

February 19, 1980

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Situation: You have a perturbation $H = H_0 + H'$ of a self-adjoint operator on \mathcal{H} . One has a second quantization of H_0 which is a Fock space \mathcal{F} ~~which~~ which is roughly the exterior algebra of \mathcal{H} , equipped with the extension of H_0 as a derivation, and equipped with a ground state Φ which is element corresponding to the negative eigenspace of H_0 . Thus Φ is the state with all negative energy levels filled. If the perturbation is sufficiently ~~weak~~ weak, then the negative eigenspace for H should project nicely on that for H_0 , so Fock space should contain a ground state Φ for H such that $\langle \Phi | \Phi \rangle \neq 0$. I want to understand two numbers:

$$\Delta E = \frac{\langle \Phi | H' | \Phi \rangle}{\langle \Phi | \Phi \rangle^2} \quad \text{assuming } \|\Phi\|=1 \text{ and } H_0\Phi=0$$

The formulas for these are messy in the case of discrete spectrum and maybe become simpler for continuous spectrum.

Example: Take $H_0 = \frac{p^2}{2}$ on $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R})$ and take $H = \frac{p^2}{2} + V(x)$. Now fix a $\mu = \epsilon_F = \text{Fermi-energy}$. Then we get a splitting

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}^- \oplus \mathcal{H}^+$$

where \mathcal{H}^- is spanned by e^{ikx} with $\frac{k^2}{2} < \epsilon_F$ or $|k| < k_F$ where $\frac{1}{2}k_F^2 = \epsilon_F$. (Normally one works in a box $[-L/2, L/2]$ of volume L with periodic bdy conditions. Then $k \in \frac{2\pi}{L}\mathbb{Z}$ and the number N of k with $|k| < k_F$ is

$$N \sim 2k_F / \left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right) \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{N/L = k_F/\pi} \quad \text{so}$$

k_F is essentially the particle density.)

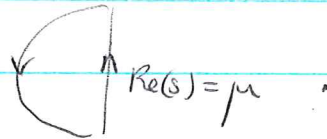
Let's compute the ground energy shift. We do this by figuring out the formulas in the discrete case and then extending them formally. We consider $H_\lambda = H_0 + \lambda V$ and let $E_\lambda = \langle \Phi_\lambda | H_\lambda | \Phi_\lambda \rangle$ be the ground energy. One has

$$\frac{dE_\lambda}{d\lambda} = \langle \Phi_\lambda | V | \Phi_\lambda \rangle = \text{tr}(P_\lambda^- V)$$

where P_λ^- is the projection onto the eigenspaces for H_λ ~~belonging to eigenvalues~~ belonging to eigenvalues $< \mu$. Now

$$P_\lambda^- = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu-i\infty}^{\mu+i\infty} \frac{ds}{s-H_\lambda}$$

or better the contour is



Thus

$$\frac{dE_\lambda}{d\lambda} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \text{tr} \left(\frac{1}{s-H_\lambda} V \right) ds$$

↻

$$\frac{1}{s-H_0} V + \frac{1}{s-H_0} \lambda V \frac{1}{s-H_0} V + \dots$$

and so integrating from $\lambda=0$ to $\lambda=1$ gives.

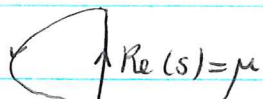
$$\Delta E = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \text{tr} \left(\frac{1}{s-H_0} V + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{s-H_0} V \right)^2 + \dots \right) ds$$

↻

$$-\log \left(1 - \frac{1}{s-H_0} V \right)$$

or

$$\boxed{+\Delta E = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int -\log \det \left(1 - \frac{1}{s-H_0} V \right) ds}$$



In the case $H_0 = \frac{p^2}{2} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$, recall that for $\text{Im } k > 0$ we have

$$\det \left(1 - \frac{1}{k^2 + D^2} 2V \right) = A(k)$$

where $A(k)$ is determined by the scattering for the equation $(k^2 + D^2 - 2V)\psi = 0$;

$$e^{-ikx} \longleftrightarrow A(k)e^{-ikx} + B(k)e^{ikx}.$$

So let's substitute $s = k^2/2$ and we get

$$\Delta E = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int -\log(A(k)) k dk$$



and the contour should enclose the bound states at $k = ik_j$. ~~Suppose~~ Suppose there are no bound states.

Then we have

$$\Delta E = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-k_F}^{k_F} \log\left(\frac{A(k)}{A(-k)}\right) k dk$$

and $\frac{A(k)}{A(-k)}$ is essentially the determinant of the scattering matrix.

Recall the basic asymptotic behavior of

$$\det \left(1 - \frac{1}{k^2 + D^2} g \right) = A(k)$$

One has

$$\begin{aligned} \log A(k) &= - \left[\text{tr} \left(\frac{1}{k^2 + D^2} g \right) + \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \left(\frac{1}{k^2 + D^2} g \right)^2 + \dots \right] \\ &= - \left[\int \frac{e^{ik|x-x'|}}{2ik} g(x) dx + \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{e^{2ik|x-x'|}}{(2ik)^2} g(x)g(x') dx dx' + \dots \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{so } \log A(k) \sim -\frac{1}{2ik} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx + O\left(\frac{1}{k^3}\right) \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \pm\infty.$$

(see p. 543). Consequently provided $\int g(x) dx = 0$ one sees ΔE remains finite as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

February 20, 1980

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We are considering a gas of independent fermions, which we think of ~~as~~ as electrons in a metal, and then we introduce an impurity and try to see what happens. We describe a single fermion by $H_0 = \frac{p^2}{2}$ on $L^2(\mathbb{R})$, and to get the gas we have to give a chemical potential or Fermi energy ϵ_F . The impurity is represented by a perturbation $H = H_0 + U(x)$. As the impurity potential is turned on: $H_\lambda = H_0 + \lambda U$ the density of the gas changes, the total charges, energy changes, and we want to compute these quantities.

The way to visualize things is to start off in a box so as to have discrete spectra, but this really shouldn't be necessary. Let's work on the line in a box $-L/2 \leq x \leq L/2$ with $H_0 = -\Delta = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$.

