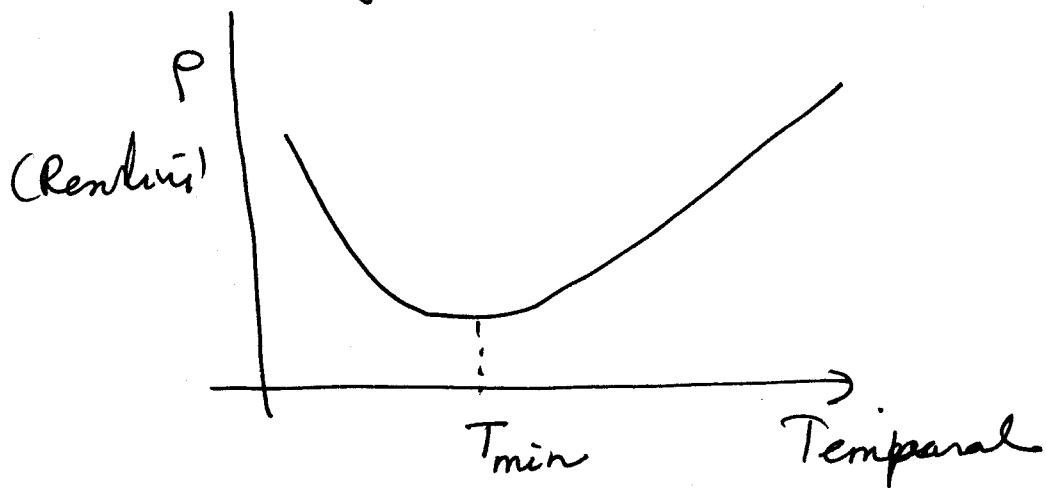
$$Z = \int \mathcal{D}[c^* c] e^{-S}$$

Indeed this ~~represents~~ point is not just a curiosity, but can actually be fruitfully used to simulate quantum systems.

Much of what we have discussed so far is formulation. Let's now do some real physics.

## The Anderson Impurity Problem

Back in the 50's and 60's folks were intrigued by the following phenomenon. When Fe was "dissolved" in Cu (small % Fe in Cu crystal), the resistivity of the system showed a rather strange behavior



$T_m \sim c^{1/5}$  where  $c$  is the concentration of Fe.  $T_{min} \sim 10-20$  K.

Interestingly at  $T \gg T_{min}$ , such systems also show a Curie-like susceptibility, suggesting that the magnetic impurities form "permanent" moments. However, no "dissipative" susceptibility is found at low temperatures. Suggesting that the moment "disappears".

at low temperatures, roughly below where there is the resistivity minimum!

Yet other systems (such as Fe in Al, check this) do not show local moment formation - i.e., a magnetic ion does not remain a magnetic ion in these systems.

Let us think of Fe in Cu.

~~Reilly~~ The host metal has an s-band (conduction band) and the Fe ion has localized d-orbitals. We can write out the individual Hamiltonian as

$$\sum_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{1}{2} \delta(\mathbf{k}) c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}^{\dagger} c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}$$

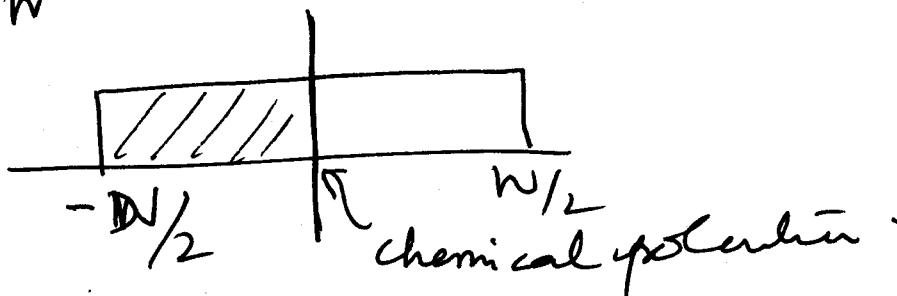
and  $\sum_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{1}{2} \delta_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} \delta_{\mathbf{k}}$ . (Sum over repeated indices is implied).

