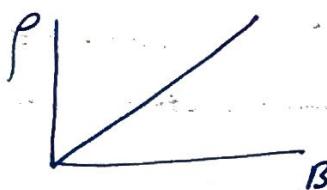
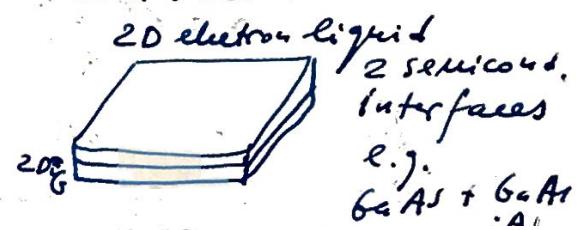
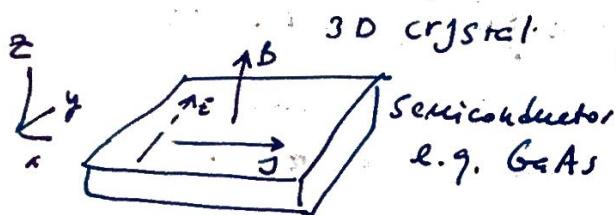


Topology in Solid State Physics

Quantum Hall effect and Topological insulators

Here is a very interesting observation.



$$\rho_{xx} = E_x / j_x$$

$$\rho_{xy} = E_y / j_x$$

Based on the cylindrical symmetry

$$\rho_{xx} = \rho_{yy} \quad \rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx}$$

From classical mechanics (Debye theory) $\rho_{xy} \sim B$

$$eE_y = eVB \quad j = evn \Rightarrow \rho_{xy} = \frac{E_y}{j_x} = \frac{B}{eV}$$

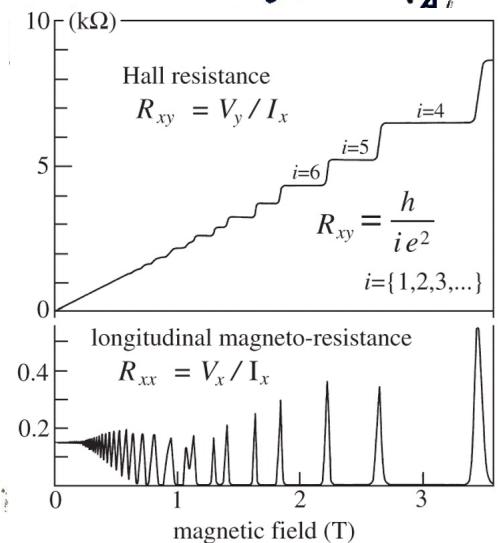
Very useful but nothing too spectacular:

Quantum Hall effect and its connection to quantum electrodynamics

At low T and very clean samples the 2DEG doesn't follow $\rho_{xy} \sim B$!

Instead, it shows a series of very strange plateaus. On the plateau $\rho_{xy} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{e^2}{h}$ $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and $\rho_{xx} = 0$.
the filling factor.

These plateaus are known as the Q.H.E.



2

Interestingly the value of conductivity can be expressed in terms of the fine structure constant:

$$\alpha = \frac{e^2}{\hbar c} \quad \sigma_{xy} = h \frac{e^2}{\hbar} \Rightarrow = h \cdot \alpha \cdot c$$

The f.s. constant α measures the strength of quantum electrodynamics:

$$\frac{\kappa \propto \kappa'}{\kappa \propto \kappa'} \quad \text{photon}$$

Now $e^2 \sim$ coulomb potential
denominator $\sim c$

$$\alpha \sim \frac{\text{potential energy}}{\text{kinetic energy}}$$

If in our universe $\alpha = 0$ then electrons will not interact and in fact there will be no photons (no light - just imagine this).

If α is large the universe will be made of very strongly entangled matter which will make the presence of life impossible as we know it.

However $\alpha \sim \frac{1}{137}$ which is just 1% of the kinetic energy and we leave in the world with interactions \equiv photons \equiv light and yet we can do the perturbation theory.

Consider just kinetic energy as the unperturbed term, then in the 1st approx

$$O(\alpha) \sim 1\%, \quad O^2(\alpha) \sim 10^{-8}!$$

Analogous but a condensed matter experiment can be as accurate as high energy physics in defining α !

3

QED:

$$\times = \frac{e^2}{\hbar c} \sim \frac{1}{13}$$

CMP: $\alpha_{CMP} = \frac{e^2}{\hbar v_F}$ for a typical solid
 $v_F \sim \frac{1}{100} - \frac{1}{1000} c$

so $\alpha_{CMP} = \frac{e^2}{\hbar v_F} \sim 1 \div 10$

so the perturbation theory doesn't work.

QHE and Topology.

Before we answer why σ_{xy} is quantized
 let's try to think why $\sigma_{xx} = 0$.

Q: if $\sigma_{xx} = 0$ is it a superconductor?
 or "perfect metal"

A: NOoooo... The material is
~~Conductor~~ - ~~Conductor~~ - Insulator!
 wow....

The material has 0 conductivity.

$$j = \sigma E, \quad E = \rho j \quad \rho = \frac{1}{\sigma}$$

This is only true if j and E are in
 the same direction. However more

generally:

$$\begin{pmatrix} j_x \\ j_y \\ j_z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \dots & \sigma_{xz} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{zx} & \dots & \sigma_{zz} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \\ E_z \end{pmatrix}$$

if all but $\sigma_{xx}, \sigma_{yy}, \sigma_{zz}$ are not zero

$$j = \sigma E \quad \text{and} \quad \rho = \frac{1}{\sigma} \quad \text{but for 2D}$$

4

$$\begin{pmatrix} i_x \\ j_y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and the resistivity}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{xx} & \rho_{xy} \\ \rho_{yx} & \rho_{yy} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} j_x \\ j_y \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{xx} & \rho_{xy} \\ \rho_{yx} & \rho_{yy} \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$= \frac{\rho_{yy} - \rho_{xy}}{\rho_{xx} \rho_{yy} - \rho_{xy}^2} \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{yy} - \rho_{xy} \\ -\rho_{xy} \rho_{xx} \end{pmatrix}$$

Now lets go to the plateau where $\rho_{xx} = \rho_{yy} = 0$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \rho_{xx} & \rho_{xy} \\ \rho_{yx} & \rho_{yy} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \rho_{xy} \\ \rho_{yx} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{1}{\rho_{xy} \rho_{yx}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\rho_{xy} \\ \rho_{yx} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/\rho_{xy} \\ 1/\rho_{xy} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_{xx} = \sigma_{yy} = 0 \text{ NO CONDUCTIVITY}$$

so the system is INSULATOR.