Basic eigenfunctions are

$$u_k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} e^{ikx} \quad k \in \frac{2\pi}{L} \mathbb{Z}$$

and $Hu_k = k^2 u_k$. Extend H_0 to a derivation of the exterior algebra of $\mathcal{H} = L^2([-L/2, L/2])$ and let N be the number of particles belonging to the Fermi energy $\epsilon_F = k_F^2$. Thus

$$N = \text{card}\{k \mid k < k_F\}$$

$$N \cdot \frac{2\pi}{L} \sim 2k_F \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{N}{L} \sim \frac{1}{\pi} k_F$$

where this last relation becomes exact as ~~$N, L \rightarrow \infty$~~ $N, L \rightarrow \infty$. So now we have this N -particle ground state which

is the filled Fermi sea. Let's compute the particle density at a given point x . What does this mean? Answer: It is $\langle \Phi | \psi^*(x) \psi(x) | \Phi \rangle$ where $\psi(x)$ is the interior product on the exterior algebra associated to the linear functional $\psi(x)f = f(x)$ on \mathcal{H} . So if the constants c_k are such that

$$\psi(x) = \sum_k c_k a_k$$

we have $c_k = \psi(x) u_k = u_k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} e^{-ikx}$, so

$$\psi(x) = \sum_k \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} e^{-ikx} a_k$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \Phi | \psi(x)^* \psi(x) | \Phi \rangle &= \sum_{k, k'} \frac{1}{L} e^{-ik'x + ikx} \underbrace{\langle \Phi | a_{k'}^* a_k | \Phi \rangle}_{\begin{cases} 0 & \text{unless } k'=k < k_F \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}} \\ &= \frac{N}{L} \end{aligned}$$

which checks.

Let's carry out the analogous construction for the perturbed operator $H = H_0 + U$. Again work in a box so the spectrum is discrete. Let $u_\alpha(x)$ be an orthonormal basis of eigenfunctions $Hu_\alpha = \varepsilon_\alpha u_\alpha$. Then

$$\psi(x) = \sum c_\alpha a_\alpha \quad c_\alpha = \psi(x) u_\alpha = u_\alpha(x)$$

$$\psi(x) = \sum u_\alpha(x) a_\alpha$$

So the particle density in the ground state Φ corresponding to the Fermi energy ε_F is

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \Phi | \psi(x)^* \psi(x) | \Phi \rangle &= \sum_{\alpha, \alpha'} \overline{u_{\alpha'}(x)} u_\alpha(x) \underbrace{\langle \Phi | a_{\alpha'}^* a_\alpha | \Phi \rangle}_{\begin{cases} 0 & \text{unless } \alpha = \alpha' \\ & \text{and } \varepsilon_\alpha < \varepsilon_F \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}} \\ &= \sum_{\varepsilon_\alpha < \varepsilon_F} \overline{u_\alpha(x)} u_\alpha(x) \end{aligned}$$

This is the diagonal of the kernel for orthogonal projection P^- on the eigenspaces of H for energies $< \epsilon_F$.

$$P^- = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{1}{s - H} ds$$

$\text{Re}(s) = \epsilon_F$

Recall that

$$G(t, t') = \begin{cases} e^{-H(t-t')} P^+ & t > t' \\ e^{-H(t-t')} (-P^-) & t < t' \end{cases}$$

$$\psi(x, t) = \sum u_\alpha(x) e^{-\epsilon_\alpha t} a_\alpha$$

$$\psi^*(x', t') = \sum \overline{u_\alpha(x')} e^{\epsilon_\alpha t'} a_\alpha^*$$

$$G(x, t, x', t') = \langle \Psi | \psi(x, t) \psi^*(x', t') | \Psi \rangle \quad t > t'$$

$$= \sum u_\alpha(x) e^{-\epsilon_\alpha t} \overline{u_{\alpha'}(x')} e^{\epsilon_{\alpha'} t'} \langle \Psi | a_\alpha a_{\alpha'}^* | \Psi \rangle$$

$$G(x, t, x', t') = \begin{cases} \sum_{\epsilon_\alpha > \epsilon_F} u_\alpha(x) \overline{u_{\alpha'}(x')} e^{-\epsilon_\alpha(t-t')} & t > t' \\ -\sum_{\epsilon_\alpha < \epsilon_F} u_\alpha(x) \overline{u_{\alpha'}(x')} e^{-\epsilon_\alpha(t-t')} & t < t' \end{cases}$$

The particle density is

$$\langle \Psi | \psi^*(x) \psi(x) | \Psi \rangle = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} -G(x, t, x, 0)$$

February 22, 1980

Consider $H = -\Delta + V$ on $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R})$ where $V \in C_0^\infty$.

Fix a Fermi energy ϵ_F . Then we get a splitting $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}^- \oplus \mathcal{H}^+$, where $H < \epsilon_F$ on \mathcal{H}^- and $H > \epsilon_F$ on \mathcal{H}^+ .

We then form the ^{fermion} Fock space of \mathcal{H} ~~with~~ with ground state \mathbb{F} representing the Fermi sea with all the states in \mathcal{H}^- filled:

$$\mathbb{F} = \wedge \mathcal{H}^- \otimes \wedge \mathcal{H}^+$$

We have a Green's function

$$G(x, t; x', t') = \langle \mathbb{F} | T[\psi(x, t) \psi^*(x', t')] | \mathbb{F} \rangle$$

which we worked out yesterday in the case where \mathbb{R} is replaced by a box, or where V grows fast enough so that the spectrum is discrete. Recall this: Let u_α be an orthonormal basis of eigenfunctions for H , $Hu_\alpha = \epsilon_\alpha u_\alpha$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(x) &= \text{"interior mult. by } f \mapsto f(x) \text{ on } \wedge \mathcal{H} \text{"} \\ &= \sum u_\alpha(x) a_\alpha \end{aligned}$$

AO
$$\psi(x, t) = \sum u_\alpha(x) a_\alpha(t) \quad a_\alpha(t) = e^{Ht} a_\alpha e^{-Ht} = e^{-\epsilon_\alpha t} a_\alpha$$

$$\psi(x, t) = \sum u_\alpha(x) e^{-\epsilon_\alpha t} a_\alpha$$

$$\psi^*(x', t') = \sum \overline{u_\alpha(x')} e^{\epsilon_\alpha t'} a_\alpha^*$$

$t > t'$
$$G(x, t; x', t') = \sum u_\alpha(x) \overline{u_{\alpha'}(x')} e^{-\epsilon_\alpha t + \epsilon_{\alpha'} t'} \langle \mathbb{F} | a_\alpha a_{\alpha'}^* | \mathbb{F} \rangle$$