When we place this in the ion, it hybridizes with the conduction band. We ~~will~~ take the form and this we take to be of the form

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} (c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}^{\dagger} d_{\sigma} + d_{\sigma}^{\dagger} c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma})$$

where  $N$  is the number of sites in the lattice. The hamiltonian has no translation invariance, but has spin rotation invariance as a symmetry.

Now we will assume that the band is flat in that  $f(\omega) = \rho_0$   
~~is the band width~~  
 $= \frac{1}{2}W$



Thus we have three scales in the problem, ① bandwidth  $W$ , ②  $3d$ -Energy of the impurity ③ of the hybridization.

When will the impurity be magnetic, say, when does it pick up a permanent moment? If this happens the

$$m = \langle d_{\uparrow}^+ d_{\downarrow} \rangle - \langle d_{\downarrow}^+ d_{\uparrow} \rangle \neq 0 \text{ and}$$

we will pick up a moment!

Let us see, if this happens. And in doing

We have Fourier expand

$$c_{k0}^*(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i \neq k}^N e^{-ik_x \epsilon} c_{k0}(\text{like})$$

After a bit of algebra, we get

$$S[c_{k0}(\text{like}), d_{\text{no like}}]$$

$$= \sum_{i \neq k}^N \left[ \left( \sum_{k0}^N \cancel{c_{k0}^*(\text{like})} (-ik_x + \xi_d) c_{k0}(\text{like}) \right) \right. \\ \left. + (-ik_x + \xi_d) \cancel{d_{\text{no like}}^*} d_{\text{no like}} \right) \\ + \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_k^N (c_{k0}^*(\text{like}) d_{\text{no like}} + d_{\text{no like}}^* c_{k0}(\text{like}))$$

$$Z = \int \prod_{\substack{k0 \\ i \neq k}} d c_{k0}^* d c_{k0}(\text{like}) d d_{\text{no like}}^* d d_{\text{no like}} e^{-S[c, d]}$$

One can easily see that the integral for each  $i \neq k$  can be done separately, let us perform

let us now perform the integration over the  $c_{k0}^*(\text{like})$  and  $c_{k0}(\text{like})$  variables.

We will also flex our just acquired technical muscle.  
We notice that we can calculate in the following trick.

Consider  $g_{d\sigma}(z) = -\langle T_z d_\sigma(z) d_\sigma^+(0) \rangle$

clearly  $\sum_\sigma g_{d\sigma}(0) = m!$

How do we obtain  $g_{d\sigma}(z)$ ? Well we can equivalently obtain  $g_{d\sigma}^{(i\omega)}$  and then

$$m = \sum_\sigma \frac{1}{\beta} \sum_\sigma e^{i\omega_0 z} g_{d\sigma}^{(i\omega)}$$

Let's obtain  $S[c, d]$  to obtain this, let's

integrate the action

$$S[c, d] = \int_0^\beta dz \left( \sum_{k\sigma} c_{k\sigma}^*(z) \frac{\partial}{\partial z} c_{k\sigma} + \delta(\vec{k}) c_{k\sigma}^* c_{k\sigma} \right) + \cancel{d_\sigma^* \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \cancel{d_\sigma} + \delta_\sigma \right) d_\sigma}$$

$$+ \frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k\sigma} (c_{k\sigma}^* d_{k\sigma}(z) + d_\sigma^*(z) c_{k\sigma}(z))$$

With  $c_{k\sigma}(\beta) = -c_{k\sigma}(z)$  and same for  $d$ .