But between the plateaus the conductivity is non zero and as such it is METAL.

$\rho_{xx} \neq 0$ and σ_{xx} and $\sigma_{yy} \neq 0$.

SUMMARY OF EXP. FACTS ABOUT QHE.

1. When we vary the external field
 - we can turn system ... ins \leftrightarrow metal \leftrightarrow ins. \leftrightarrow metal ...
 - each insulating state corresponds to a plateau of p_{xy} and the step between 2 neighbouring plateaus is metallic.
 - transport for the metallic states is NOT universal; and changes from sample to sample.
 - The insulating state is UNIVERSAL.
 $p_{xx} = 0$ and $\sigma_{xx} = 0$ and σ_{xy} is quantized.

Why IQH state is insulator?

LANDAU LEVELS.

Let's solve this problem quantum mechanically. In 2D for a charge neutral particle $q=0$, the Schrödinger eqn:

$$i \frac{\partial \Psi(x,y)}{\partial t} = \left[\frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^2 \right] \Psi(x,y)$$

$$\text{with } H = \frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^2$$

Now let's include charge and its connection to E and B . We will use a minimal coupling which tells that we change momentum $\vec{p} \rightarrow \vec{p} + \frac{e\vec{A}}{c}$ $A = \text{vector potential}$

$$\text{and } i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rightarrow i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{e}{c} \phi \quad \phi = \text{electric potential}$$

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$$\left(\frac{i\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{e}{c}\phi \right) \Psi(x, y) = \left[\frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{e}{c} A_x \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial y} - \frac{e}{c} A_y \right)^2 \right] \Psi(x, y)$$

$$\frac{i\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(x, y) = \left\{ \left[\frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{e}{c} A_x \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial y} - \frac{e}{c} A_y \right)^2 \right] + \frac{e}{c} \phi \right\} \Psi(x, y)$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{e}{c} A_x \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2m} \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial y} - \frac{e}{c} A_y \right)^2 + \frac{e}{c} \phi$$

Since $E=0$, we can set $\phi=0 \Rightarrow$

$$\nabla \times A = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} A_y - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} A_x = B$$

from $E=0$ we know that A is not observable

i.e. for the fixed B field, A is not uniquely defined. $\nabla \times A = B \Rightarrow A' = A + \nabla \times f$

is also the vector potential for the same field

$\nabla \times A' = B$. We can choose any A as long as $\nabla \times A = \nabla \times A'$. Now lets apply the magnetic field along z : B_z . Then we can use 2 options:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} A_y = B \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} A_x = 0 \end{cases} \xrightarrow{\nabla \times A = B} \begin{cases} A_x = 0 & A_y = Bx \\ A_x = -\frac{By}{z} & A_y = \frac{Bx}{z} \end{cases} \text{(the Landau gage)}$$

Energy spectrum

$$H = \left[\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(-i \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2m} \left(-i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial y} - \frac{e}{c} Bx \right)^2 \right] \quad 7$$

Static Sch. equation: $H\Psi = E\Psi$

in the Landau gauge $[P_y, H] = 0$ therefore we can find common eigenstates for P_y and H .

$$\Psi(x, y) = f(x) e^{-ik_y y}$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} f''(x) + \frac{1}{2m} \left(\hbar k_y - \frac{e}{c} Bx \right)^2 f(x) = E f(x)$$

(for P_y , the eigenvalue $\hbar k_y$), lets rewrite it:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} f''(x) + \frac{e^2 B^2}{2mc^2} \left(x - \frac{ct}{eB} k_y \right)^2 f(x) = E f(x)$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} f''(x) + \frac{k}{2} (x - x_0)^2 f(x) = E f(x)$$

where $x_0 = \frac{ct}{eB} k_y$ $k = \frac{e^2 B^2}{mc^2}$; $x_0 = \ell_c k_y$ where $\ell_c^2 = \frac{ct}{eB}$
it shows this equation looks like the harmonic oscillator:

Recall from your QM class, the solution is

$$\Psi_{n, k_y}(x, y) = \phi_n(x - x_0) e^{-ik_y y} \quad \text{with}$$

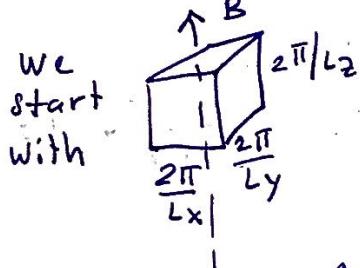
$$E_{n, k_y} = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega_c = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \sqrt{\frac{k \omega_c}{m}} = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \frac{e B t}{c m}$$

so the electrons are quantized $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ω_c

in $x-y$ and have continuous translation along z ; so the total E

$$E = E(n, k_y) + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} k_z^2 = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega_c + \frac{\hbar^2 k_z^2}{2m}$$

If we include the spin of the electron then each level will split into 2 sublevels $\pm g_e \mu_B \sigma$.
 Since the energy spectrum is dramatically affected we need to see what happens to the electronic density of states.



We start with

$\Rightarrow ? \Rightarrow k_x$ and k_y are quantized in units $\frac{2\pi}{L_x}$ and $\frac{2\pi}{L_y}$.

$$\text{Also recall } x_0 = \frac{c\hbar}{eB} k_y = \frac{2\pi R_c^2}{L_y}$$

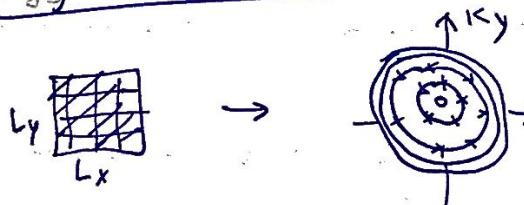
And the degeneracy of the level in 2D is:

$$D = \frac{L_x}{\Delta x_0} = \frac{L_x L_y}{2\pi R_c^2} ; \text{ The total magnetic flux through the } x-y \text{ plane is}$$

$$\Phi = H L_x L_y \text{ and the flux quantum: } \phi_0 = \frac{\hbar c}{e} \Rightarrow$$

$$D = \frac{\Phi}{\phi_0} \Rightarrow \text{the number of states} = \text{number of flux quanta in units of } \frac{\hbar c}{e} !$$

The Physical Meaning:



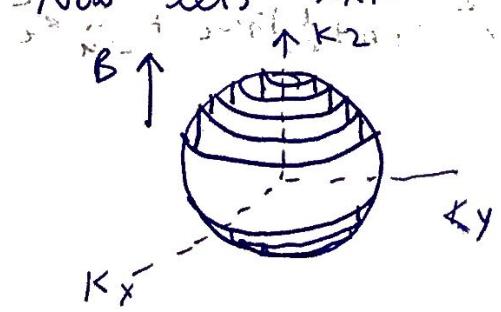
After applying the magnetic field, points distributed in the k_x - k_y area get spread out onto circles with energies concentric $\frac{\hbar w_c}{2}, \frac{3}{2}\hbar w_c$, ...