$t < t'$
$$\langle \mathbb{F} | -a_{\alpha'}^* a_\alpha | \mathbb{F} \rangle$$

so

$$G(xt, x't') = \sum_{\substack{\epsilon_\alpha > \epsilon_F}} u_\alpha(x) \overline{u_\alpha(x')} e^{-\epsilon_\alpha(t-t')} \quad t > t'$$

$$- \sum_{\substack{\epsilon_\alpha < \epsilon_F}} u_\alpha(x) \overline{u_\alpha(x')} e^{-\epsilon_\alpha(t-t')} \quad t < t'$$

In the finite temperature case one has

$$\langle a_\alpha a_{\alpha'}^* \rangle = \delta_{\alpha\alpha'} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\beta\epsilon_\alpha}}$$


$$\langle a_{\alpha'}^* a_\alpha \rangle = \delta_{\alpha\alpha'} \frac{e^{-\beta\epsilon_\alpha}}{1 + e^{-\beta\epsilon_\alpha}}$$

The reason is that

$$\langle a_\alpha a_{\alpha'}^* \rangle = \frac{\text{tr}(e^{-\beta H} a_\alpha a_{\alpha'}^*)}{\text{tr}(e^{-\beta H})}$$

and because H is diagonal, the exterior algebra can be written as a tensor product of the α, α' part and the rest of \mathcal{H} . Thus the finite temperature Green's function is

$$G(xt, x't') = \sum_{\alpha} u_\alpha(x) \overline{u_\alpha(x')} e^{-\epsilon_\alpha(t-t')} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\beta\epsilon_\alpha}} & t > t' \\ \frac{-e^{-\beta\epsilon_\alpha}}{1 + e^{-\beta\epsilon_\alpha}} & t < t' \end{cases}$$

The problem now is to understand what happens to these formulas as the box  gets infinite and the spectrum is continuous

Note: The above formulas for finite temperature case should have H replaced by $H - \epsilon_F$. In the sequel let's assume this has been done, so that $\epsilon_F = 0$.

Formulas for the finite temperature Green's function

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$$1) \quad G(t, t') = \begin{cases} e^{-H(t-t')} \frac{1}{1+e^{-\beta H}} & t > t' \\ \frac{-e^{-\beta H}}{1+e^{-\beta H}} & t < t' \end{cases}$$

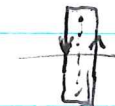
Note that $0 \leq t, t' \leq \beta$ and that

$$G(\beta, t') = e^{-H(\beta-t')} \frac{1}{1+e^{-\beta H}} = -G(0, t')$$

so that G is the inverse of $\frac{d}{dt} + H$ on $[0, \beta]$ with anti-periodic boundary conditions. Hence we can compute it by Fourier series and get

$$2) \quad G(t, t') = \sum_{k \in \frac{2\pi}{\beta}(\frac{1}{2} + \mathbb{Z})} \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{e^{-ik(t-t')}}{ik + H}$$

Next let us use contour integration to evaluate the above sum. The summation takes place over those $z = ik$ with $k \in \frac{2\pi}{\beta}(\frac{1}{2} + \mathbb{Z})$, i.e. where $e^{\beta z} + 1 = 0$. At such a zero, one has $\frac{d}{dz}(e^{\beta z} + 1) = \beta e^{\beta z} = -\beta$. Hence by residues:

$$3) \quad G(t, t') = \frac{-1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{e^{z(t-t')} dz}{(z+H)(e^{\beta z} + 1)}$$


The contour is a thin rectangle enclosing the zeroes of $e^{\beta z} + 1$, thin enough so as to avoid the spectrum of H which we think of as being separated by $\epsilon_F = 0$. Another formula is

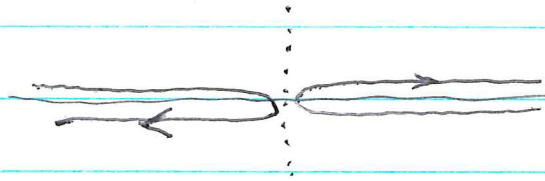
$$3') \quad G(t, t') = \frac{-1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{e^{z(t-t')}}{z+1} \left(\frac{1}{e^{\beta z} + 1} - 1 \right) dz$$

$\underbrace{\frac{1}{e^{\beta z} + 1} - 1}_{\frac{-e^{\beta z}}{1 + e^{\beta z}}}$

If $t - t' > 0$, then at least when $t' \in (0, \beta)$ one has $0 < t - t' < \beta$ and so

$$\frac{e^{z(t-t')}}{e^{\beta z} + 1}$$

decays as either $\text{Re}(z) \rightarrow +\infty$ or $-\infty$. Hence the contour ^{in 3)} can be deformed to



which gives

$$G(t, t') = \frac{e^{-H(t-t')}}{1 + e^{-\beta H}} \quad t > t'$$

On the other hand if $t - t' < 0$, then $-\beta < t - t' < 0$ so

$$e^{z(t-t')} \frac{(-e^{\beta z})}{1 + e^{\beta z}}$$

decays as either $\text{Re}(z) \rightarrow +\infty$ or $\text{Re}(z) \rightarrow -\infty$ so the contour in (3') can be deformed in the same way to yield

$$G(t, t') = - \frac{e^{-H(t-t')}}{1 + e^{-\beta H}} \quad t < t'$$

which checks the formula 1).

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Yesterday we worked out the Green's function at non-zero temperature for a system of independent fermions governed by a 1-particle Hamiltonian H and with a given Fermi energy. We found (for $\varepsilon_F = 0$)

$$G(t, t') = e^{-H(t-t')} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1+e^{-\beta H}} & t > t' \\ \frac{-e^{-\beta H}}{1+e^{-\beta H}} & t < t' \end{cases}$$

It follows that the density matrix is

$$-G(0^-, 0) = \frac{e^{-\beta H}}{1+e^{-\beta H}} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta H} + 1}$$