Now we can integrate out the  $\psi$  variables using the following trick  
Consider

$$\begin{aligned}
 & - (A \psi^* \psi + B (\psi^* \phi + \phi^* \psi)) \\
 & + D (\phi^* \phi) \\
 & \int d\phi^* d\phi d\psi^* d\psi e \\
 & = \int d\phi^* d\phi d\psi^* d\psi (1 - (A \psi^* \psi + B (\psi^* \phi + \phi^* \psi)) \\
 & + D \phi^* \phi) \\
 & + \frac{1}{2} (A \psi^* \psi + B (\psi^* \phi + \phi^* \psi) \\
 & + D \phi^* \phi)^2 \\
 & = \int d\phi^* d\phi d\psi^* d\psi \left( AD \psi^* \psi \phi^* \phi - B^2 \phi^* \psi^* \phi^* \phi \right) \\
 & = -A \cancel{\int d\phi^* d\phi} \cancel{\int d\psi^* d\psi} \phi^* \phi \\
 & - A \int d\phi^* d\phi \underbrace{\left[ \int d\psi^* d\psi \psi^* \psi \right]}_1 \left( -D - \frac{B^2}{A} \right) \phi^* \phi \\
 & - A \int d\phi^* d\phi \left[ 1 - \phi^* \left( D - \frac{B}{A^2} \right) \phi \right. \\
 & \quad \left. - \phi^* \left( D - \frac{B}{A^2} \right) \phi \right. \\
 & \quad \left. - A \int d\phi^* d\phi e \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

By using this, we get

$$S[d_\sigma^*, d_\sigma]$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{i k_e \\ \sigma}}^1 d_{\sigma k_e}^*(i k_e) \left[ -i k_e + \xi_d - \left[ \frac{\gamma^2}{N} \sum_k \frac{1}{i k_e - \xi_k} \right] \right] d_\sigma^*(i k_e)$$

$$\text{or } S[d_\sigma^*(\tau), d_\sigma(\tau')]$$

$$= \int_0^\beta d\tau \int_0^\beta d\tau' d_\sigma^*(\tau) \left[ -\mathcal{G}_{\sigma\sigma'}^{-1}(\tau - \tau') \right] d_{\sigma'}(\tau')$$

where

$$\mathcal{G}_{\sigma\sigma'}^{-1}(\tau - \tau') = \frac{1}{\beta} \left( \sum_{k=1}^1 e^{i(\tau - \tau')} \mathcal{G}_{\sigma k}^{-1}(i k_e) \right) \delta_{\sigma\sigma'}$$

$$\mathcal{G}_{\sigma k}^{-1}(i k_e) = i k_e \pm \xi_d - \frac{\gamma^2}{N} \sum_k \frac{1}{i k_e - \xi_k}$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{G}_{\sigma k}^{-1}(i k_e) = \frac{1}{i k_e - \xi_d - \frac{\gamma^2}{N} \sum_k \frac{1}{i k_e - \xi_k}}$$

$$\mathcal{G}_{\sigma k}^{-1}(\omega^+) =$$

$$\frac{1}{\omega^+ - \xi_d - \frac{\gamma^2}{N} \sum_k \frac{1}{\omega^+ - \xi_k}}$$

Look at

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_k \frac{1}{\omega - \xi_k} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_k \frac{1}{\omega - \xi_k} = \underbrace{-i \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_N \delta(\omega - \xi_N)}_{p_0}$$