But the total number of states remain the same. To show this let's calculate the number of states per unit area per unit energy and no spin.

$$g(E) = \frac{1}{L_x L_y \cdot \hbar w_c} \cdot \frac{D}{2\pi \hbar^2}$$

= which is the same as $= g^{2D}(E)$ without magnetic field attached.

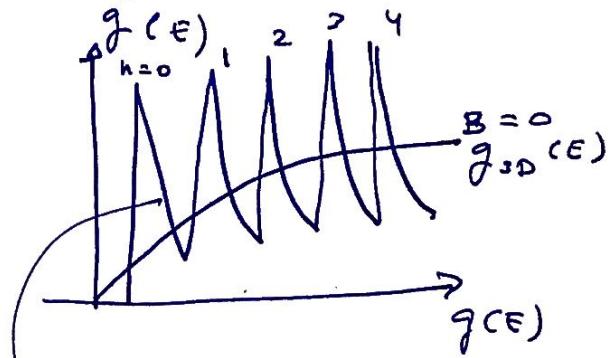
Now let's extend this to 3D:



Note k_z is still a good quantum number so we can plot $E(k_z)$ vs. k_z as bands also known as Landau subbands.

Overall for 3D we have:

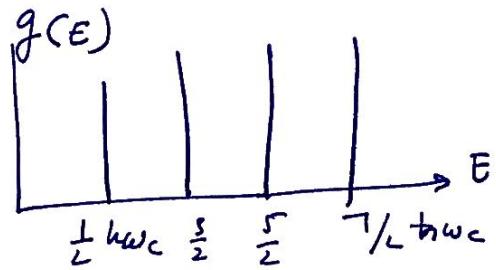
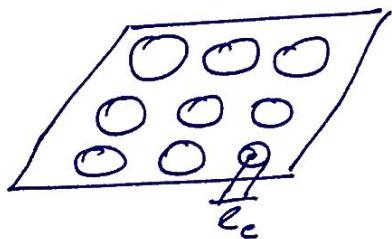
$$g_{3D}(E) = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \hbar \omega_c \sum_n [E - (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega_c]^{-1/2} \quad 9$$



1D spikes from the states on the circumference of the circles.

$$g_{1D}(E) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{1/2} (E - E_n)^{-1/2}$$

For 2D this is very interesting



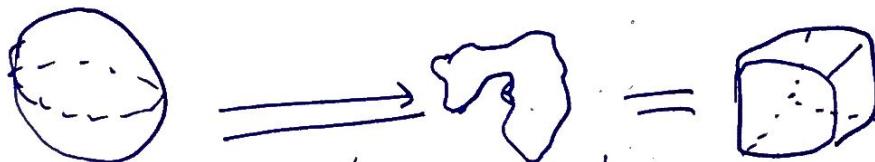
If we apply E along x-direction we going to have the famous QHE.

On the Landau levels: electrons capable into a set of cylinder where they increase their degeneracy and move on the circles with ω_c frequency. Moving electrons introduce flux through the cylinder with the flux # equal to the # of electrons in units of $\Phi_0 = \frac{\hbar c}{e}$

Topology and insulators

Topology come from 3D real space
but now moved to the Hilbert space

Def: if a manifold M_1 can be adiabatically
transformed into M_2 , their topology
is the same.



To distinguish between them we introduce
an object called index (a topo index)

the same topo object = the same
index

For 2D:

$$\chi_M = \frac{1}{2\pi} \oint K ds \quad (\text{the Euler characteristic})$$

Name	Image	Vertices V	Edges E	Faces F	Euler characteristic: $V-E+F$
Tetrahedron		4	6	4	2
Hexahedron or cube		8	12	6	2
Octahedron		6	12	8	2
Dodecahedron		20	30	12	2
Icosahedron		12	30	20	2

SEE WIKIPEDIA ON THE EULER
CHARACTERISTIC

Name	Image	Euler characteristic
Interval		1
Circle		0
Disk		1
Sphere		2
Torus (Product of two circles)		0
Double torus		-2
Triple torus		-4
Real projective plane		1
Möbius strip		0
Klein bottle		0
Two spheres (not connected) (Disjoint union of two spheres)		$2 + 2 = 4$
Three spheres (not connected) (Disjoint union of three spheres)		$2 + 2 + 2 = 6$



we locally fit the surface for to a particular curve and the $\frac{1}{R}$ is the local curvature κ . Among all the curvatures the largest and the smallest curvatures $\kappa_1 = \frac{1}{R_1}$ and $\kappa_2 = \frac{1}{R_2}$ are the principal curvatures. The gaussian curvature.

For sphere $\kappa = \frac{1}{R_1} = \frac{1}{R_2}$

$$K = \frac{1}{\kappa_1} \cdot \frac{1}{\kappa_2}$$

For a saddle point $\kappa_1 > 0$ and $\kappa_2 < 0$

$$\Rightarrow K = \kappa_1 \cdot \kappa_2 \leq 0$$

$$K = \frac{1}{R^2}$$

Th: For any well-behaved 2D surface the $\oint K dS = 2\pi \cdot \chi_M = \chi_M$ so it's quantized! Also for the surfaces with the same topology χ_M are the same.

Th: For any orientable closed surface χ_M is always an even integer.

Orientable means we can distinguish two sides of the surface. If we cannot then χ_M is ODD (e.g. a Möbius strip)

— χ_M is a topological index only when the surface has no boundaries. Otherwise, it's not quantized and not topological.

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Other topological properties:

① Topology and handles

X_M is related to the geometry of a surface (or many fold)

$X_M = 2(1-g)$, where g is the number of handles of the object.

