

Contents

1	Introduction	1
2	Superconductivity	3
2.1	Ginzburg-Landau Theory of Superconductivity	4
2.1.1	Spontaneous Symmetry Breaking and Order Parameter	4
2.1.2	Landau and Ginzburg-Landau Theory	5
2.1.3	Superconducting Length Scales	8
2.2	Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer Theory	10
2.2.1	BCS Hamiltonian	10
2.2.2	Multiband BCS Mean Field Theory	11
2.3	Dynamical Mean-Field Theory (DMFT)	14
2.3.1	Green's Function Formalism	14
2.3.2	Self Energy	16
2.3.3	Nambu-Gorkov GF	16
2.3.4	DMFT	16
2.4	Quantum Metric	17
2.4.1	Quantum Metric and superfluid weight	17
3	Dressed Graphene Model	19
3.1	Lattice Structure	19
3.2	Dressed Graphene Model	22
4	Results	25
4.1	Gaps	25
4.2	Superfluid Weight	25
4.3	Breakdown of SC with finite momentum	25
4.4	Coherence length etc.	25
A	Dressed Graphene Hamiltonian in Reciprocal Space	27
B	Notes on the Computational Implementation	31
	Bibliography	33

Not cited	39
Listings	41
List of Figures	41
List of Tables	41
List of Abbreviations	41
List of Symbols	41

Todo list

What to put in introduction?	1
What I am doing: calculating length scales, why is that important? . . .	2
What is influenced by length scales? See Niklas 2024 npj	3
Work over paragraph	8
Explanation supercurrent: introduce complex OP with phase, rewrite equation	8
Explanation superfluid weight	8
Competing energy scales via interaction strength: higher U gives more tightly bound pairs	8
Critical surface of a superconductor	8
Better introduction	9
work over paragraph	9
Write better: connection of the section above and this theory	9
Depairing current from FMP	9
Where does this formula come from?	10
D_S	10
What else can be done with the FMP method?	10
Connection of the FMP method to linear response techniques	10
Better introduction	10
Work over paragraph	10
Other pairing interactions can be taken, gives explanations for a lot of different SCs	11
Some relevance of the repulsive Hubbard model	12
There are some more specific papers to the specific mechanisms (and also some more mechanism), could cite these here and say some more things	12
Order of operators? -> also in all other equations!	12
there are other combinations, talk about that	12
deviations with small deltas	12
Look at that Hamiltonian again, is that correct and can I write it better? .	13
How to include finite momentum, rewrite equations	13
Get the remaining terms here	13
Write indices everywhere without comma	14

gap equation	14
SC current in BCS	14
Introduction DMFT, citing what has been achieved with it so far, what is the basic idea etc.	14
Give an introduction	14
Work over the paragraph	14
Slim down to relevant information	14
Show GFs can be related to observables	15
Introduce Greens functions instead of correlation functions	15
What is the eta there -> need to define it in retarded GF	16
single-particle Matsubara GF	16
Short introduction to diagrams	16
Self energy	16
Dyson equation	16
More general introduction into NG GFs, how they look like, what they describe etc.	16
Sources for these?	16
How to get quasiparticle weight?	16
See what is specific to this paper, see that I can derive that myself	17
Dont get it here	17
Write up notes about quantum metric and superfluid weight	17
Write introduction to the model and what is done in this chapter	19
First BZ vs this Gamma centered one	20
Write the Hamiltonian with orbital indices	23
Explain how to get the length scales in the different ways	25
Clean up this section	27
Correct exp expressions	28
Example for a vector product	28
Show that!	28
Data availability	31
What software for what?	31

Introduction

1

In 1894, Albert Michelson remarked that “it seems probable that most of the grand underlying principles have been firmly established”¹ [1, p. 159].

What to put in introduction?

At the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century, cooling technology made great progress. Liquifying gases, were able to reach temperatures as low as 4 K (the boiling point of Helium). Using that, SC was discovered in mercury in 1911 by Heike Onnes [2]. Superconductivity describes the phenomenon of the electrical resistance of a material suddenly dropping to zero below a critical temperature T_C . Discovery of Meissner effect, perfect expulsion of external magnetic fields in 1933 [3]. This started almost half a century of intensive theoretical research, which culminated in John Bardeen, Leon Cooper and J. Robert Schrieffer developing the microscopic theory now known as BCS theory [4]. 1986 and 1987: discovery of superconductivity with very high T_C found in cuprates [5, 6]. Cuprate superconductors are made up of layers of copper oxide and charge reservoirs in between. The specific charge reservoir layers determine the properties of the SC and varying them lead to a rich zoo of materials with high T_C [7].

Largest commercial application to date is in magnetic resonance imaging, a medical technique using strong magnetic fields and field gradients [8]. Enabled due to the fact, that SCs can carry much stronger currents and thus generate much higher magnetic field strength. Technical applications in research are much wider, ranging from strong superconducting magnets in the LHC [9] and other particle accelerators over detectors of single photons in astrophysics [10] to extremely sensitive measurement devices for magnetic fields [11] and voltages [12] based on the Josephson effect [13].

Since the first discovery of SC in cuprates, there has been a lot of work to develop superconductors with higher transition temperatures. One interesting development is in twisted multilayer systems, first realized as twisted bilayer Graphene [14]. In comparison to the complex crystal structure of e.g. the

¹Variations of this quote have been attributed to Lord Kelvin, although the poetry having it said by someone, whose experiment would eventually lead to the development of special relativity is undeniable.

Cuprates, twisted multilayer systems have a very simple structure and can be tuned very easily: the angle of twist between the layers can be easily accessed experimentally. The defining feature of these systems are flat electronic bands due to folding of the Brilluoin zone. Superconductivity in these systems is enhanced due to the fact that in the flat bands, interactions between the electrons are very strongly enhanced. Thus these systems are a very interesting playground to study strongly correlation effects in general and superconductivity in particular.

What I am doing:
calculating length
scales, why is that
important?

Superconductivity

2

Superconductivity is an example of an emergent phenomenon: the Schrödinger equation describing all interactions between electrons gives no indication that there exists parameters for which the electrons condense into phase coherent pairs. In this chapter we review theoretical concepts needed for understanding superconductivity and introduce the tools used to study superconductivity in the later chapters. There are many textbooks covering these topics which can be referenced for a more detailed treatment, such as refs. [15–19].

Macroscopically, the superconducting state can be described by a spontaneous breaking of a $U(1)$ phase rotation symmetry that is associated with an order parameter. Theory of spontaneous symmetry breaking and associated phase transitions is Ginzburg-Landau theory discussed in section 2.1, following refs. [15, 20]. Ginzburg-Landau theory introduces two length scales: the coherence length ξ_0 describing the length scale of amplitude variations of the order parameter and the London penetration depth λ_L , which is connected to energy cost of phase variations of the order parameter. The interplay of these length scales determine To this end, section 2.1 introduces a theoretical framework based on Cooper pairs with finite momentum [21] that will be used in later chapters to calculate these length scales from microscopic theories.