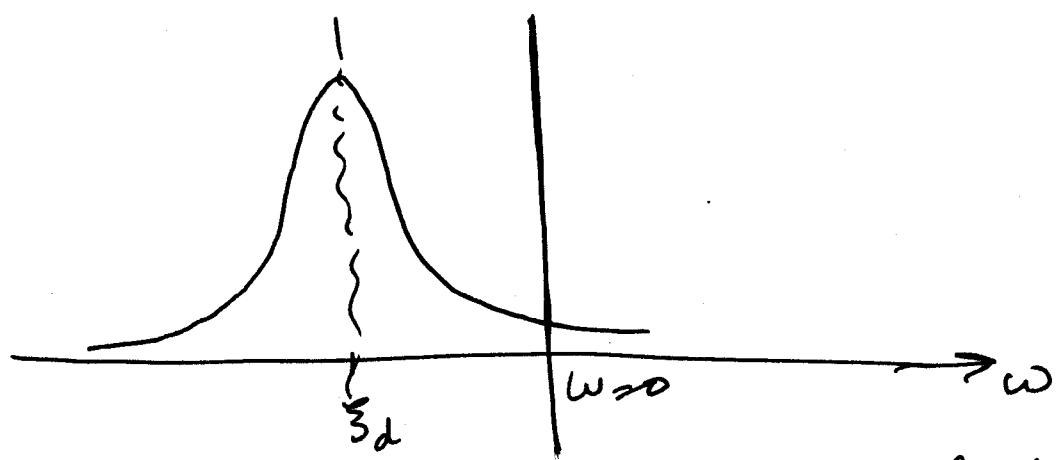
Absorb this in the definition of  $\xi_d$ .

$$\Rightarrow G_{d\sigma}(\omega^+) = \frac{1}{\omega - (\xi_d - i\Delta)}$$

where  $\Delta = \pi \gamma^2 p_0$  or  $\frac{\pi \gamma^2}{N}$

$$\Rightarrow A_{d\sigma}(\omega) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \text{Im } G_{d\sigma}(\omega^+)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\Delta}{(\omega - \xi_d)^2 + \Delta^2}$$



Make a comment about spectral function and quasi particles.

Note that

$$\frac{1}{\beta} \sum e^{i k \epsilon_0 t} g_{d\sigma}(\epsilon_0) \rightarrow (\text{Show this})$$

$$\langle d_\sigma^\dagger d_\sigma \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega n_p(\omega) A_{d\sigma}(\omega)$$

$$\langle d_\sigma^\dagger d_\sigma \rangle \xrightarrow{T=0} \frac{1}{2} - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{3d}{\Delta}\right) = \text{[Graph of a peak with a shaded area below it, representing the integral of the function above.]}$$

But now we are now ready to obtain  $m$

$$m = \langle d_\uparrow^\dagger d_\uparrow \rangle - \langle d_\downarrow^\dagger d_\downarrow \rangle = 0!$$

Indeed this will be the case at any temperature! This is an unhappy situation since we find that the added impurity never picks up a moment.   
~~We are clearly missing something~~

~~We are clearly missing something~~

crucial!

This the the repulsive interaction between the fermions at the d-orbital! We need to add a new term to our Hamiltonian and this is

$$= U \delta^{N_{d\uparrow} N_{d\downarrow}} d_\uparrow^\dagger d_\downarrow^\dagger d_\downarrow d_\uparrow$$

First thing we need to ask is why would an ~~over~~ "Hubbard U" at the ~~site~~ d site give a moment? Here is simple, but very crucial part.

Take the d state spin operator

$$\text{for } \vec{S}_d = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\sigma\sigma'} d_{\sigma}^+ \vec{\epsilon}_{\sigma\sigma'} d_{\sigma'} \quad \vec{\epsilon} \text{ (Pauli matrices)}$$

$$\vec{S}_d \cdot \vec{S}_d = \frac{3}{4} \left( d_{\uparrow}^+ d_{\uparrow} + d_{\downarrow}^+ d_{\downarrow} \right) - \frac{3}{4} n_{d\uparrow} n_{d\downarrow}$$

$$\text{or } n_{d\uparrow} n_{d\downarrow} = \frac{1}{2} (n_{\uparrow} + n_{\downarrow}) - \frac{2}{3} \vec{S}_d \cdot \vec{S}_d.$$

Thus we can

thus we can define

$$U n_{d\uparrow} n_{d\downarrow} = \frac{U}{2} (n_{\uparrow} + n_{\downarrow}) - \frac{2U}{3} \vec{S}_d \cdot \vec{S}_d.$$

Now the linear term can be absorbed in the definition of  $\vec{S}_d$ . Now if

$\vec{S}_d$  is negative then we will like to have exactly one electron on the d site maximizing the correlation energy. So this makes the formation of a moment plausible.