\leftarrow Sphere $g=0$ torus $g=1$

a coffee mug = a donut. , or

3-handles up = a pretzel = a triple torus

② I'm and polyhedrons

To define χ_m we can draw a grid of polyhedra!

$$X_M = V - \underset{\text{edges}}{E} + \underset{\text{faces}}{F}$$

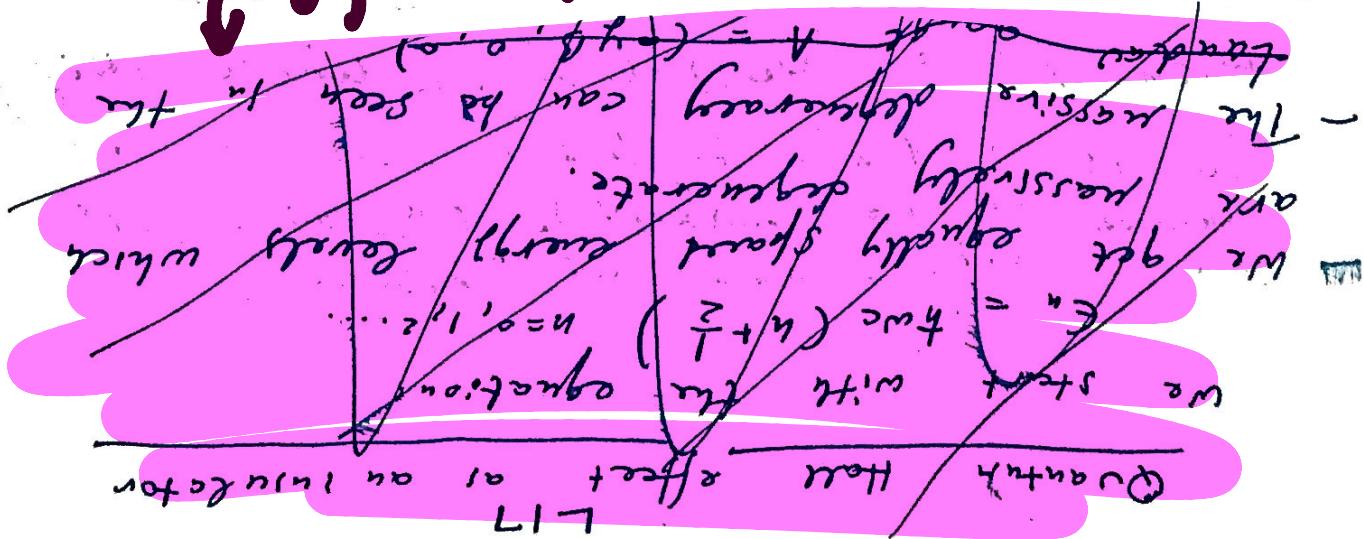
e.g. since a sphere has $X_M = 2$
we know that

③ Topology and hair vertex

$$V - E + F = e$$

If we draw a vector at each point of the surface, we get a vector field, which may have vortices. Now we define a vorticity which is an integer number n , The total vorticity $X_m = \sum n$.

ignore!



For sphere $X_M = 2 = \sum n = 2 \neq 0$
 (south and north poles)

The conclusion is, we cannot comb hair on the sphere without making the singularities (vertices).

Topological index for an insulator

The Berry curvatures and the Chern number.

for an insulator we can use the Bloch waves to define a curvature in the 2D - k space. for Bloch waves

$\psi_{n,k}(\vec{r}) = U_{n,k}(\vec{r}) e^{ik\vec{r}}$, we define the k -space curvature (Berry curvature) as

$$F_h(k) = \iint_{\text{unit cell}} |\nabla_k U_{n,k}(\vec{r})|^* \times \nabla_k U_{n,k}(\vec{r}) d\vec{r} =$$

↑ gradient ∇_k
defines the vector
in the k -space

$$= \epsilon_{ij} \iint_{\text{U.C.}} \left| \frac{\partial}{\partial k} U_{n,k}(\vec{r}) \right|^* \frac{\partial}{\partial k} U_{n,k}(\vec{r}) d\vec{r}$$

ϵ_{ij} = Levi-Civita symbol

$$\epsilon_{xx} = \epsilon_{yy} = 0$$

$$\epsilon_{xy} = -\epsilon_{yx} = 1$$

From the math p.o.v. the BERRY CURVATURE AND THE GAUSSIAN CURVATURE ARE THE SAME

The total Berry curvature is the topological index!

The topological index is defined as

$$C_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \oint_{BZ} F_n(k) d\bar{k} \equiv \text{the Chern number}$$

For each band n , we can define such a number C_n and for an insulator the total Chern #:

$$C = \sum_n C_n$$

over the filled bands

- The total chern number C , is the same as the number of chiral edge states.
e.g. if $C=0$ we have a trivial insulator without edge states $\sigma_{xx} = \sigma_{xy} = 0$.
- If $C \neq 0$ we call such an insulator a TI or the Chern insulator.
This insulator will have the edge states with $\boxed{\sigma_{xx} = 0}$ and $\boxed{\sigma_{xy} \neq 0 = C \frac{e^2}{h}}$ for the Hall conductivity.
- Let me also claim without a proof.
For a metal or an insulator, the Hall conductivity is the Berry phase curvature summed over all total occupied states. For metal we sum up over occupied (valence) and partially occupied bands (conduction):

$$\sigma_{xy} = \frac{e^2}{h} \sum_{n, \text{valence band}} \left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{BZ} d\bar{k} F_n(\bar{k}) \right] + \frac{e^2}{h} \sum_{n, \text{conduction}}$$

- Few important points. For the gaussian curvature, the total K is only quantized if the surface has no boundaries.
- For the Berry curvature is the same. if we integrate over the whole BZ we will have a quantized Chern number.
- However, if we integrate over a part of BZ the C is non integer.
- For a metal we need to integrate only over the filled states or the Fermi sea and as such there is a boundary set by the Fermi surface. As such C_0 is not quantized. That is why we have no quantized Hall conductivity for metals but we do have this for insulators.
- So by Chern # we define TI but not Topological metals.

OTHER TOPOLOGICAL INDICES.

If in addition to the C number, we demand a certain symmetry to be present e.g. time-reversal (TR) we can introduce different topo indices.

If any of these indices are non-zero, the insulator is also a TI.

This kind of insulators are also called the symmetry-protected insulators, with the common properties:

- One of the index is non-zero.
- The bulk is an insulator, but the edge is a metallic state.
- The edge state is different from a simple metal in $d-1$ dimensions. (e.g. $1/e$ of the ordinary metal)
- The edge states may have some quantization effect.
- If the symmetry is broken, the edge state disappears.

Note! if we assume no symmetry the only TI is the Chern insulator, which is defined in the even space dimensions, i.e. we can have QHE only in 2D but not in 3D.

Note: for SPTIs they can exist for both 2D & 3D if we preserve TR sym. (e.g. NO MAGNETISM)

In 1D we need a very special symmetry called the chiral symmetry to get a TI.