What is influenced by length scales?
See Niklas 2024 npj

Ginzburg Landau theory is a macroscopic theory, but it can be connected to microscopic theories: if a theory finds an expression for the order parameter describing the symmetry breakdown, it can be connected to quantities expressed by Ginzburg-Landau theory, such as the superconducting current. One such theory to describe superconductivity from a microscopic perspective is BCS (Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer) theory in section 2.2. A method to treat local interactions non-perturbatively is DMFT (Dynamical Mean Field Theory). Section 2.3 briefly introduces the Greens function method to treat many-body problems and outlines the DMFT self-consistency cycle.

2.1 Ginzburg-Landau Theory of Superconductivity

2.1.1 Spontaneous Symmetry Breaking and Order Parameter

Symmetries are a powerful concept in physics. Noethers theorem [22] connects the symmetries of physical theories to associated conservation laws. An interesting facet of symmetries in physical theories is the fact, that a ground state of a system must not necessarily obey the same symmetries of its Hamiltonian, i.e. for a symmetry operation that is described by a unitary operator U , the Hamiltonian commutes with U (which results in expectation values of the Hamiltonian being invariant under the symmetry operation) but the states $|\phi\rangle$ and $U|\phi\rangle$ are different. This phenomenon is called SSB (Spontaneous Symmetry Breaking) and the state $|\phi\rangle$ is said to be symmetry-broken.

One consequence of this fact is that for a given symmetry-broken state $|\phi\rangle$, there exists multiple states that can be reached by repeatedly applying U to $|\phi\rangle$ and all have the same energy. To differentiate the symmetry-broken states an operator can be defined that has all these equivalent states as eigenvectors with different eigenvalues and zero expectation value for symmetric states. This is the microscopic notion of an order parameter.

The original notion of an order parameter was motivated from macroscopic observables that can then be related to the microscopic order parameter operator introduced above. Macroscopically we characterize the symmetry breaking by an order parameter Ψ which generally can be a complex-valued vector that becomes non-zero below the transition temperature T_C

$$|\Psi| = \begin{cases} 0 & T > T_C \\ |\Psi_0| > 0 & T < T_C \end{cases} . \quad (2.1)$$

In the example of a ferromagnet, a finite magnetization of a material is associated with a finite expectation value for the z-component of the spin operator, $m_z = \langle \hat{S}_z \rangle$. The order parameter describes the ‘degree of order’ [23]. Similarly to a magnetically ordered state, the SC state is characterized by an order parameter. The theory of phase transitions in superconductors was developed by Ginzburg and Landau [24]. Landau theory and conversely Ginzburg-Landau theory is not concerned with the microscopic properties of the order parameter, but describes the changes in thermodynamic properties of matter with the development of an order parameter.

2.1.2 Landau and Ginzburg-Landau Theory

The free energy is a thermodynamic quantity:

$$F = E - TS \quad (2.2)$$

with the energy of the system E , temperature T and entropy S . A system in thermodynamic equilibrium has minimal free energy. The fundamental idea underlying Landau theory is to write the free energy $F[\Psi]$ as function of the order parameter Ψ and expand it as a polynomial:

$$F_L[\Psi] = \int d^d x f_L[\Psi] , \quad (2.3)$$

where

$$f_L[\Psi] = \frac{r}{2}\Psi^2 + \frac{u}{4}\Psi^4 \quad (2.4)$$

is called the free energy density. Provided the parameters r and u are greater than 0, there is a minimum of $f_L[\Psi]$ that lies at $\Psi = 0$. Landau theory assumes that at the phase transition temperature T_C the parameter r changes sign, so it can be written in first order as

$$r = a(T - T_C) . \quad (2.5)$$

Figure 2.1a shows the free energy as a function of a single-component, real order parameter Ψ and it illustrates the essence of Landau theory: there are two cases for the minima of the free energy f

$$\Psi = \begin{cases} 0 & T \geq T_C \\ \pm \sqrt{\frac{a(T_C - T)}{u}} & T < T_C \end{cases} , \quad (2.6)$$

so there is a for $T < T_C$ there are two minima corresponding to ground states with broken symmetry. When the order parameter can be calculated from some microscopic theory, the critical temperature T_C can be extracted from the behavior of the order parameter near T_C via a linear fit of

$$|\Psi|^2 \propto T_C - T . \quad (2.7)$$

Generalizing this from a one to an n -component order parameters is straightforward. One example is the complex or two component order parameter that will become important for

$$\Psi = \Psi_1 + i\Psi_2 = |\Psi|e^{i\phi} . \quad (2.8)$$

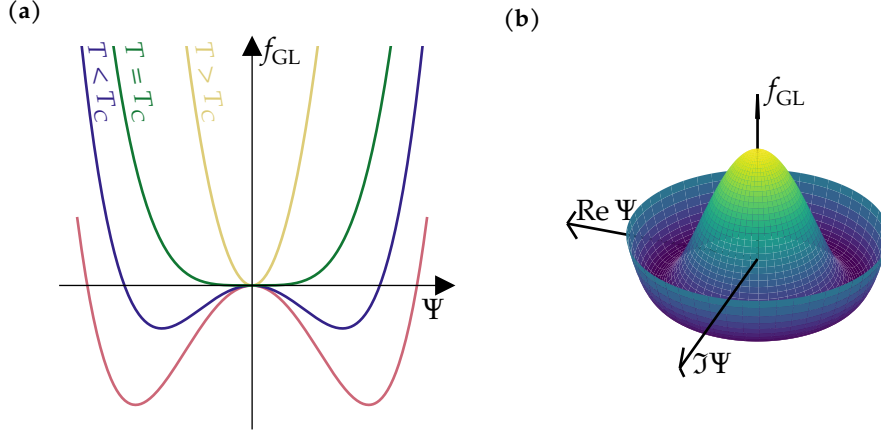


Figure 2.1: (a) Landau free energy and (b) Mexican hat potential

The Landau free energy then takes the form

$$f_L[\Psi] = r\Psi^*\Psi + \frac{u}{2}(\Psi^*\Psi)^2 = r|\Psi|^2 + \frac{u}{2}|\Psi|^4 \quad (2.9)$$

with again

$$r = a(T_C - T) . \quad (2.10)$$

Instead of the two minima, the free energy here is rotational symmetry, because it is independent of the phase of the order parameter:

$$f_L[\Psi] = f_L[e^{i\phi}\Psi] . \quad (2.11)$$

This gives the so called ‘Mexican hat’ potential shown in fig. 2.1b. In this potential, the order parameter can be rotated continuously from one symmetry-broken state to another.

In 1950, Ginzburg and Landau published their theory of superconductivity, based on Landau’s theory of phase transitions [24]. Where Landau theory as described above has an uniform order parameters, Ginzburg-Landau theory accounts for it being inhomogeneous, so an order parameter with spatially varying amplitude or direction. This in turn leads to the order parameter developing a fixed phase, which is the underlying mechanism of the superflow in superconductors.