If we had written the action of the impurity prior to changing over to the spin wave  $\vec{s}_d$ , we would obtain

$$S[d_o^*, d_o] = - \int_0^\beta dz \int_0^\beta dz' d_o^*(z) \left( - \mathcal{G}^{-1}(z-z') \right) d_o(z) \\ + \int_0^\beta dz d_{\uparrow}^*(z) d_{\downarrow}^*(z) d_{\downarrow}(z) d_{\uparrow}(z).$$

This is exactly like the action in the RMP of Georges et al.!

Now let me go back to the redefined  $\vec{s}_d$  and we write the action as

and

$$S[d_o^*, d_o] = - \iint d^2z \mathcal{G}^{-1} d$$

$$+ \frac{2U}{3} \int_0^\beta dz \vec{s}_d(z) \cdot \vec{s}(z)$$

Note that  $\vec{s}_d(z)$  is a "bonic" field.



$\vec{s}$

is a "bonic" field

$$+ \frac{2U}{3} \vec{s}_d(z) \cdot \vec{s}_d(z)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{\frac{b^*b}{a}} \\ = \int e \end{bmatrix}$$

$$- \left( \frac{3U}{2V} \vec{M}(z) \cdot \vec{N}(z) + \vec{N}(z) \vec{S}(z) \right)$$

$$= \int d\vec{M}^* d\vec{M} e$$

and thus

$$- S[d^*, d, \vec{M}]$$

$$Z = \int \mathcal{D}[d^*, d, \vec{M}] e$$

Now  $S[d^* d, \vec{M}] = \int_0^\beta dz \frac{3\vec{M}^2(z)}{2U} \neq \int_0^\beta dz \int_0^z d\vec{z}'$

$$d^* \left[ -\mathcal{G}_{001}^{-1}[z-z'; \vec{M}(z)] \right] d_0(z')$$

Integrate out the fermions to get

$$- S[\vec{M}(\vec{c})]$$

$$Z = \int \mathcal{D}[\vec{M}(\vec{c})] e$$

$$S(\vec{M}) = \int_0^\beta dz \frac{3|\vec{M}(z)|^2}{2U} - \ln \det \left[ -\mathcal{G}^{-1}[\vec{M}] \right]$$

saddle pt

Now we look for external, solutions of  $\vec{M}(z)$ , i.e. and look for solution of the type  $\vec{M}(z) = M \vec{e}_z$  (static solution).