Q. Why TI have metallic states at the edge? | 8

Consider

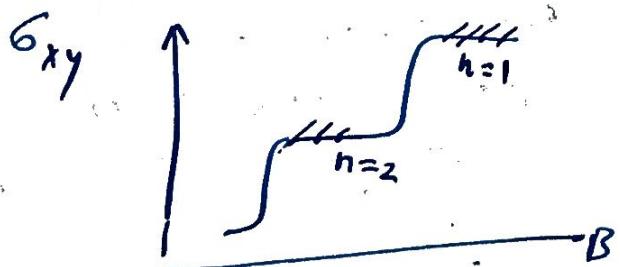
Vacuum



Vacuum is an insulator (though trivial) with $C = 0$ inside the TI ($C \neq 0$).

NB! Topology never changes in a smooth way!
We cannot deform a sphere into a torus
Similarly, we cannot transform a trivial
or a band insulator into a TI, thus
the insulating states need to be destroyed
by closing a band gap, or we get a metal.

Q. Why there is a metallic region
between two plateaus?



different plateaus have
different topological
indexes n .

So the story as above
to go from $n=1 \rightarrow n=2$
need to close a gap

to destroy the topology. \Rightarrow metal.

Q. Why the Hall conductivity is so exact
in a Chern TI?

Since the Hall conductivity is determined by topology of the wave function, it is very robust and precise.

So as long as any perturbation is not changing topology (or destroying symmetry) σ_{xy} will be the same for any sample.

In order to do this via some kind of perturbation we need to close a gap first (via doping for example) and only then we can change σ_{xy} .

So technically the error bar in σ_{xy} is 0. (well within how well we know to and e)

Q. So far you talked about non-interacting e^- . What if you turn $e-e$ interactions?

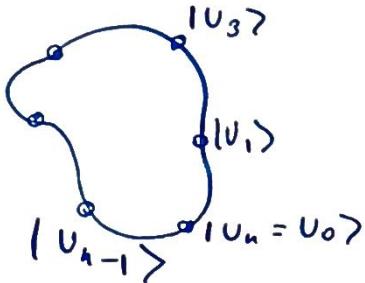
For weakly interacting electrons the same connection between topology and Hall (the Berry connection) still remains.

No proof here.

More about Berry phase

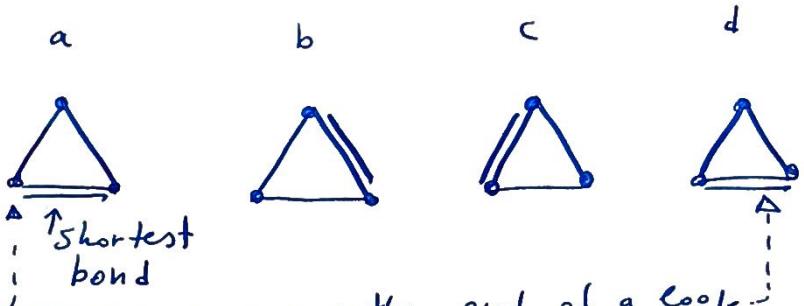
Based on
lectures by
D. Vanderbilt

BP describes phase accumulation due to a motion of some complex vector around a close loop in the complex vector space.



The BP is defined as

DISCRETE VERSION
For a specific example, let's consider a triatomic molecule.



$$\phi = -\text{Im} \ln [\langle U_0 | U_1 \rangle \langle U_1 | U_c \rangle \dots \langle U_{n-1} | U_0 \rangle]$$

----- the end of a loop -----

vector $z = |z| e^{i\phi}$ $\text{Im} \ln z = \phi$.

Consider now our triatomic molecule

$$|U_a\rangle = |U_d\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad |U_b\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ e^{2\pi i/3} \end{pmatrix} \quad |U_c\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ e^{4\pi i/3} \end{pmatrix}$$

then BP is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi &= -\text{Im} \ln [\langle U_a | U_b \rangle \langle U_b | U_c \rangle \langle U_c | U_d \rangle] = \\ &= -\text{Im} \ln \left[\left(\frac{e^{\pi i/3}}{2} \right)^3 \right] = -\pi. \end{aligned}$$

At least mathematically the BP is independent of individual phases of $|U_j\rangle$. Let's introduce a new set of N states

$$|\tilde{U}_j\rangle = e^{-i\beta_j} |U_j\rangle \quad \text{is real}$$

We can show that in this case the BP is unaffected as $e^{\pm i\beta_j}$ along the path will cancel out.

So we should say that BP is gauge invariant and as such perhaps describes some kind of Physics.

~~THE CONCEPT OF A PARALLEL TRANSPORT~~

Suppose we have a chain of states $|U_0\rangle, |U_1\rangle, \dots, |U_N\rangle$ with no spacial phase relation.

Let's define a new set of states $|\bar{U}_0\rangle, |\bar{U}_1\rangle, \dots$

Continuous formulation of BP

In this formulation we ~~parametrize~~ parametrize the path by a real variable λ such that $|U_\lambda\rangle$ traverses the path as λ evolves from 0 to 1, i.e. $|U_{\lambda=0}\rangle = |U_{\lambda=0}\rangle$ and $|U_\lambda\rangle$ is a smooth function of λ . Let's try to derive an expression similar to the discrete version.

$$\ln \langle U_A | U_{A+d\lambda} \rangle = \ln \langle U_A | (|U_A\rangle + d\lambda \frac{d|U\rangle}{d\lambda} + \dots) \rangle \\ = \ln (1 + d\lambda \langle U_A | \partial_\lambda U_A \rangle + \dots) = d\lambda \langle U_A | \partial_\lambda U_A \rangle + \dots$$

Then BP is: $\boxed{\phi = -\text{Im } \oint \langle U_A | \partial_\lambda U_A \rangle d\lambda}$

$$\text{Re } \langle U_A | \partial_\lambda U_A \rangle = \langle U_A | \partial_\lambda U_A \rangle + \langle \partial_\lambda U_A | U_A \rangle = \partial_\lambda \langle U_A | U_A \rangle = 0$$

$\downarrow \langle U_A | \partial_\lambda U_A \rangle$ is pure imaginary and.

$$\boxed{\phi = \oint \underbrace{\langle U_A | i\partial_\lambda U_A \rangle d\lambda}_{\text{Berry connection or Berry potential}}}$$

$$A(\lambda) = \langle U_A | i\partial_\lambda U_A \rangle = -\text{Im} \langle U_A | \partial_\lambda U_A \rangle$$

In terms of $A(\lambda)$:

$$\phi = \oint A(\lambda) d\lambda$$

Q: How Berry connection changes under gauge transformation?