Ginzburg-Landau theory can be developed for a general n -component order parameter, but in superfluids and superconductors the order parameter is complex, i.e. two-component. The Ginzburg-Landau free energy for a complex order parameter is

$$f_{GL}[\Psi, \Delta\Psi] = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*} |\Delta\Psi|^2 + r|\Psi|^2 + \frac{u}{2} |\Psi|^4, \quad (2.12)$$

where the gradient term $\Delta\Psi$ is added in comparison to the Landau free energy. The prefactor $\frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*}$ is chosen to illustrate the interpretation of the Ginzburg-Landau free energy as the energy of a condensate of bosons, where the gradient term $|\Delta\Psi|^2$ is the kinetic energy. The free energy in eq. (2.12) is sensitive to a twist of the phase of the order parameter. Substituting the expression $\Psi = |\Psi|e^{i\phi}$, the gradient term reads

$$\Delta\Psi = (\Delta|\Psi| + i\Delta\phi|\Psi|)e^{i\phi}. \quad (2.13)$$

With that, eq. (2.12) becomes

$$f_{GL} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*} |\Psi|^2 (\Delta\phi)^2 + \left[\frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*} (\Delta|\Psi|)^2 + r|\Psi|^2 + \frac{u}{2} |\Psi|^4 \right]. \quad (2.14)$$

Now the contributions of phase and amplitude variations are split up: the first term describes energy cost of variations in the phase of the order parameter and the second term describes energy cost of variations in the magnitude of the order parameter. The dominating fluctuation is determined by the ratio of the factors $\frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*}$ and r , which has the dimension Length^2 , from which define the ξ

$$\xi = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*|r|}} = \xi_0 \left(1 - \frac{T}{T_C}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \quad (2.15)$$

where we define the ξ_0 $\xi_0 = \xi(T=0) = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar^2}{2maT_C}}$. On length scales above ξ , the physics is entirely controlled by the phase degrees of freedom, i.e.

$$f_{GL} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*} |\Psi|^2 (\Delta\phi)^2 + \text{const.} \quad (2.16)$$

Take case of frozen amplitude fluctuations, i.e. $\Delta|\Psi(\mathbf{r})| = 0$. Stationary point condition for eq. (2.14) gives:

$$|\Psi| = |\Psi_0| \sqrt{1 - \xi^2 |\Delta\phi(\mathbf{r})|^2} \quad (2.17)$$

This shows that the superconducting order gets suppressed and eventually destroyed by short-ranged (below ξ) phase fluctuations. By introducing a particular form of phase fluctuations $\phi = \mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{r}$ into a microscopic model, it is possible to probe this breakdown of superconductivity and thus gain insight into the nature of superconductivity, in particular this gives access to ξ .

Superconductors: charged superfluids, coupling to electromagnetic fields. Free energy with minimal coupling to an electromagnetic field:

$$f_{\text{GL}}[\Psi, \mathbf{A}] = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*} \left| \left(\Delta - \frac{ie^*}{\hbar} \mathbf{A} \right) \Psi \right|^2 + r|\Psi|^2 + \frac{u}{2} |\Psi|^4 \quad (2.18)$$

Describes really two intertwined Ginzburg-Landau theories for Ψ and \mathbf{A} respectively. This mean there are two length scales, the coherence length ξ governing amplitude fluctuations of Ψ and the London penetration depth λ_L , which determines the distance magnetic fields penetrate into the superconductor. Can get the current density from the stationary point condition of the free energy for the vector potential \mathbf{A} :

$$\frac{\delta f_{\text{GL}}}{\delta \mathbf{A}} = 0 = -\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \mathbf{B} \quad (2.19)$$

with the supercurrent density

$$\mathbf{j} = -i \frac{e\hbar}{m^*} \left(\Psi^* \Delta \Psi - \Psi \Delta \Psi^* - \frac{4e^2}{m^*} |\Psi|^2 \mathbf{A} \right). \quad (2.20)$$

Explanation supercurrent: introduce complex OP with phase, rewrite equation

Explanation superfluid weight

Competing energy scales via interaction strength: higher U gives more tightly bound pairs

Critical surface of a superconductor

2.1.3 Superconducting Length Scales

One of the challenges in achieving high-temperature superconductivity is the fact, that the two intrinsic energy scales of superconductors i.e. the pairing amplitude and the phase coherence often compete. Can be seen in the phenomenon of BCS-BEC crossover physics [25].

[26]

These two energy scales are equivalently defined via the coherence length ξ_0 and the London penetration depth introduced in section 2.1.2, so having access to these scales from microscopic models and ab initio approaches is very important in the search for high T_C -superconductors.

Work over p

Witt et al. introduced a framework for doing exactly that [21]. As already discussed in the context of eq. (2.17), strong phase fluctuations destroy superconducting order.

In most materials: Cooper pairs do not carry finite center-of-mass momentum. In presence of e.g. external fields or magnetism: SC states with FMP might arise [27–29]

Theory/procedure in the paper: enforce FMP states via constraints on pair-center-of-mass momentum \mathbf{q} , access characteristic length scales ξ_0, λ_L through analysis of the momentum and temperature-dependent OP. FF-type pairing with Cooper pairs carrying finite momentum:

$$\Psi_{\mathbf{q}}(\mathbf{r}) = |\Psi_{\mathbf{q}}|e^{i\mathbf{q}\cdot\mathbf{r}} \quad (2.21)$$

Then the free energy density eq. (2.12) is

$$f_{GL}[\Psi_{\mathbf{q}}] = r|\Psi_{\mathbf{q}}|^2 + \frac{u}{2}|\Psi_{\mathbf{q}}|^4 + \frac{\hbar^2 q^2}{2m^*}|\Psi_{\mathbf{q}}|^2 \quad (2.22)$$

Stationary point of the system:

$$\frac{\delta f_{GL}}{\delta \Psi_{\mathbf{q}}^*} = 2\Psi_{\mathbf{q}} [r(1 - \xi^2 q^2) + u|\Psi_{\mathbf{q}}|^2] = 0 \quad (2.23)$$

which results in the \mathbf{q} -dependence of the OP

$$|\Psi_{\mathbf{q}}|^2 = |\Psi_0|^2 (1 - \xi(T)^2 q^2) \quad (2.24)$$

For some value, SC order breaks down, $\psi_{\mathbf{q}_c} = 0$, because the kinetic energy from phase modulation exceeds the gain in energy from pairing. In GL theory: $q_c = \xi(T)^{-1}$. The temperature dependence of the OP and extracted $\xi(T)$ gives access to the coherence length via eq. (2.15)

$$\xi(T) = \xi_0 \left(1 - \frac{T}{T_C}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \quad (2.25)$$

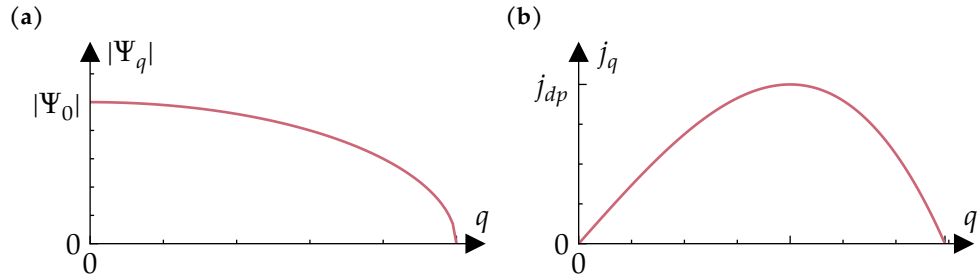
The Cooper pair

The momentum of the Cooper pairs entails a charge supercurrent $\mathbf{j}_{\mathbf{q}}$. For small q

The depairing current is an upper boundary for the maximal current that can flow through a material, also called the critical current \mathbf{j}_c . The value of

Write better: connection of the section above and this theory

Depairing current from FMP

Figure 2.2: *a and b*

j_c is strongly dependent on the geometry of the sample [30, 31], so j_{dp} is not necessarily experimentally available, but it can be used to calculate the London penetration depth:

$$\lambda_L \quad (2.26)$$

Where does this formula come from?