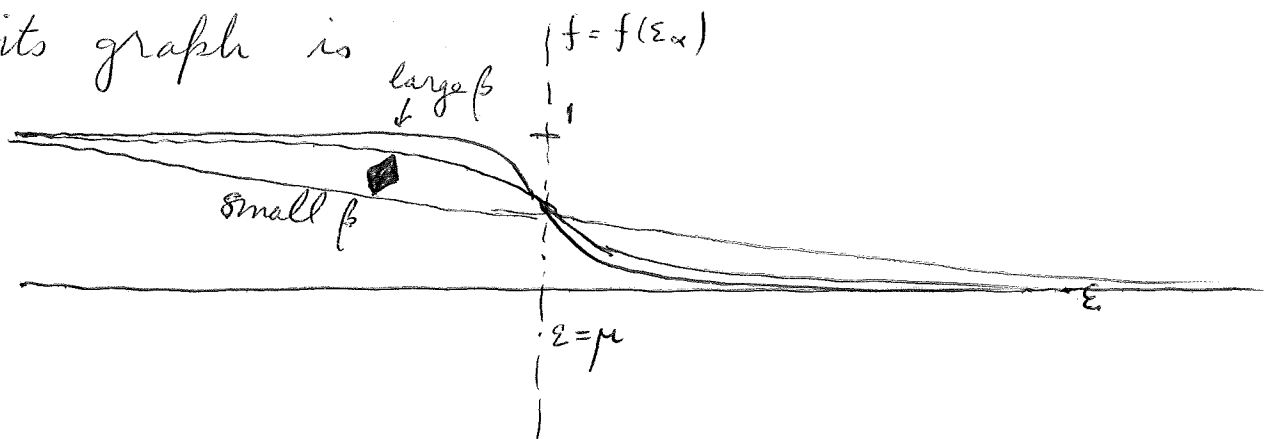
Thus the density of particles at a point x

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi^*(x) \psi(x) \rangle &= -G(x0^-, x0) \\ &= \sum_{\alpha} |u_{\alpha}(x)|^2 \frac{1}{e^{\beta \varepsilon_{\alpha}} + 1} \end{aligned}$$

if u_{α} is an orthonormal basis of eigenfunctions. The last function is the Fermi function; in general it would be

$$f_{\alpha} = \langle a_{\alpha}^* a_{\alpha} \rangle = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\varepsilon_{\alpha} - \mu)} + 1}$$

and its graph is



The above extends to the case where H has

continuous spectrum:

$$\langle x | \frac{1}{e^{\beta H} + 1} | x \rangle = \int \frac{1}{e^{\beta \epsilon_{\mathbf{x}}} + 1} d\epsilon_{\mathbf{x}}(x, x)$$

The next project will be to take $H = -\Delta + V$ with $V \in C_0^\infty$ and see if we ^{can} compute the particle density well enough so as to understand Friedel ~~oscillations~~ oscillations.

We need to review eigenfunctions for H . Notation: $\psi(x, k)$ ^{($\phi(x, k)$)} is the solution of $(H - k^2)\psi = 0$ or

$$1) \quad (k^2 + \Delta)\psi = V\psi$$

such that

$$\psi(x, k) \sim e^{ikx} \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow +\infty$$

$$\psi(x, k) \sim e^{-ikx} \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow -\infty$$

where we think of k as being in the UHP. The scattering is given by

$$e^{-ikx} \longleftrightarrow A(k)e^{-ikx} + B(k)e^{ikx}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \psi(x, k) = A(k)\psi(x, -k) + B(k)\psi(x, k)$$

and the Green's function is

$$G_k(x, x') = \frac{\phi(x_-, k) \psi(x_+, k)}{A(k) 2ik}$$

Let's go over physics notation: $\psi_k^+(x)$ denotes the solution of the Schrodinger equation ¹⁾ which differs from e^{ikx} ~~by~~ by an outgoing wave. Recall how this

goes: Consider a solution of $i\partial_t\psi = H\psi$ of the form $\psi(x,t) = \int e^{ikx - ik^2t/2m} f(k) dk$ x large

where f has support close to k_0 . Then for large (x,t) , $\psi(x,t)$ is negligible unless the exponent is stationary near $k=k_0$. But

$$\frac{d}{dk} (kx - \frac{k^2t}{2m}) = x - \frac{k}{m}t = 0$$

means ~~that~~ that ψ represents a wave packet travelling with velocity k/m , hence momentum k . Thus e^{ikx} represents a wave travelling in the direction k . It follows that for $k > 0$

$$\psi_k^+ : \tilde{R}(k)e^{-ikx} + e^{ikx} \longleftrightarrow T(k)e^{ikx}$$

and for $k < 0$

$$\psi_k^+ : \tilde{T}(k)e^{ikx} + e^{-ikx} \longleftrightarrow \tilde{R}(k)e^{-ikx}$$

$$T(k)e^{ikx} \longleftrightarrow e^{ikx} + R(k)e^{-ikx}$$

Unfortunately if we give k a small positive imaginary part: $k+i\eta$, then

$$e^{i(k+i\eta)x} = e^{-\eta x + ikx}$$

decays as $x \rightarrow +\infty$ which is not what you expect.

?

The problem is that ψ_k^+ is defined via Lippmann-Schwinger

$$\psi_k^+ = \varphi_k + \frac{1}{k^2 + i\epsilon + \Delta} V \psi_k^+$$

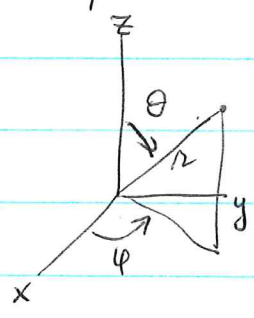
so that one wants to push k so that $k^2 \in \text{UHP}$. Thus we want $k \mapsto k + i\eta$, where $(k+i\eta)^2 = k^2 - \eta^2 + 2ik\eta \in \text{UHP}$ so we want $k\eta > 0$. The same formula will work in 3dims.

Note that
$$e^{i(k+i\eta)x} = e^{ikx} e^{-\eta x}$$

decays in the direction η which since $k \cdot \eta > 0$ means this function decays in the k -direction. Thus we look at complex \vec{k} with $\text{Im}(k^2) > 0$ and define ψ_k^+ to be the eigenfunction for H with eigenvalue k^2 which differs from e^{ikx} by an L^2 function.

So the moral is that the physics way of thinking about the scattering ^{on \mathbb{R}} differs from the way I am familiar with. Hence one should perhaps work with a symmetrical situation.