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$$|\tilde{U}_\lambda\rangle = e^{-i\beta(\lambda)} |U_\lambda\rangle$$

↑
real function

$$\bar{A}(\lambda) = \langle \tilde{U}_\lambda | i\partial_\lambda | \tilde{U}_\lambda \rangle = \langle U_\lambda | e^{i\beta(\lambda)} i\partial_\lambda e^{-i\beta(\lambda)} | U_\lambda \rangle =$$

$$= \langle U_\lambda | i\partial_\lambda | U_\lambda \rangle + \beta'(\lambda)$$

So BP potential is not gauge invariant! and it changes as:

$$\tilde{A} = A + \frac{d\beta}{d\lambda}. \text{ But what about BP?}$$

$$|\tilde{U}_{\lambda=1}\rangle = |\tilde{U}_{\lambda=0}\rangle \Rightarrow \beta_{\lambda=1} = \beta_{\lambda=0} + 2\pi m, m=0, 1, \dots$$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{d\beta}{d\lambda} d\lambda = \beta_{\lambda=1} - \beta_{\lambda=0} = 2\pi m \text{ so for}$$

$$\tilde{\phi} = \phi \tilde{A}(\lambda) d\lambda = \underbrace{\phi \left(A + \frac{d\beta}{d\lambda} \right) d\lambda}_{=\phi} = \phi + 2\pi m$$

So BP is still gauge invariant!
You can think of BP as the phase which still left over after moving in the loop.

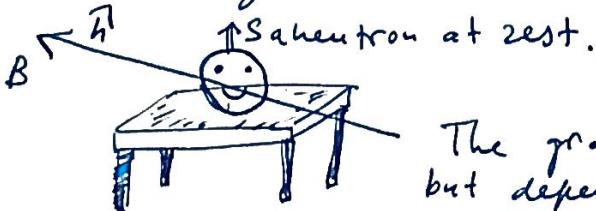
EXAMPLE

Let me illustrate this by considering a real physical problem.

Imagine we have an eigen vector which is a ground state of some H_λ . We can smoothly evolve the

ground state by changing λ , which in our case can

be magnetic B or electric fields E



$$H = -\gamma B \cdot S = -\left(\frac{\gamma \hbar B}{2}\right) \hat{h} \cdot \hat{S}$$

The ground state is independent of $|B|$ but depends on S operator.

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So we can write instead $|U_n\rangle$ to emphasize that $|U\rangle$ depends on the direction of the magnetic field and not on its magnitude $|B|$.

Q: What's the BP of $|U_n\rangle$ as \hat{n} carried around a loop in the magnetic field.

Let's try a simple discrete version:

① $\hat{n} \parallel \hat{z} \rightarrow$ rotate to $\hat{x} \rightarrow$ to $\hat{y} \rightarrow$ back to \hat{z} .



So we are tracing one octant of the sphere.

$$\phi = -Im \ln [\langle \uparrow z | \uparrow x \rangle \langle \uparrow x | \uparrow y \rangle \langle \uparrow y | \uparrow z \rangle]$$

What we remember from QM 1 is that a spinor in arbitrary direction \hat{n} is given by:

$$|\uparrow n\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta/2 \\ \sin \theta/2 e^{i\varphi} \end{pmatrix} \quad \leftarrow$$

$$|\uparrow x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad |\uparrow y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} \quad |\uparrow z\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$



Ignoring the normalization factors:

$$\phi = -Im \ln [(1)(1+i)(1)] = -\pi/4$$

Exercise: Show that for N spinors taking N equally spaced values from 0 to 2π gives!

$$a) \quad \phi = -N \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{\sin^2(\theta/2) \sin(2\pi/N)}{\cos^2(\theta/2) + \sin^2(\theta/2) \cos(2\pi/N)} \right]$$

b) find $\phi(\theta)$ for $N \rightarrow \infty$

c) for $\theta = 45^\circ$ compute numerically $N = 3, 4, 6, 12..$
and compare to $N \rightarrow \infty$

THE END

Topological Quantum Mechanics

- Q. Why some insulators are interesting
 e.g. QHE and the other are trivial
 e.g. a piece of plastic?

Consider, QHE: $\Phi \propto n\hbar$. So quantum is important.

- ② Transport is a motion of charge. In QM charge is related to a conjugate variable of charge.

i.e. momentum p is conjugate of ψ .

Invariant under $\phi \rightarrow \phi + \delta\phi$ implies the conservation of charge. So perhaps phase of the wave function is the key. Focus on phase. First, is phase of any importance?

A: relative yes, absolute no. \Rightarrow i.e.
 $|\psi\rangle \rightarrow |\psi'\rangle = e^{i\phi} |\psi\rangle \Rightarrow \langle \psi | A | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi' | A | \psi' \rangle$

However, $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\psi_1\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\psi_2\rangle \Rightarrow$
 $\langle \psi | P | \psi \rangle = \frac{\langle \psi_1 | P | \psi_1 \rangle + \langle \psi_2 | P | \psi_2 \rangle}{\sqrt{2} \sin \psi_1} + \frac{\langle \psi_1 | P | \psi_2 \rangle + \text{conj}}{\sqrt{2} \sin \psi_2}$

The physical meaning of $\xleftarrow{\text{is in the interference}}$

$$|\psi'\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\psi_1\rangle + \frac{e^{i\phi}}{\sqrt{2}} |\psi_2\rangle \Rightarrow$$

$$\langle \psi' | P | \psi' \rangle = \frac{\langle \psi_1 | P | \psi_1 \rangle + \langle \psi_2 | P | \psi_2 \rangle}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{e^{i\phi} \langle \psi_1 | P | \psi_2 \rangle + e^{-i\phi} \langle \psi_2 | P | \psi_1 \rangle}{\sqrt{2}} =$$

$$= \dots + \cos \phi \frac{\langle \psi_1 | P | \psi_2 \rangle + \langle \psi_2 | P | \psi_1 \rangle}{2}$$

\uparrow this can be measured!
 AND VERY IMPORTANT

Common use of the phase is in condensed matter.

Phase of Bloch waves: Consider a particle moving in a periodic potential.

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(r) \right] \psi(r) = E \psi(r) \quad \text{where } V(\vec{r}) = V(\vec{r} + \vec{a})$$

The eigenfunctions of this equations:

$$\psi_{n,k} = u_{n,k}(r) e^{ikr} \leftarrow \text{Bloch wave functions}$$

Now what is the phase of the Bloch wave:

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As usual in QM, doesn't matter, as it's invariant under global shift in the momentum space.