D_S

What else can be done with the FMP method?

Connection of the FMP method to linear response techniques

Better introduction

Work over paragraph

2.2 Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer Theory

It took nearly 50 years after the first discovery of superconductivity in mercury by Heike Kamerlingh Onnes in 1911 [2] for the first microscopic description of this phenomenon to be published in 1957 by John Bardeen, Leon Cooper and J. Robert Schrieffer [4].

The BCS (Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer) description of superconductivity is based on the fact that the Fermi sea is unstable towards development of bound pairs under arbitrarily small attraction [32]. The origin of the attractive interaction $V_{\mathbf{k},\mathbf{k}'}$, which Bardeen, Cooper and Schrieffer identified as a retarded electron-phonon interaction [4].

There exist many textbooks tackling BCS theory from different angles, such as refs. [15, 16]. This section gives an introduction to the relevant physics of BCS theory as originally proposed, then derives the

2.2.1 BCS Hamiltonian

BCS-Hamiltonian:

$$H_{\text{BCS}} = \sum_{\mathbf{k}\sigma} \epsilon_{\mathbf{k}\sigma} c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}^\dagger c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma} + \sum_{\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}'} V_{\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}'} c_{\mathbf{k}\uparrow}^\dagger c_{-\mathbf{k}\downarrow}^\dagger c_{-\mathbf{k}'\downarrow} c_{\mathbf{k}'\uparrow} \quad (2.27)$$

This Hamiltonian can be solved exactly using a mean field approach, because it involves an interaction at zero momentum and thus infinite range. Order parameter in mean field BCS theory is the pairing amplitude

$$\Delta = -\frac{U}{N_{\mathbf{k}}} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \langle c_{-\mathbf{k}\downarrow} c_{\mathbf{k}\uparrow} \rangle = -U \langle c_{-\mathbf{r}=0\downarrow} c_{\mathbf{r}=0\uparrow} \rangle \simeq U \Psi. \quad (2.28)$$

More about mean field theory in section 2.2.2

A finite Δ corresponds to the pairing introduced above: there is a finite expectation value for a coherent creation/annihilation of a pair of electrons with opposite momentum and spin. A finite Δ also introduces a band gap into the spectrum. BCS theory brings multiple aspects together: concept of paired electrons with the pairing amplitude being the order parameter in SC, an explanation for the attractive interaction overcoming Coulomb repulsion and a model Hamiltonian that very elegantly captures the essential physics.

It is very successful in two ways: on the one hand it could quantitatively predict effects in the SCs known at the time, for example the Hebel-Slichter peak that was measured in 1957 [33, 34] and the band gap measured by Giaever in 1960 [35]. On the other hand, it established electronic pairing, i.e. the picture of a quantum-mechanical wave function with a defined phase as already described by Fritz London in 1937 [36] as the microscopic mechanism behind SC. This picture still holds today even for high T_C /unconventional superconductors, so SCs that cannot be described by BCS theory [37].

Other pairing interactions can be taken, gives explanations for a lot of different SCs

2.2.2 Multiband BCS Mean Field Theory

The Hubbard model is the simplest model for interacting electron systems. It goes back to works by Hubbard [38], Kanamori [39] and Gutzwiller [40].

$$H_{\text{int}} = U \sum_i c_{i,\uparrow}^\dagger c_{i,\downarrow}^\dagger c_{i,\downarrow} c_{i,\uparrow} \quad (2.29)$$

where $U > 0$.

Besides

[41]

This simple Hubbard model can be extended in a multitude of ways to model a variety of physical system. In this work: extension to multiple orbitals (i.e. atoms in the unit cell for lattice systems) and an attractive interaction, i.e. a negative U . Physical motivation for taking a negative- U Hubbard model: electrons can experience a local attraction interaction, for example through electrons coupling with phononic degrees of freedom or with electronic excitations that can be described as bosons [42]. The form of the interaction term is then:

$$H_{\text{int}} = - \sum_{i,\alpha} U_{\alpha} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \quad (2.30)$$

where α counts orbitals and the minus sign in front is taken so that $U > 0$ now corresponds to an attractive interaction (this is purely convention).

There are a multitude of ways to derive a mean field description of a given interacting Hamiltonian. Very rigorous in path integral formulations as saddle points, given for example in ref. [15]. The review follows [43]. A more intuitive way based on ref. [17] discussed here looks at the operators and which one are small.

Look at interaction term eq. (2.30). Mean-field approximation (here specifically for superconductivity i.e. pairing): operators do not deviate much from their average value, i.e. the deviation operators

$$d_{i,\alpha} = c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} - \langle c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} \rangle \quad (2.31)$$

$$e_{i,\alpha} = c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} - \langle c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \rangle \quad (2.32)$$

are small (don't contribute much to expectation values and correlation functions), so that in the interaction part of the Hamiltonian

$$H_{\text{int}} = - \sum_{i,\alpha} U_{\alpha} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \quad (2.33)$$

$$= - \sum_{i,\alpha} U_{\alpha} (d_{i,\alpha}^{\dagger} + \langle c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} \rangle) (e_{i,\alpha} + \langle c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \rangle) \quad (2.34)$$

$$= - \sum_{i,\alpha} U_{\alpha} (d_{i,\alpha} e_{i,\alpha} + d_{i,\alpha} \langle c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \rangle + e_{i,\alpha} \langle c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} \rangle \quad (2.35)$$

$$+ \langle c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} \rangle \langle c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \rangle) \quad (2.36)$$

There are some more specific papers to the specific mechanisms (and also some more mechanism), could cite these here and say some more things

Order of operators? -> also in all other equations!