Let's try to do the scattering in 3 dimensions with a spherically symmetric potential $V(r)$. ~~Recall~~ Recall the formulas



$$\Delta = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \varphi^2}$$

$$(1+r^2-2rcos\theta)^{-1/2} = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} r^l P_l(\cos\theta)$$

$$\left[\frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sin\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + l(l+1) \right] P_l(\cos\theta) = 0$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 P_l(x) P_{l'}(x) dx = \frac{2}{2l+1} \delta_{ll'}$$

$$P_l(x) = \frac{(2l-1)!!}{l!} x^l + O(x^{l-2})$$

$$e^{ikr \cos \theta} = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (2l+1) i^l j_l(kr) P_l(\cos \theta)$$

$$j_l(r) \sim \frac{\sin(r - l\pi/2)}{r} \text{ as } r \rightarrow \infty$$

$$j_l(r) \sim \frac{1}{(2l+1)!!} r^l \text{ as } r \rightarrow 0$$

February 29, 1980

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Given a free eigenfunction $e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}}$ the perturbed eigenfunction asymptotic to it as $t \rightarrow -\infty$ in some sense is obtained by solving the Lippmann-Schwinger equation:

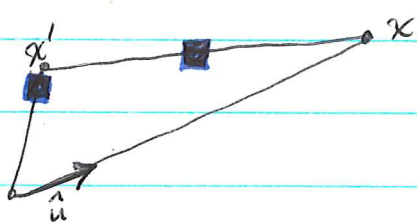
$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}^+(\mathbf{x}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}} + \frac{1}{k^2 + i0^+ - H_0} V \psi_{\mathbf{k}}^+ \quad \text{where}$$

$$\langle \mathbf{x} | \frac{1}{k^2 + i0^+ + \Delta} | \mathbf{x}' \rangle = \frac{e^{ikr}}{-4\pi r} \quad r = |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'| \quad \text{and } k > 0.$$

Thus

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}^+(\mathbf{x}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}} + \int \frac{e^{ik|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}'|}}{-4\pi|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}'|} V(\mathbf{x}') \psi_{\mathbf{k}}^+(\mathbf{x}') d^3x'$$

Let's look at this for $\mathbf{x} = r\hat{\mathbf{u}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ a fixed unit vector and $r \rightarrow +\infty$.



$$|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'| = \sqrt{r^2 + r'^2 - 2r\hat{\mathbf{u}}\cdot\mathbf{x}'}$$

$$= r \left(1 - \frac{\hat{\mathbf{u}}\cdot\mathbf{x}'}{r} \right) + O\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)$$

$$= r - \hat{\mathbf{u}}\cdot\mathbf{x}' + O\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)$$

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}^+(\mathbf{x}) - e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}} = \int \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \frac{e^{-ik\hat{\mathbf{u}}\cdot\mathbf{x}'}}{-4\pi} \left(1 + O\left(\frac{1}{r}\right) \right) V(\mathbf{x}') \psi_{\mathbf{k}}^+(\mathbf{x}') d^3x'$$

Thus we see that provided we let $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \infty$ radially: $\mathbf{x} = r\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ with $r \rightarrow \infty$, we have

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}^+(\mathbf{x}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}} + \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} f(\mathbf{k}\hat{\mathbf{u}}, \mathbf{k}) + O\left(\frac{1}{r^2}\right)$$

$$f(\mathbf{k}', \mathbf{k}) = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int e^{-i\mathbf{k}'\cdot\mathbf{x}} V(\mathbf{x}) \psi_{\mathbf{k}}^+(\mathbf{x}) d^3x$$

Consider the situation where $V = V(r)$. Then

we use partial wave expansions:

$$e^{ikz} = \sum_l i^l (2l+1) \underbrace{j_l(kr)}_{\sim \frac{\sin(kr - \frac{1}{2}l\pi)}{kr}} P_l(\cos\theta) = \frac{i^{-l} e^{ikr} - i^l e^{-ikr}}{2ikr}$$

Let $\psi_k^+(x) = \psi_k^+(x) = \text{[scribble]} e^{-ikz} + \text{scattered wave, i.e.}$
 $\underline{k} = (0, 0, k)$ and $k > 0$ always. Partial waves:

$$\psi_k^+(r, \theta) = \sum_l \text{[scribble]} R_l(r, k) P_l(\cos\theta)$$

where $R_l(r, k)$ satisfies

$$\left\{ -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} r^2 \frac{d}{dr} + \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} + V(r) - k^2 \right\} R_l = 0$$

$$R_l \sim \text{const. } r^l \quad \text{as } r \rightarrow 0.$$

For large r one has

$$R_l \sim \text{const. } \frac{\sin(kr - \frac{1}{2}l\pi + \delta_l(k))}{r}$$

where $\delta_l(k)$ is the so-called phase shift. Since $\psi_k^+ - e^{ikz} \sim A \frac{e^{ikr}}{r}$, we expect in

$$R_l \sim \text{const} \frac{e^{ikr} i^{-l} e^{-i\delta_l} - e^{-ikr} i^l e^{-i\delta_l}}{r}$$

that the constant makes the $\frac{e^{-ikr}}{r}$ term agree with that for e^{ikz} . Thus

$$R_l(r, k) \sim (2l+1) \frac{e^{2i\delta_l(k)} e^{ikr} - (-1)^l e^{-ikr}}{2ikr}$$

and so we get

$$\psi_k^+(r, \theta) - e^{ikz} \sim A(k, \theta) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \quad \text{as } r \rightarrow \infty$$

where

$$A(k, \theta) = \sum_{\ell} (2\ell+1) \frac{S_{\ell}(k) - 1}{2ik} P_{\ell}(\cos \theta) \quad \text{scattering amplitude}$$

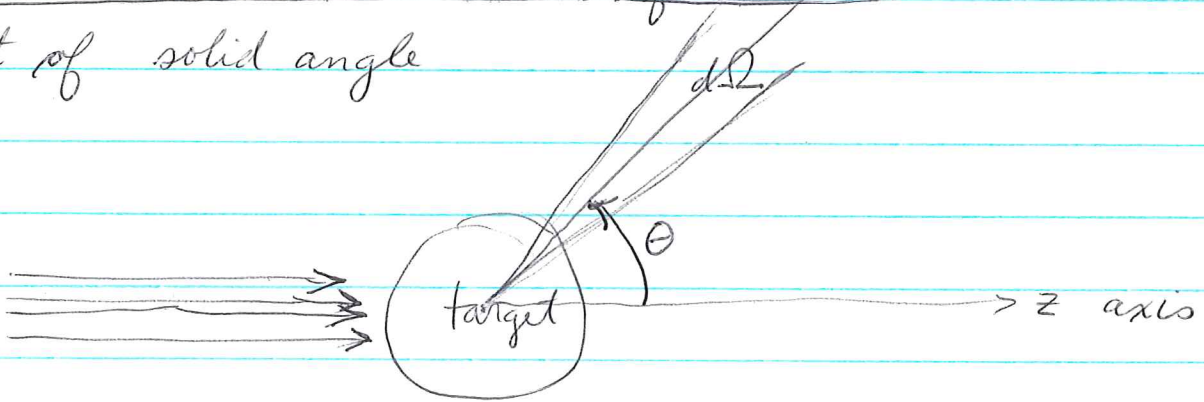
$$S_{\ell}(k) = e^{2i\delta_{\ell}(k)}$$