We similarly substitute

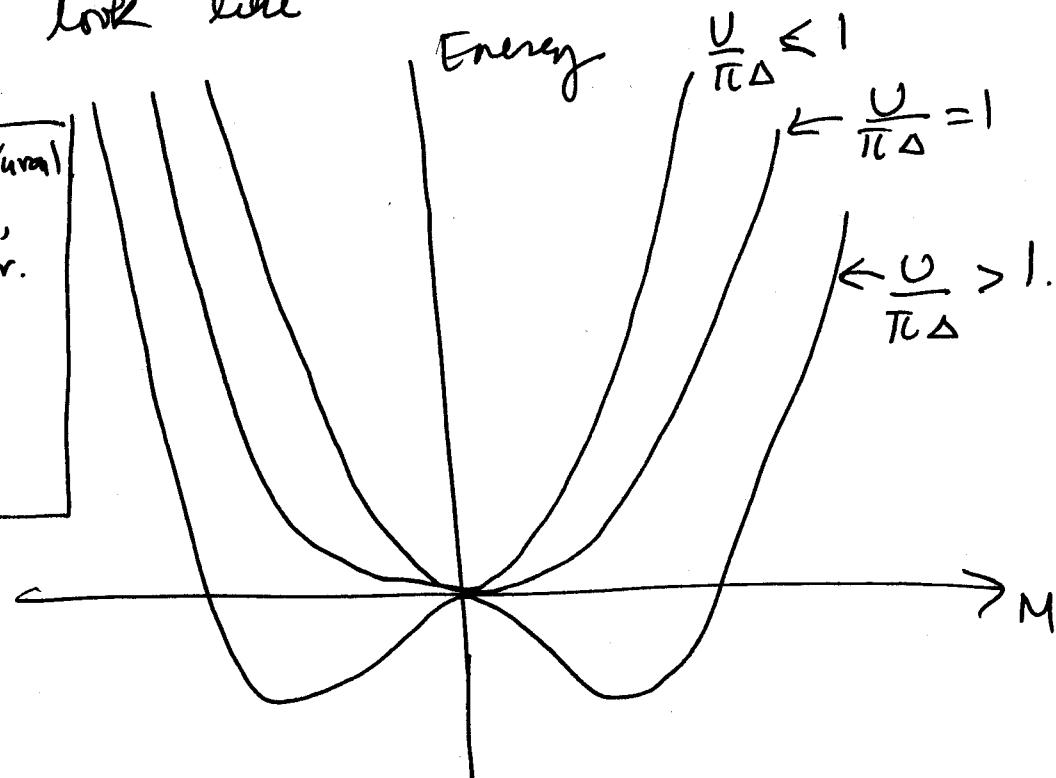
$$M(z) = M \vec{e}_z \quad \text{for}$$

For the symmetric Anderson model

$$\xi_d + U = -\xi_d \quad \text{or} \quad \xi_d = -\frac{U}{2U}$$

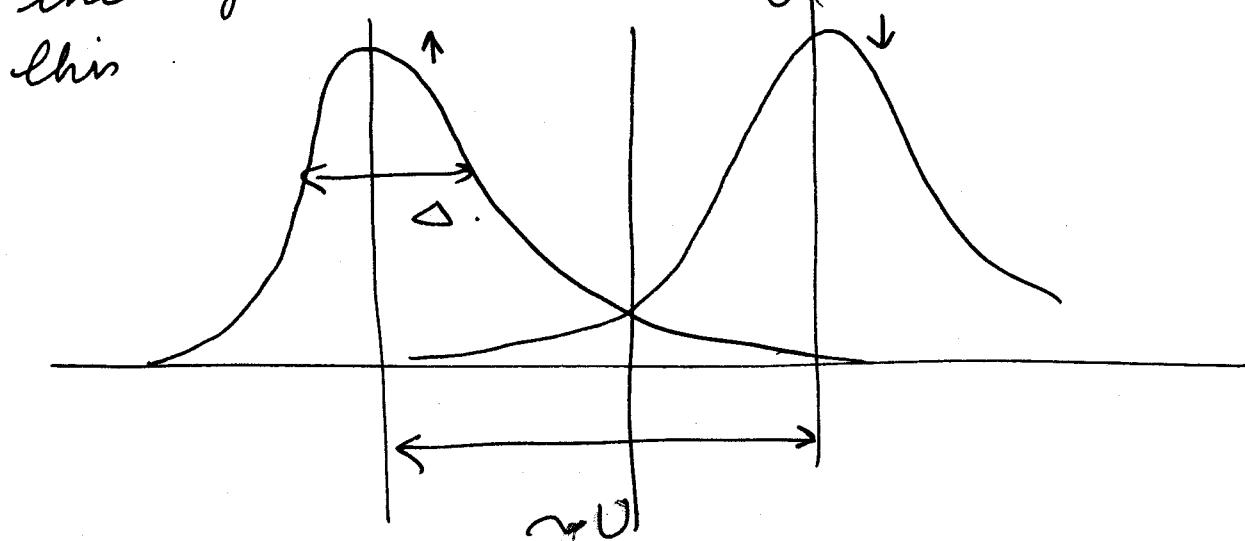
One can work this out exactly.  
 The energy state as a function of  $M$   
 will look like

Anderson/Kural  
 Wang, Emerson,  
 Schreiffer.  
 Hahnemann  
 PRL 1969  
 (July)



$$E(E(M)) = \lim_{T \rightarrow 0} -T \ln Z^{\text{int}}$$

we see that when  $U > \pi\Delta$  then  
 the system picks up a moment.  $\phi$  is  
 say  $m > 0$



~~But~~ this is excellent. We see that for large enough  $U$ , the system picks up a moment.