there are other combinations, talk about that

deviations with small deltas

Some relevant the repulsive Hubbard model

the first term is quadratic in the deviation and can be neglected. Thus arrive at the approximation

$$H_{\text{int}} \approx - \sum_{i,\alpha} U_{\alpha} \left(d_{i,\alpha} \langle c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \rangle + e_{i,\alpha} \langle c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} \rangle + \langle c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} \rangle \langle c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \rangle \right) \quad (2.37)$$

$$= - \sum_{i,\alpha} U_{\alpha} (c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} \langle c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \rangle + c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \langle c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} \rangle \quad (2.38)$$

$$- \langle c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} \rangle \langle c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \rangle) \quad (2.39)$$

$$= \sum_{i,\alpha} (\Delta_{i,\alpha} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow}^{\dagger} + \Delta_{i,\alpha}^* c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} - \frac{|\Delta_{i,\alpha}|^2}{U_{\alpha}}) \quad (2.40)$$

with the expectation value

$$\Delta_{i,\alpha} = -U_{\alpha} \langle c_{i,\alpha,\downarrow} c_{i,\alpha,\uparrow} \rangle \quad (2.41)$$

which is called the superconducting gap. Using the Fourier transform

$$c_{i\alpha\sigma} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}_{i\alpha}} c_{\mathbf{k}\alpha\sigma} \quad (2.42)$$

can write

$$H_{\text{MF}} = \sum_{\mathbf{k}\alpha\beta\sigma} [H_{0,\sigma}(\mathbf{k})]_{\alpha\beta} c_{\mathbf{k}\alpha\sigma}^{\dagger} c_{\mathbf{k}\beta\sigma} - \mu \sum_{\mathbf{k}\alpha\sigma} n_{\mathbf{k}\alpha\sigma} + \sum_{\alpha,\mathbf{k}} (\Delta_{\alpha} c_{\mathbf{k}\alpha\uparrow}^{\dagger} c_{-\mathbf{k}\alpha\downarrow}^{\dagger} + \Delta_{\alpha}^* c_{-\mathbf{k}\alpha\downarrow} c_{\mathbf{k}\alpha\uparrow}) \quad (2.43)$$

Look at that Hamiltonian again, is that correct and can I write it better?

To include finite momentum, take the ansatz of a Fulde-Ferrel (FF) type pairing [44]:

$$\Delta \quad (2.44)$$

How to include finite momentum, rewrite equations

The Hamiltonian in eq. (2.43) can be written as

$$H_{\text{MF}} = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} H_{\text{BdG}}(\mathbf{k}) \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{k}} \quad (2.45)$$

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{k}} = (c_{\mathbf{k}1\uparrow} \quad c_{\mathbf{k}2\uparrow} \quad \dots \quad c_{\mathbf{k}n_{\text{orb}}\uparrow} \quad c_{-\mathbf{k}1\downarrow}^{\dagger} \quad c_{-\mathbf{k}2\downarrow}^{\dagger} \quad \dots \quad c_{-\mathbf{k}n_{\text{orb}}\downarrow}^{\dagger})^T \quad (2.46)$$

Get the remaining terms here

with the so-called Bogoliubov-de-Gennes matrix

$$H_{\text{BdG}}(\mathbf{k}) = \begin{pmatrix} H_{0,\uparrow}(\mathbf{k}) - \mu & \Delta \\ \Delta^{\dagger} & -H_{0,\downarrow}(-\mathbf{k}) + \mu \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.47)$$

with $H_{0,\sigma}$ being the F.T. of the kinetic term and $\Delta = \text{diag}(\Delta_1, \Delta_2, \dots, \Delta_{n_{\text{orb}}})$. Problem is now reduced to diagonalization of the BdG matrix. Write

$$H_{\text{BdG}} = U_{\mathbf{k}} \epsilon_{\mathbf{k}} U_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} \quad (2.48)$$

and

$$H_{\text{MF}} = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \gamma_{\mathbf{k}} \epsilon_{\mathbf{k}} \gamma_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} \quad (2.49)$$

with quasi-particle operators

$$\gamma_{\mathbf{k}} = U_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} c_{\mathbf{k}} \quad (2.50)$$

Write indices everywhere without comma

Using the gap equation

$$\Delta_{\alpha} = -U \quad (2.51)$$

gap equation

the order parameter can be determined self-consistently, i.e. starting from an initial value, the BdG matrix needs to be set up, diagonalized and then used to determine Δ_{α} again, until a converged value is found.

SC current in BCS

2.3 Dynamical Mean-Field Theory (DMFT)

Introduction DMFT, citing what has been achieved with it so far, what is the basic idea etc.

Give an introduction

Work over the paragraph

Slim down to relevant information

2.3.1 Green's Function Formalism

Green's functions: method to encode influence of many-body effects on propagation of particles in a system.

Following [17]

Have different kinds of Green's functions, for example the retarded Green's function (here with the k for lattice systems):

$$G^R(\mathbf{k}, \sigma, \sigma', t) = -i\Theta(t - t') \langle \{c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}(t), c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma'}^{\dagger}(0)\} \rangle \quad (2.52)$$

They give the amplitude of a particle inserted at momentum \mathbf{k}' at time t' to propagate to position \mathbf{k} at time t . Define Fourier-transform:

$$G^R(\mathbf{k}, \sigma, \sigma', \omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt G^R(\mathbf{k}, \sigma, \sigma', t) \quad (2.53)$$

Can define the spectral function from this:

$$A(\mathbf{k}\sigma, \omega) = -2\Im G^R(\mathbf{k}\sigma, \omega) \quad (2.54)$$

Looking at the diagonal elements of G^R here. The spectral function can be thought of as the energy resolution of a particle with energy ω . This mean, for non-interacting systems, the spectral function is a delta-function around the single-particle energies:

$$A_0(\mathbf{k}\sigma, \omega) = 2\pi\delta(\omega - \epsilon_{\mathbf{k}\sigma}) \quad (2.55)$$

For interacting systems this is not true, but A can still be peaked.

A mathematical trick to calculate GFs in praxis is to introduce the imaginary time variable τ

$$t \rightarrow -i\tau \quad (2.56)$$

where τ is real and has the dimension time. This enables the simultaneous expansion of exponential $e^{-\beta H}$ coming from the thermodynamic average and e^{-iHt} coming from the time evolution of operators. Define Matsubara GF $C_{AB}(\tau, 0)$:

$$C_{AB}(\tau, 0) = -\langle T_\tau(A(\tau)B(0)) \rangle \quad (2.57)$$

with time-ordering operator in imaginary time:

$$T_\tau(A(\tau)B(\tau')) = \Theta(\tau - \tau')A(\tau)B(\tau') \pm \Theta(\tau' - \tau)B(\tau')A(\tau) \quad (2.58)$$

so that operators with later 'times' go to the left.

Can prove from properties of Matsubara GF, that they are only defined for

$$-\beta < \tau < \beta \quad (2.59)$$

Due to this, the Fourier transform of the Matsubara GF is defined on discrete values:

$$C_{AB}(i\omega_n) = \int_0^\beta d\tau \quad (2.60)$$

with fermionic/bosonic Matsubara frequencies

$$\omega_n = \begin{cases} \frac{2n\pi}{\beta} & \text{for bosons} \\ \frac{(2n+1)\pi}{\beta} & \text{for fermions} \end{cases} \quad (2.61)$$

It turns out that Matsubara GFs and retarded GFs can be generated from a common function $C_{AB}(z)$ that is defined on the entire complex plane except for the real axis. So we can get the retarded GF $C_{AB}^R(\omega)$ by analytic continuation:

$$C_{AB}^R(\omega) = C_{AB}(i\omega_n \rightarrow \omega + i\eta) \quad (2.62)$$

Show GFs can be related to observables

Introduce Greens functions instead of correlation functions

So in particular the extrapolation of the Matsubara GF to zero is proportional to the density of states at the chemical potential. Gapped: density is zero (Matsubara GF goes to 0), metal: density is finite (Matsubara GF goes to finite value).