The differential cross-section is the quantity

~~$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = |A(k, \theta)|^2$~~

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = |A(k, \theta)|^2$$

and it has the following interpretations. One thinks of e^{ikz} as representing a beam of particles with momentum k , $V(r)$ is the potential of many sufficiently separated identical atoms which form the target. ~~cross-sections to the direction of other beams~~ $d\Omega$ is an element of solid angle



and $d\sigma$  measures the fraction of the beam scattered into $d\Omega$. The total scattering cross-section is

$$\sigma = \int |A(k, \theta)|^2 \frac{d\Omega}{2\pi \sin \theta d\theta} = \sum_{\ell} \left| \frac{S_{\ell}(k) - 1}{2ik} \right|^2 (2\ell+1) \frac{2\pi \cdot 2}{2\ell+1}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{4\pi}{k^2} \sum_{\ell} (2\ell+1) \sin^2 \delta_{\ell}(k)$$

$$\text{Im } A(k, \theta) = \sum_{\ell} (2\ell+1) \frac{1 - \cos 2\delta_{\ell}(k)}{2k} P_{\ell}(\cos \theta)$$

$$\text{Im } A(k, \theta) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_l (2l+1) \sin^2 \delta_l(k) \cdot P_l(\cos \theta)$$

Since $P_l(1) = 1$ we get the optical thm:

$$\sigma = \frac{4\pi}{k} \text{Im } A(k, 0)$$

$A(k, 0) =$ forward scattering amp.

Let's now return to the problem of computing the particle density in the fermi gas given by a Fermi energy $\epsilon_F = k_F^2$ and the 1-particle Hamiltonian $H = -\Delta + V$. We want the diagonal of the kernel for the projection P^- on states of energy $< \epsilon_F$.

$$P^- = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{ds}{s-H}$$

(circled) ϵ_F

In the case of three dims with $V = V(r)$, this will be a sum over l , and the spectrum of angular momentum l will be $(2l+1)$ -fold degenerate. So we should first look at the radial case

$$\left(-\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x)\right) \psi = k^2 \psi \quad \text{on } [0, \infty)$$

with some boundary condition at $x=0$. Then the resolvent is

$$G_k(x, x') = \langle x | \frac{1}{k^2 + \Delta - V} | x' \rangle = \frac{\phi(x_<, k) \psi(x_>, k)}{W(\phi, \psi)}$$

and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(x, k) &\sim A(k) e^{-ikx} + A(-k) e^{ikx} & x \gg 0 \\ \psi(x, k) &= A(k) \psi(x, -k) + A(-k) \psi(x, k) \end{aligned}$$

so $W(\phi, \psi) = A(k) 2ik$

Then $\langle x | P^- | x' \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-k_F}^{k_F} G_k(x, x') 2k dk$

$$= \sum_{\text{bdd states}} u_\alpha(x) \overline{u_\alpha(x')} + \frac{i}{2\pi} \int_{-k_F}^{k_F} G_k(x, x') 2k dk$$

If $k_F = \infty$, we get the completeness relation. The last term can be written

$$\frac{i}{2\pi} \int_0^{k_F} \phi(x_<, k) \left\{ \frac{\psi(x_>, k)}{2ikA(k)} + \frac{\psi(x_>, -k)}{2ikA(-k)} \right\} 2k dk = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{k_F} \phi(x_<, k) \phi(x_>, k) \frac{dk}{|A(k)|^2}$$

Thus

$$\langle x | P^- | x' \rangle = \sum_{\text{bdd states}} u_\alpha(x) \overline{u_\alpha(x')} + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{k_F} \phi(x, k) \phi(x', k) \frac{dk}{|A(k)|^2}$$

For x outside the support of V we have

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(x, k) &= A(k) e^{-ikx} + A(-k) e^{ikx} = \frac{1}{|A(k)|} (e^{ikx + i\delta_0} + e^{-ikx - i\delta_0}) \\ &= 2|A(k)| \sin(kx + \delta_0(k)) \end{aligned}$$

where $\delta_0(k)$ is essentially the argument of $A(k)$. Hence

$$\int_0^{k_F} \phi(x, k)^2 \frac{dk}{|A(k)|^2} = 4 \int_0^{k_F} \sin^2(kx + \delta_0(k)) dk$$

Now compare with $V=0$, where $\phi(x, k) = \sin(kx) = \frac{e^{ikx} - e^{-ikx}}{2i}$
 so that $A(k) = \frac{i}{2}$ and $|A(k)|^2 = \frac{1}{4}$, and so the density is
 $4 \int_0^F \sin^2(kx) dk$. Difference oscillates.

February 27, 1980

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Consider $\mathbb{C}^n = \mathbb{C}^p \oplus \mathbb{C}^{n-p}$ and let $e_w = e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge e_p$ denotes the element of $\wedge^p(\mathbb{C}^n)$ associated to the subspace $W = \mathbb{C}^p$. Given $A \in GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ we can write it in block form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with } \alpha \text{ a } p \times p \text{ matrix}$$

and we have $\langle e_w | \tilde{A} | e_w \rangle = \det(\alpha)$, where \tilde{A} denotes the ^{functional} extension of A to the exterior algebra. Now

$$\|\tilde{A}e_w\|^2 = \langle e_w | \tilde{A}^* \tilde{A} | e_w \rangle$$

If $\tilde{A}^* = \tilde{A}^*$, then ~~since~~ since $A^*A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^* & \gamma^* \\ \beta^* & \delta^* \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^*\alpha + \gamma^*\gamma & \dots \\ \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$ we get

$$\|\tilde{A}e_w\|^2 = \det(\alpha^*\alpha + \gamma^*\gamma).$$

To verify $\tilde{A}^* = \tilde{A}^*$ take decomposable vectors;

$$\begin{aligned} \langle v_1 \wedge \dots \wedge v_p | \tilde{A} (w_1 \wedge \dots \wedge w_p) \rangle &= \langle v_1 \wedge \dots \wedge v_p | A w_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A w_p \rangle \\ &= \det \langle v_i | A w_j \rangle = \det \langle A^* v_i | w_j \rangle = \langle \tilde{A}^*(v_1 \wedge \dots \wedge v_p) | w_1 \wedge \dots \wedge w_p \rangle \end{aligned}$$