$\Psi_{n,\kappa}(r) = u_{n,\kappa}(r) e^{i\kappa r}$ $\Psi'_{n,\kappa}(r) = e^{i\varphi} u_{n,\kappa}(r) e^{i\kappa r}$
is the same.

What's interesting it is also invariant under local shift:

$\Psi'_{n,F}(r) = e^{i\varphi(r)} u_{n,\kappa}(r) e^{i\kappa r}$. Which means
that there is no mixing of waves with different κ .
as time goes on and on.

Let's focus on local phase symmetry:

Lets briefly review the concept of gauge in real space and then we will switch to the momentum space.

$$i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(r, t) = -\frac{\nabla^2}{2m} \Psi(r, t) + V(r) \Psi(r, t) \quad \leftarrow \Psi' = e^{i\varphi} \Psi(r)$$

$\Psi'(r)$ will follow exactly the same equation as $\Psi(r)$.
And we say the system is invariant under global phase shift, or global phase symmetry.

Remember, each symmetry implies the conservation of something.

e.g. $x \rightarrow x + a$ implies $-i\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ conserved.
so here for U(1) phase symmetry we expect
 $-i\frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi}$ is conserved.

Now we switch to the Local U(1) phase symmetry.

i.e. $\varphi(r)$ $\Psi(r, t) = e^{i\varphi(r, t)} \Psi(r, t)$
is Sch. eq. still invariant? NO.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} e^{i\varphi} \neq e^{i\varphi} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \quad \text{and} \quad D e^{i\varphi} \neq e^{i\varphi} D.$$

But can we make the equation invariant?
Yes if we introduce some "charge particle" trick.

Let's recall the problem of motion of a charged particle e . We change its $\vec{p} \rightarrow \vec{p} + e\vec{A}/c$ and change $i\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rightarrow i\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - e\vec{\Phi}$

$$(i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - e\vec{\Phi}) \psi(r, t) = [\frac{1}{2m} (-i\hbar \nabla - \frac{e}{c} \vec{A})^2] \psi(r, t) + V(r) \psi(r, t)$$

$$(i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - e\vec{\Phi} + \hbar \frac{\partial \phi(r, t)}{\partial t}) \psi'(r, t) = \frac{1}{2m} (-i\hbar \nabla - \frac{e}{c} A' - \hbar \nabla \phi(r, t)) \psi'(r, t) + V(r) \psi(r, t) \text{ if we define } \vec{\Phi}' = \vec{\Phi} - \frac{e}{c} \frac{\hbar}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \phi(r, t)}{\partial r} \text{ and } A' = A + \frac{e}{c} \frac{\hbar}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \phi(r, t)}{\partial r}$$

$$\text{we get: } (i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - e\vec{\Phi}') \psi'(r, t) = \frac{1}{2m} (-i\hbar \nabla - \frac{e}{c} A')^2 \psi(r, t) + V(r) \psi(r, t)$$

The change of $\boxed{\begin{array}{l} \vec{\Phi}' \rightarrow \vec{\Phi} - \frac{e}{c} \frac{\hbar}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \phi(r, t)}{\partial r} \\ A' \rightarrow A + \frac{e}{c} \frac{\hbar}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \phi(r, t)}{\partial r} \end{array}}$ and

is called the gauge transformation, and it keeps physics \vec{E} and \vec{B} the same. More popular way to write it is to absorb $\frac{e\hbar}{c}$ into $\vec{\Phi}$:

$$\boxed{\vec{\Phi} \rightarrow \vec{\Phi}' = \vec{\Phi} - \frac{e}{c} \frac{\hbar}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} \quad A \rightarrow A' = A + \nabla \phi(r, t) \quad \psi(r, t) \rightarrow \psi' = \psi(r, t) e^{i \frac{e}{c\hbar} \phi(r, t)}}$$

The local phase invariance is related to the gauge field.

Berry connection and Berry curvature

Let's introduce the Berry connection

$$\hat{A}_n = -i \langle u_{n, \kappa} | \nabla_{\kappa} | u_{n, \kappa} \rangle$$

As you can immediately see this is a gauge field in the momentum space, very similar to the vector potential.

$|u_{n, \kappa}\rangle \rightarrow e^{i\Phi_n(\kappa)} |u_{n, \kappa}\rangle$ to make the Bloch f. invariant we need to do this: to be local phase

$$A_n \rightarrow A'_n = -i \langle u_{n, \kappa} | e^{-i\Phi_n(\kappa)} \nabla_{\kappa} e^{i\Phi_n(\kappa)} | u_{n, \kappa} \rangle =$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 |U_{n,k}\rangle &\rightarrow e^{i\varphi_n(k)} |U_{n,k}\rangle \\
 A_n \rightarrow A_n' &= -i \langle U_{n,k} | e^{-i\varphi_n(k)} \nabla_k e^{i\varphi_n(k)} | U_{n,k} \rangle \\
 &= \underbrace{i \langle U_{n,k} | \nabla_k | U_{n,k} \rangle}_{A_n} + \nabla_k \varphi_n(k) \langle U_{n,k} | U_{n,k} \rangle = \\
 &= A_n + \nabla_k \varphi_n(k)
 \end{aligned}$$

So the Berry connection changes like a gauge field in the k -space.

BERRY CURVATURE

Recall A is not observable as its value depends on the choice of a gauge.

The quantity with a physical meaning is a curl of it, which is a magnetic field B .

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_n = \nabla_k \times A_n &= -i \epsilon_{ijk} \partial_{k,i} \langle U_{n,k} | \partial_{k,i} | U_{n,k} \rangle = -i \epsilon_{ij} \underbrace{\langle \partial_{k,i} U_{n,k} |}_{\partial_{ij} U_{n,k}}. \text{ This value of } F_n \text{ is known as} \\
 &\text{BERRY CURVATURE which is observable.}
 \end{aligned}$$

POSITION OPERATOR IN LATTICE.

Without lattice: $p = -i\hbar\partial$ and $r = i\hbar\partial_p$

What about lattice?

One can prove that for the Bloch waves

$$r = i\partial_k \delta_{n,m} - A_{m,n}$$

where m and n are the band indices and

$$A_{m,n} = -i \langle U_{m,k} | \nabla_k | U_{n,k} \rangle.$$

Note if $m=n$ it turns into the Berry connection.

If separation between bands large we can zoom in to one band and ignore many other.

$$\left\{
 \begin{array}{l}
 r = i\partial_k - A_n, \text{ comparing to the momentum} \\
 p = -i\partial_r - \frac{e}{\hbar} A \text{ of a charge } e
 \end{array}
 \right.$$

For Bloch waves the conjugate require the gauge field. Berry connection is such a field.