What is the
-> need to
in retarded

single-particle Matsubara GF

Short introduction to diagrams

Self energy

Dyson equation

2.3.2 Self Energy

Dyson equation:

$$G_{\sigma}(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n) = \frac{G_{\sigma}^0(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n)}{1 - G_{\sigma}^0(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n)\Sigma_{\sigma}(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n)} = \frac{1}{i\omega_n - \xi_{\mathbf{k} - \Sigma_{\sigma}(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n)}} \quad (2.63)$$

2.3.3 Nambu-Gorkov GF

More general introduction into NG GFs, how they look like, what they describe etc.

Introduction following [15, ch. 14.7]

Order parameter can be chosen as the anomalous GF:

$$\Psi = F^{\text{loc}}(\tau = 0^-) \quad (2.64)$$

or the superconducting gap

$$\Delta = Z\Sigma^{\text{AN}} \quad (2.65)$$

that can be calculated from the anomalous self-energy Σ^{AN} and quasiparticle weight Z

Sources for these?

How to get quasiparticle weight?

2.3.4 DMFT

Following [45].

Most general non-interacting electronic Hamiltonian in second quantization:

$$H_0 = \sum_{i,j,\sigma} \quad (2.66)$$

with lattice coordinates i, j and spin σ .

One particle Green's function (many-body object, coming from the Hubbard model):

$$G(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n) = \frac{1}{i\omega_n + \mu - \epsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \Sigma(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n)} \quad (2.67)$$

with the self energy $\Sigma(i\omega_n)$ coming from the solution of the effect on-site problem:

The Dyson equation

$$G(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n) = (G_0(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n) - \Sigma(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n))^{-1} \quad (2.68)$$

relates the non-interacting Greens function $G_0(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n)$ and the fully-interacting Greens function $G(\mathbf{k}, i\omega_n)$ (inversion of a matrix!).

2.4 Quantum Metric

First formulated in [46]

Following Cheng - a pedagogical Introduction

Parameter dependent Hamiltonian $\{H(\lambda)\}$, smooth dependence on parameter $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots) \in \mathcal{M}$ (base manifold)

Hamiltonian acts on parametrized Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}(\lambda)$

Eigenenergies $E_n(\lambda)$, eigenstates $|\phi_n(\lambda)\rangle$

System state $|\psi(\lambda)\rangle$ is linear combination of $|\phi_n(\lambda)\rangle$ at every point in \mathcal{M}

Infinitesimal variation of the parameter $d\lambda$:

See what is specific to this paper, see that I can derive that myself

Dont get it here

$$ds^2 = \|\psi(\lambda + d\lambda) - \psi(\lambda)\|^2 = \langle \delta\psi | \delta\psi \rangle = \langle \partial_\mu \psi | \partial_\nu \psi \rangle d\lambda^\mu d\lambda^\nu = (\gamma_{\mu\nu} + i\sigma_{\mu\nu}) d\lambda^\mu d\lambda^\nu \quad (2.69)$$

Last part is splitting up into real and imaginary part

2.4.1 Quantum Metric and superfluid weight

[47]

Write up notes about quantum metric and superfluid weight

Dressed Graphene Model

3

Write introduction to the model and what is done in this chapter

3.1 Lattice Structure

Structure of honeycomb lattice following [48].

Monolayer graphene forms a honeycomb lattice, which is a hexagonal Bravais lattice with a two atom basis.

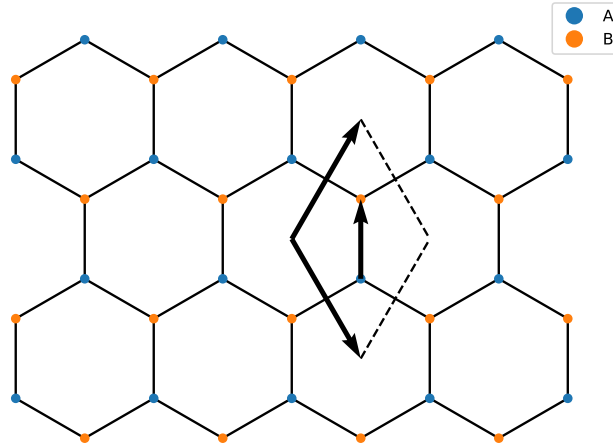


Figure 3.1: Graphene lattice structure

Primitive lattice vectors of the hexagonal lattice:

$$\mathbf{a}_1 = \frac{a}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.1)$$

$$\mathbf{a}_2 = \frac{a}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -\sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.2)$$

with lattice constant $a \approx 2.46 \text{ \AA}$ (distance between unit cells). Have

$$a = \sqrt{3}a_0 \quad (3.3)$$

with the nearest-neighbour distance a_0 .

Vectors to the nearest-neighbor B_i ($i = 1, 2, 3$) atoms from atom A :

$$\delta_{AB,1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{a}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}, \delta_{AB,2} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a}{2} \\ -\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}, \delta_{AB,3} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{a}{2} \\ -\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.4)$$

Vectors to the nearest-neighbor A_i ($i = 1, 2, 3$) atoms from atom B :

$$\delta_{BA,1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -\frac{a}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}, \delta_{BA,2} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a}{2} \\ \frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}, \delta_{BA,3} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{a}{2} \\ \frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.5)$$

The vectors between the Graphene A atom and the six neighbours on the same sub lattice can be found by rotating \mathbf{a}_1 six times by $1/6 * 2\pi = \pi/3$:

$$\delta_{AA,1} = \mathbf{a}_1 = \frac{a}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} \sin(\frac{\pi}{6}) \\ \cos(\frac{\pi}{6}) \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.6)$$

$$\delta_{AA,2} = a \begin{pmatrix} \sin(\frac{3\pi}{6}) \\ \cos(\frac{3\pi}{6}) \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.7)$$

$$\delta_{AA,3} = a \begin{pmatrix} \sin(\frac{5\pi}{6}) \\ \cos(\frac{5\pi}{6}) \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.8)$$

$$\delta_{AA,4} = a \begin{pmatrix} \sin(\frac{7\pi}{6}) \\ \cos(\frac{7\pi}{6}) \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.9)$$

$$\delta_{AA,5} = a \begin{pmatrix} \sin(\frac{9\pi}{6}) \\ \cos(\frac{9\pi}{6}) \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.10)$$

$$\delta_{AA,6} = a \begin{pmatrix} \sin(\frac{11\pi}{6}) \\ \cos(\frac{11\pi}{6}) \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.11)$$

First BZ vs this
Gamma centered
one

The primitive reciprocal lattice vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2$ fulfill

$$\mathbf{a}_1 \cdot \mathbf{b}_1 = \mathbf{a}_2 \cdot \mathbf{b}_2 = 2\pi \quad (3.12)$$

$$\mathbf{a}_1 \cdot \mathbf{b}_2 = \mathbf{a}_2 \cdot \mathbf{b}_1 = 0, \quad (3.13)$$

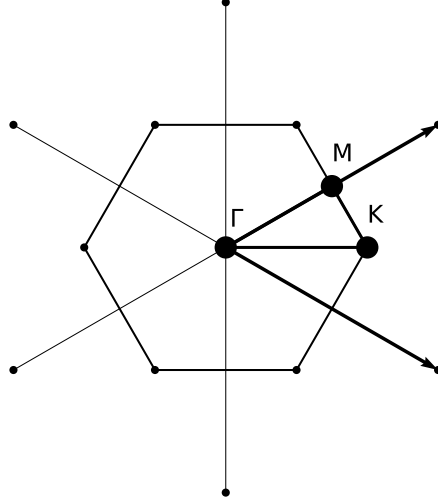


Figure 3.2: Graphene Brillouin Zone

so we have:

$$\mathbf{b}_1 = \frac{2\pi}{a} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.14)$$

$$\mathbf{b}_2 = \frac{2\pi}{a} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.15)$$

Points of high symmetry in the Brillouin zone are:

$$\Gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.16)$$

$$\mathbf{M} = \frac{\pi}{a} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.17)$$

$$\mathbf{K} = \frac{4\pi}{3a} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.18)$$

3.2 Dressed Graphene Model

Graphene lattice and a site X.