March 2, 1980

Review Fredholm formulas for $(1-\lambda K)^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj}(1-\lambda K)}{\det(1-\lambda K)}$

Put $\det(1-\lambda K) = \sum \lambda^n D_n$, $\text{adj}(1-\lambda K) = \sum \lambda^n A_n$. Then

$$(1-\lambda K) \sum \lambda^n A_n = \sum \lambda^n D_n$$

$$\boxed{A_n - \lambda K A_{n-1} = D_n}$$

Also $\frac{d}{d\lambda} \det(1-\lambda K) = -\text{tr}(K \text{adj}(1-\lambda K))$ or

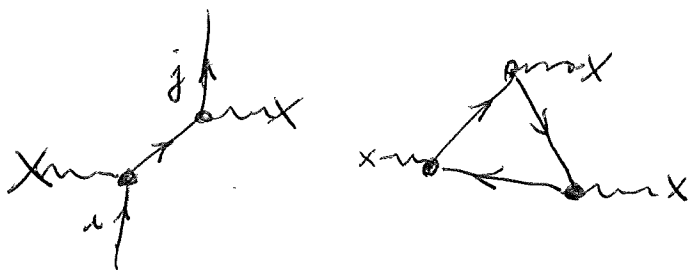
$$\boxed{n D_n = -\text{tr}(K A_{n-1})}$$

There's a diagrammatic version of these recursion formulas using

$$\frac{\int e^{-\psi^*(1-\lambda K)\psi} \psi_i \psi_j^*}{\int e^{-\psi^*\psi}} = \frac{\int e^{-\psi^*(1-\lambda K)\psi} \psi_i \psi_j^*}{\int e^{-\psi^*(1-\lambda K)\psi}} \cdot \frac{\int e^{-\psi^*(1-\lambda K)\psi}}{\int e^{-\psi^*\psi}}$$


$$= (1-\lambda K)^{-1}_{ij} \cdot \det(1-\lambda K) = [\text{adj}(1-\lambda K)]_{ij}$$

Expanding in powers of the interaction λK gives $[\text{adj}(1-\lambda K)]_{ij}$ as a sum over diagrams with directed edges labelled by a variable i and vertices of the form $\sum_{\lambda_i} \lambda K_j$. Thus $(A_n)_{ij}$ is the sum over n -vertex diagrams with n entering arrows labelled by j and n exiting arrows labelled by i . A typical one is



D_n is similar without external lines. The formula

$$A_n = D_n + K A_{n-1}$$


results from  dividing the diagrams according to whether the interaction occurs on the $j-i$ path. The formula

$$n D_n = -\text{tr}(K A_{n-1})$$


results from breaking a contribution to D_n at any of its n -vertices; the minus sign is due to the fact we have cut a fermion loop.

Suppose $K = |\sigma\rangle\langle\bar{\sigma}|$ is of rank 1. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1-\lambda K} &= 1 + \lambda K + \lambda^2 K^2 + \dots \\ &= 1 + \lambda |\sigma\rangle\langle\bar{\sigma}| + \lambda^2 |\sigma\rangle\langle\bar{\sigma}|\sigma\rangle\langle\bar{\sigma}| + \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{\lambda \begin{array}{|c} \blacksquare \end{array} |\sigma\rangle\langle\bar{\sigma}| \begin{array}{|c} \blacksquare \end{array}}{1 - \lambda \langle\bar{\sigma}|\sigma\rangle} \\ &= \frac{1 + \lambda [|\sigma\rangle\langle\bar{\sigma}| - \langle\bar{\sigma}|\sigma\rangle]}{1 - \lambda \langle\bar{\sigma}|\sigma\rangle} \end{aligned}$$

Alternative version which leads to the denominator $\sum_{n \geq 0} \tilde{D}_n \lambda^n = \det(1-\lambda K) e^{\lambda \text{tr} K}$, where one has "pulled the poison tooth".  The numerator will be

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} \tilde{N}_n \lambda^n = \underbrace{[(1-\lambda K)^{-1} - 1]}_{\text{diagrams}} \underbrace{\det(1-\lambda K) e^{\lambda \text{tr} K}}_{\text{vacuum diagrams where } \bigcirc \text{ are deleted.}}$$


 where \uparrow has been deleted

Recursion formulas are

$$\begin{cases} n\tilde{D}_n = -\text{tr}(K\tilde{N}_{n-1}) \\ \tilde{N}_n = K(\tilde{N}_{n-1} + \tilde{D}_{n-1}) \end{cases}$$

Diagrams contributing to \tilde{N}_n involve incoming and outgoing external lines, together with n vertices of interaction, ^{at least} one of which occurs on the path connecting the external lines.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \tilde{N}_0 = 0 & \tilde{N}_1 = K & \tilde{N}_2 = K^2 \\ \tilde{D}_0 = \mathbf{1} & \tilde{D}_1 = 0 & \tilde{D}_2 = -\frac{1}{2}\text{tr}(K^2) \end{array}$$

March 3, 1980

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Weinberg's analysis of a N -body system (in Brandeis Summer Institute in Theor. Physics 1964 Vol. II - Lectures on particles and field theory).