How good is the HF solution? ~~described~~  
~~Anderson~~ Anderson himself had an interesting comment in <sup>his</sup> paper.

There are two issues: one a real one, ~~and another an~~

(A) The ground state obtained by the saddle point analysis is not a ground state of the system.

Reason, the  $\uparrow$  spin electron  $\rightarrow$  can hop into the conduction band and come back as a down spin

(B) This is a symmetry breaking in a "small" system which is not so nice.

How do we describe the fluctuations of spin, but no charge? The idea is to "integrate out" charge fluctuation and obtain the effective ~~sd~~  $\rightarrow$  sd Hamiltonian.

$$\mathcal{H}_{sd} = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} g(\mathbf{k}) c_{\mathbf{k}0}^\dagger c_{\mathbf{k}0} + \vec{S}(0) \cdot \vec{S}_d$$

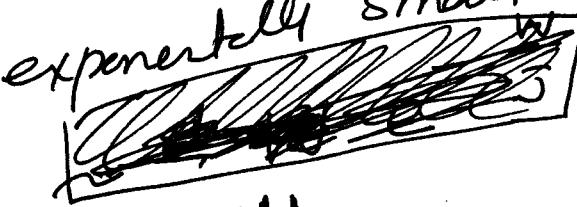
$$\vec{S}(0) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}'} \vec{c}_{\mathbf{k}0}^\dagger \vec{c}_{\mathbf{k}'0}$$

Note that  $J \gg 0$  anti-ferro magnetic.  
Where does this come from?

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \uparrow c \quad \uparrow c \quad - \quad \uparrow \\
 \uparrow d \quad \times \quad \uparrow d \quad \uparrow \quad \downarrow \\
 \rightarrow \psi \\
 \sim \frac{\gamma^2}{V} \text{ Eneg gain}
 \end{array}$$

process occurs only if c spin is antiferromagnetically aligned with the d spin.

What is the ground state of the s-d Hamiltonian?  
It turns out that the system ~~is a triplet~~  
forms a singlet which gains an energy. Now to form the screening  
singlet some states have to be localized  
around the impurity, and this  
~~causes~~ costs kinetic energy. The  
key thing is that the gain in  
energy is exponentially small. In fact  
it is

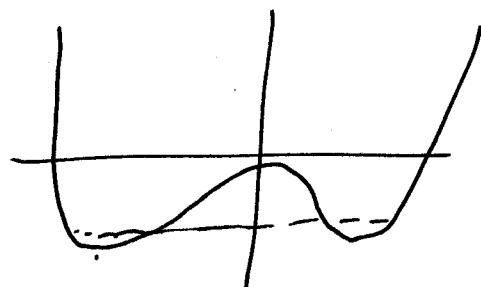


$$e^{-\frac{N}{J}}$$

$$T_K \sim \sqrt{U\Delta} e^{-\frac{\pi\hbar\omega}{\Delta}} \quad (\text{Some factors may be missing})$$

This is the Kondo scale.

This enthalpy singlet formation can also be viewed as a tunnelling process across the classical potential



and the exponentially small scale can be understood in this way.

Bottom

This explains the Kondo effect.

One can summarize this by saying that for  $\frac{U}{T\Delta} \gtrsim 1$ , there are two

key scal

Moment  
one

severed  
out

by

conductor  
elements

$T_K$

Moments form

"Free"  
moment.

"Asymptotic" freedoms

Moment  
dies!

~~$T_K$~~  due  
to  
charge  
fluctuation

(Moments, strongly  
coupled with conductor  
elements)