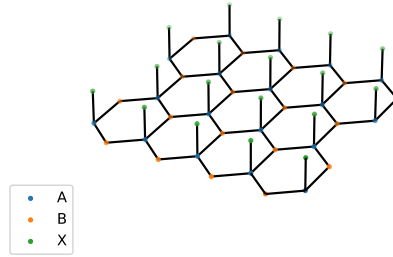


Figure 3.3: EG-X model

Without interaction:

$$H_0 = -t_X \sum_{\langle ij \rangle, \sigma} d_{i, \sigma}^\dagger d_{j, \sigma} - t_{Gr} \sum_{\langle ij \rangle, \sigma} c_{i, \sigma}^{(A), \dagger} c_{j, \sigma}^{(B)} + V \sum_{i, \sigma \sigma'} d_{i, \sigma}^\dagger c_{i, \sigma'}^{(A)} + \text{h.c.} \quad (3.19)$$

with:

- d operators on the X atom
- $c^{(\epsilon)}$ operators on the graphene site ($\epsilon = A, B$)
- t_X NN hopping for X
- t_{Gr} NN hopping of Gr
- V hybridization between X and Graphene B sites

We can also introduce an onsite Hubbard interaction:

$$H_{\text{int}} = U_X \sum_i d_{i, \uparrow}^\dagger d_{i, \downarrow}^\dagger d_{i, \downarrow} d_{i, \uparrow} + U_{Gr} \sum_{i, \epsilon=A, B} c_{i, \uparrow}^{(\epsilon), \dagger} c_{i, \downarrow}^{(\epsilon), \dagger} c_{i, \downarrow}^\epsilon c_{i, \uparrow}^\epsilon \quad (3.20)$$

Define sublattice index

$$\alpha = 1, 2, 3 \quad (3.21)$$

with $1 \equiv \text{Gr}_1, 2 \equiv \text{Gr}_2, 3 \equiv \text{X}$. Then we can write the non-interacting term as

$$H_0 = - \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle, \alpha, \beta, \sigma} [\mathbf{t}]_{i\alpha, j\beta} c_{i\alpha}^\dagger c_{j\beta} \quad (3.22)$$

with the matrix

$$\mathbf{t} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & t_{\text{Gr}} & 0 \\ t_{\text{Gr}} & 0 & -V\delta_{ij} \\ 0 & -V\delta_{ij} & t_{\text{X}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.23)$$

Add chemical potential:

$$-\mu \sum_{i\alpha\sigma} n_{i\alpha\sigma} \quad (3.24)$$

Also write the interaction part with α (with changed signs compared to Niklas, to keep in line with papers about the attractive Hubbard model):

$$H_{\text{int}} = - \sum_{i\alpha} U_\alpha c_{i\alpha\uparrow}^\dagger c_{i\alpha\downarrow}^\dagger c_{i\alpha\downarrow} c_{i\alpha\uparrow} \quad (3.25)$$

$$H_0 = \sum_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma, \sigma'} \begin{pmatrix} c_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^{A, \dagger} & c_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^{B, \dagger} & d_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^\dagger \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & f_{\text{Gr}} & V \\ f_{\text{Gr}}^* & 0 & 0 \\ V & 0 & f_{\text{X}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^A \\ c_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^B \\ d_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.26)$$

The band structure for the non-interacting EG-X model is easily obtained by diagonalising the matrix in eq. (3.26). This was done in fig. 3.4.

Values used for calculation:

- $a_0 = 1$
- $t_{\text{Gr}} = 1$
- $t_{\text{X}} = 0.01$

V is the control parameter. A range from $V = 0.1$ to $V = 2$ can be mapped onto materials in experiment.

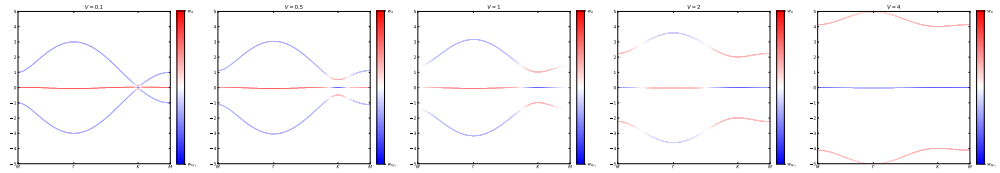


Figure 3.4: Bands of the non-interacting EG-X model. All the bands are spin-degenerate.

Parameter sweeps using [49].

4.1 Gaps

4.2 Superfluid Weight

4.3 Breakdown of SC with finite momentum

4.4 Coherence length etc.

Specifically: take

$$\xi(T) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}|\mathbf{Q}|} \quad (4.1)$$

with \mathbf{Q} such that

$$\left| \frac{\psi_{\mathbf{Q}}(T)}{\psi_0(T)} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (4.2)$$

Explain how to get the length scales in the different ways

Dressed Graphene Hamiltonian in Reciprocal Space

A

Clean up this section

In this chapter, the model Hamiltonian from section 3.2

$$H_0 = -t_X \sum_{\langle ij \rangle, \sigma} d_{i, \sigma}^\dagger d_{j, \sigma} - t_{Gr} \sum_{\langle ij \rangle, \sigma} c_{i, \sigma}^{(A), \dagger} c_{j, \sigma}^{(B)} + V \sum_{i, \sigma} d_{i, \sigma}^\dagger c_{i, \sigma}^{(A)} + \text{h.c.} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

will be treated to obtain the electronic band structure. The first step is to write out the sums over nearest neighbors $\langle i, j \rangle$ explicitly, writing $\delta_X, \delta_\epsilon$ ($\epsilon = A, B$) for the vectors to the nearest neighbors of the X atoms and Graphene A, B sites. Doing the calculation for example of the X atoms:

$$-t_X \sum_{\langle ij \rangle, \sigma} (d_{i, \sigma}^\dagger d_{j, \sigma} + d_{j, \sigma}^\dagger d_{i, \sigma}) = -\frac{t_X}{2} \sum_{i, \sigma} \sum_{\delta_X} d_{i, \sigma}^\dagger d_{i+\delta_X, \sigma} - \frac{t_X}{2} \sum_{j, \sigma} \sum_{\delta_X} d_{j, \sigma}^\dagger d_{j+\delta_X, \sigma} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

$$= -t_X \sum_{i, \sigma} \sum_{\delta_X} d_{i, \sigma}^\dagger d_{i+\delta_X, \sigma} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