Berry curvature and the Hall effect.

see Haldane, Phys. Rev. Lett. 93, 206602 (2004)

In the presence of E and B

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = F = eE + ev \times B$$

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \nabla_p \epsilon(p) + \frac{dp}{dt} \times [\nabla_p \times A(p)]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dr}{dt} = \nabla_p \epsilon(p) + (eE + ev \times B) \times [\nabla_p \times A(p)]$$

next I will replace p by k $p = \hbar k$

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{1}{\hbar} \{ \nabla_k \epsilon(k) + (eE + ev \times B) \times [\nabla_k \times A(k)] \}$$

Recall $\nabla_k \times A(k) = F(k) \hat{e}_z$ where \hat{e}_z is along z .

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{1}{\hbar} \{ \nabla_k \epsilon(k) + (eE + ev \times B) \times [\nabla_k \times A(k)] \} = \frac{1}{\hbar} [\nabla_k \epsilon(k) + (eEx \hat{e}_z + ev \times B \times \hat{e}_z) F(k)]$$

If all electrons have the same velocity: $j = ev = \frac{eNv}{A}$
 But in reality for particles with different k velocities
 are different so $Nv = \sum_{h,k} v_{h,k}$

all occupied states.

$$j = \frac{e}{A} \sum_{h,k} v_{h,k} = \frac{e}{A} \sum_{h,k} \frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{e}{A} \sum_{h,k} \frac{1}{\hbar} [\nabla_k \epsilon_n(k) + (eEx \hat{e}_z + ev \times B \times \hat{e}_z) F_n(k)]$$

The Hall effect comes from $eEx \hat{e}_z$ as it's the only term which generates $\perp E$. And we can ignore all other terms, when we compute Hall conductivity. For Hall current $\perp E$

$$j_H = \frac{e}{A} \sum_{h,k} \frac{1}{\hbar} eEx \hat{e}_z F_n(k) = e^2 Ex \hat{e}_z \frac{1}{A} \sum_h F_h(k)$$

$$\rho_{xy} = \frac{j_H}{E} = \frac{e^2}{\hbar} \frac{1}{A} \sum_{h,k} F_h(k)$$

For completely filled bands

$$\sum_{h,k} F_h(k) = A \int_{BZ} \frac{d^2k}{(2\pi)^2} F_h(k) \rightarrow$$

$$G_{xy} = \frac{j_H}{E} = \frac{e^2}{\hbar} \frac{1}{A} \sum_{h,k} F_h(k) = \frac{e^2}{\hbar} \left[\frac{1}{A} \int_{BZ} \frac{d^2k}{(2\pi)^2} F_h(k) \right]$$

Notice this is when all bands are fully occupied!

Dirac quantization, Gauss-Bonnet theory

From math point of view B , Berry curvature F_B and the Gauss curvature K are the same!

So for simplicity we will use B to calculate

— $\oint B \cdot dS$ and show it's quantized.

$$\oint B \cdot dS = \oint B_n dS = \frac{e\hbar}{2qc} \cdot n, \quad n = \text{integer magnetic charge}$$

— $\oint k dS = 2\pi \chi_M$, χ_M is even integer, known as the Euler characteristic, which measures the topological nature of the manifold M

— $\oint_{B_2} F dk = 2\pi c$ quantized, c is an integer called as the TKNN invariant or the Chern number

MAGNETIC MONOPOLE AND DIRAC quantization

(see M. Nakahara, geometry, topology and physics, TOP)

For electric charge : $q_e = \oint_M E \cdot dS$, $\nabla \cdot E = \rho$

For magnetic field : $q_m = \oint_M B \cdot dS$, $q_m = 0$ b/c $\nabla \cdot B = 0$

But if there is a magnetic monopole!

$$B = q_m \frac{er}{r^2} = q_m \frac{r}{r^3} = q_m \frac{(x, y, z)}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$$

$\nabla \times A = B$. The value of A is not unique, but they are connected by a gauge transformation.

$$A = q_m \frac{(y, -x, 0)}{r(r-z)} \Rightarrow \nabla \times A = q_m \nabla \times \frac{(y, -x, 0)}{r(r-z)} = \\ q_m (\partial_x \hat{y}, \partial_z \hat{x}) \times \frac{(y, -x, 0)}{r(r-z)} = \dots = q_m \frac{(x, y, z)}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$$

And it's singular at $z=0$.

In fact we can prove that no matter what there will be always one singular point.

The point is A is NON singular but non observable all observables are singular.

Moreover for the gauge $A = q_m \frac{(-y, x, 0)}{r(r+z)}$ has a pole $z=-r$ (south pole)

$$\begin{cases} A_N = q_m \frac{(-y, x, 0)}{r(r+z)} \\ A_S = q_m \frac{(y, -x, 0)}{(y, -x, 0)/r(r-z)} \end{cases}$$

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At the equator the vector potential is multivalued
 i.e. $A_N = A_S + 2q_m \frac{(-y, x, 0)}{(r-z)(r+z)}$; at $z=0$ $A_N = A_S + 2q_m \frac{(-y, x, 0)}{rc}$

$$\phi \rightarrow \bar{\phi}' = \phi - \frac{2A(r, t)}{c^2 t} = A_N + 2q_m D_p$$

$$A \rightarrow A' = A + D A(r, t), \psi(r, t) \rightarrow \psi'(r, t) = \psi(r, t) e^{i \frac{q_e}{ch} A}$$

Here $A(r, t) = 2q_m \varphi$

$$\psi_N(r, t) = \psi_S(r, t) e^{i \frac{q_e}{ch} A} = \psi_S e^{i \frac{2q_m q_e}{ch} \varphi}$$

also we know φ and $\varphi + 2\pi$ are the same point

$$\psi: \psi_N(r, t) = \psi_S(r, t) e^{i \frac{2q_m q_e}{ch} \varphi}$$

$$\text{and } \varphi + 2\pi: \psi_N(r, t) = \psi_S(r, t) e^{i \frac{2q_m q_e}{ch} (\varphi + 2\pi)}$$

to have both equations valid

$$\psi_N = \psi_S e^{i n(\varphi + 2\pi)} = \psi_S e^{i n \varphi} \quad \boxed{n = \frac{ch}{2q_e}}$$

Why charge is quantized?

Nobody knows.

Going back to the Hall conductivity

$$\sigma_{xy} = \frac{e^2}{h} \left[\sum_{n, \text{ fully occupied}} \int_{BZ} d^2 k \frac{f_n(k)}{2\pi} \right] = \frac{e^2}{h} n$$

END OF COURSE FOR 2018 FALL