The factor $1/2$ in eq. (A.2) is to account for double counting when going to the sum over all lattice sites i . By relabeling $j \rightarrow i$ in the second sum, the two sum are the same and eq. (A.3) is obtained. Using now the discrete Fourier transform

$$c_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}_i} c_{\mathbf{k}}, \quad c_i^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} e^{-i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}_i} c_{\mathbf{k}}^\dagger \quad (\text{A.4})$$

with the completeness relation

$$\sum_i e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}_i} e^{-i\mathbf{k}'\mathbf{r}_i} = N \delta_{\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}'}, \quad (\text{A.5})$$

eq. (A.3) reads:

$$-t_X \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i,\sigma} \sum_{\delta_X} d_{i,\sigma}^\dagger d_{i+\delta_X,\sigma} = -t_X \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i,\sigma} \sum_{\mathbf{k},\mathbf{k}',\delta_X} (e^{-i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}_i} d_{\mathbf{k},\sigma}^\dagger) (e^{i\mathbf{k}'\mathbf{r}_i} e^{i\mathbf{k}'\delta_X} d_{\mathbf{k}',\sigma}) \quad (\text{A.6})$$

$$= -t_X \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{k},\mathbf{k}',\delta_X,\sigma} d_{\mathbf{k},\sigma}^\dagger d_{\mathbf{k}',\sigma} e^{i\mathbf{k}'\delta_X} \sum_i e^{-i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}_i} e^{i\mathbf{k}'\mathbf{r}_i} \quad (\text{A.7})$$

$$= -t_X \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{k},\mathbf{k}',\sigma} d_{\mathbf{k},\sigma}^\dagger d_{\mathbf{k}',\sigma} \sum_{\delta_X} e^{i\mathbf{k}'\delta_X} (N \delta_{\mathbf{k},\mathbf{k}'}) \quad (\text{A.8})$$

$$= -t_X \sum_{\mathbf{k},\sigma} d_{\mathbf{k},\sigma}^\dagger d_{\mathbf{k},\sigma} \sum_{\delta_X} e^{i\mathbf{k}\delta_X}. \quad (\text{A.9})$$

This part is now diagonal in \mathbf{k} space. The nearest neighbours vectors δ_X for the X atoms are the vectors $\delta_{AA,i}$ from section 3.1. With that, the sum over δ_X can be explicitly calculated:

Correct exp expressions

Example for a vector product

$$f_X(\mathbf{k}) = -t_X \sum_{\delta_X} e^{i\mathbf{k}\delta_X} \quad (\text{A.10})$$

$$= -t_X \left[\exp \left(ia \left(\frac{k_x}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}k_y}{2} \right) \right) + e^{iak_x} + e^{ia(\frac{k_x}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}k_y}{2})} \right. \quad (\text{A.11})$$

$$\left. + e^{ia(-\frac{k_x}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}k_y}{2})} + e^{-iak_x} + e^{ia(-\frac{k_x}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}k_y}{2})} \right] \quad (\text{A.12})$$

$$= -t_X \left(2 \cos(ak_x) + 2e^{ia\frac{\sqrt{3}k_y}{2}} \cos\left(\frac{a}{2}k_x\right) + 2e^{-ia\frac{\sqrt{3}k_y}{2}} \cos\left(\frac{a}{2}k_x\right) \right) \quad (\text{A.13})$$

$$= -2t_X \left(\cos(ak_x) + 2 \cos\left(\frac{a}{2}k_x\right) \cos\left(\sqrt{3}\frac{a}{2}k_y\right) \right). \quad (\text{A.14})$$

The same can be done for the hopping between Graphene sites, for example :

$$-t_{\text{Gr}} \sum_{\langle ij \rangle, \sigma, \sigma'} c_{i,\sigma}^{(A)\dagger} c_{j,\sigma'}^{(B)} = -t_{\text{Gr}} \sum_{i,\sigma,\sigma'} \sum_{\delta_{AB}} c_{i,\sigma}^{(A)\dagger} c_{i+\delta_{AB},\sigma'}^{(B)} \quad (\text{A.15})$$

$$= -t_{\text{Gr}} \sum_{\mathbf{k},\sigma,\sigma'} c_{\mathbf{k},\sigma}^{(A)\dagger} c_{\mathbf{k},\sigma'}^{(B)} \sum_{\delta_{AB}} e^{i\mathbf{k}\delta_{AB}} \quad (\text{A.16})$$

Show that!

We note

$$\sum_{\delta_{AB}} e^{i\mathbf{k}\delta_{AB}} = \left(\sum_{\delta_{BA}} e^{i\mathbf{k}\delta_{BA}} \right)^* = \sum_{\delta_{BA}} e^{-i\mathbf{k}\delta_{BA}} \quad (\text{A.17})$$

and calculate

$$f_{Gr} = -t_{Gr} \sum_{\delta_{AB}} e^{i\mathbf{k}\delta_{AB}} \quad (\text{A.18})$$

$$= -t_{Gr} \left(e^{i\frac{a}{\sqrt{3}}k_y} + e^{i\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}(\sqrt{3}k_x - k_y)} + e^{i\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}(-\sqrt{3}k_x - k_y)} \right) \quad (\text{A.19})$$

$$= -t_{Gr} \left(e^{i\frac{a}{\sqrt{3}}k_y} + e^{-i\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}k_y} \left(e^{i\frac{a}{2}k_x} + e^{-i\frac{a}{2}k_x} \right) \right) \quad (\text{A.20})$$

$$= -t_{Gr} \left(e^{i\frac{a}{\sqrt{3}}k_y} + 2e^{-i\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}k_y} \cos\left(\frac{a}{2}k_x\right) \right) \quad (\text{A.21})$$

All together, we get:

$$H_0 = \sum_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma, \sigma'} \begin{pmatrix} c_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^{A, \dagger} & c_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^{B, \dagger} & d_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^{\dagger} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & f_{Gr} & V \\ f_{Gr}^* & 0 & 0 \\ V & 0 & f_X \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^A \\ c_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma}^B \\ d_{\mathbf{k}, \sigma} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{A.22})$$

Notes on the Computational Implementation

B

All the code is available at github.com/Ruberhauptmann/quant-met.

All the data, _____

Data availability

For reproducibility, Datalad [50] is used.

The implementation relies on the work of many contributors of packages in Python's ecosystem, most important among them NumPy [51], SciPy [52], Matplotlib [53], Pandas [54, 55] and Parasweep [49]. _____

What software for what?

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Listings

List of Figures

2.1	(a) Landau free energy and (b) Mexican hat potential	6
2.2	a and b	10
3.1	Graphene lattice structure	19
3.2	Graphene Brillouin Zone	21
3.3	EG-X model	22
3.4	Bands of the non-interacting EG-X model. All the bands are spin-degenerate.	24

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

BCS	Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer 3, 10
DMFT	Dynamical Mean Field Theory 3
SSB	Spontaneous Symmetry Breaking 4

List of Symbols

Symbol	Meaning	Definition
ξ	Temperature dependent correlation length	7
ξ_0	Coherence length	7
$C_{AB}(\tau, 0)$	Correlation function in imaginary time	15