We work with N -distinguishable particles, so the Hilbert space is $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathcal{H}_N$ and $H = H_0 + V$ where

$$H_0 |p_1, \dots, p_N\rangle = \sum \frac{p_i^2}{2m_i} |p_1, \dots, p_N\rangle$$

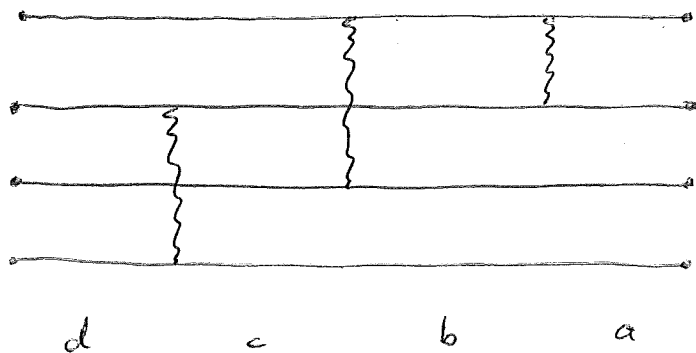
$$V = \sum_{i < j} V_{ij}$$

The problem is to understand matrix elements of

$$G(W) = [W - H]^{-1} = G_0(W) + G_0(W)V G_0(W) + \dots$$

$$= G_0(W) + G_0(W) \sum_{i < j} V_{ij} G_0(W) + G_0(W) \sum_{i < j} V_{ij} G_0(W) \sum_{k < l} V_{kl} G_0(W) + \dots$$

We draw diagrams as follows:

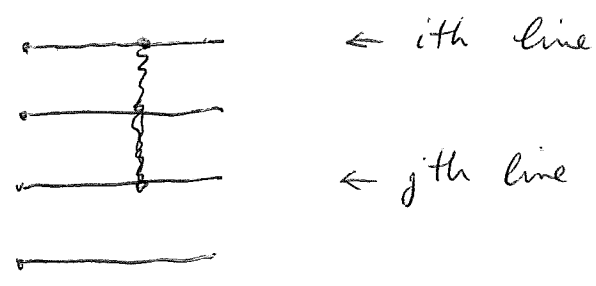


a represents the initial state, d the final state; a vertical wavy line between i th and j th line represents V_{ij} . The above diagram represents the contribution to $\langle d | G(W) | a \rangle$ coming from the term $G_0(W) V_{24} G_0(W) V_{13} G_0(W) V_{12} G_0(W)$, that is

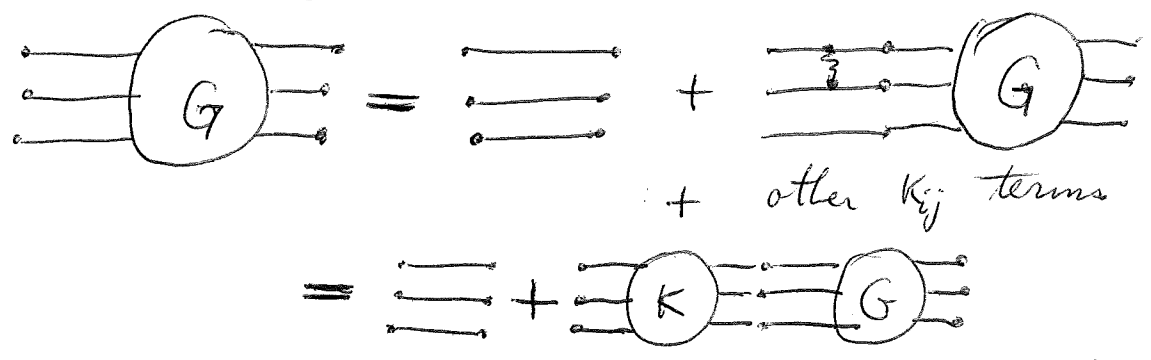
$$\begin{aligned} \langle d | G | a \rangle &= \langle d | G_0 V_{24} G_0 V_{13} G_0 V_{12} G_0 | a \rangle \\ &= \int dc \int db \frac{\langle d | V_{24} | c \rangle \langle c | V_{13} | b \rangle \langle b | V_{12} | a \rangle}{(W - E_d)(W - E_c)(W - E_b)(W - E_a)} \end{aligned}$$

Put $K = G_0 V$ so that $G = [1 - K]^{-1} G_0$.

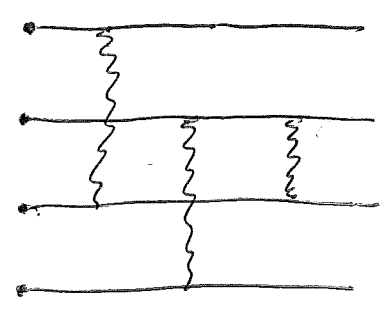
One has $K = \sum_{i,j} G_0 V_{ij}$ where $G_0 V_{ij}$ is represented by the diagram



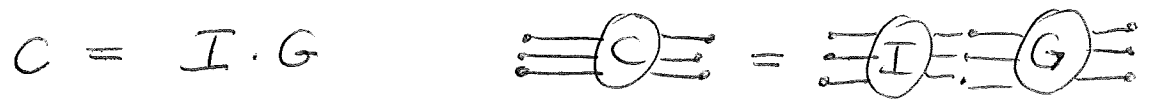
The dots missing on the right mean that G_0 doesn't appear. The equation $G = G^0 + KG$ has the obvious diagram interpretation of looking at the left-most interaction



It's clear what is meant by a connected graph. An irreducible graph is one of the form



such that if the ~~right-most~~ right-most interaction is dropped then it becomes disconnected. Any connected graph has a unique irreducible leading (from the left) part, so we have the equation



An irreducible graph splits into 2 components when the right-most interaction is dropped:

$$I = \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{\substack{\text{partitions} \\ \{1, \dots, N\} = S_1 \cup S_2}} C_{S_1} * C_{S_2} \underbrace{V_{S_1, S_2}}_{\substack{\text{sum of all interactions} \\ \text{between particles of subsystem } S_1 \\ \text{and particles of subsystem } S_2}}$$

can be omitted if ordering of S_1, S_2 is not counted

Finally any contribution to G can be built up from its connected components:

$$G = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m!} \sum_{S_1 \cup \dots \cup S_m = \{1, \dots, N\}} C_{S_1} * \dots * C_{S_m}$$

can be omitted if ordering of S_1, \dots, S_m is not counted.

Convolution is defined by

$$f(w) * g(w) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint f(z) g(w-z) dz$$

contour enclosed singularities of f

and has the effect that

$$\frac{1}{w-a} * \frac{1}{w-b} = \frac{1}{w-a-b}.$$

March 5, 1980

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Return to a many electron system and try to understand dielectric response, Kubo formula, polarization propagator, etc.

An electron gas with N -particles is described ~~classically~~ classically by the Hamiltonian

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p_i^2}{2m} + \sum_{i < j} V(r_i - r_j) \quad V(r) = \frac{e^2}{r}$$

The ~~particle~~ density is $\rho(r) = \sum_{i=1}^N \delta(r - r_i)$

Now
$$\iint dx dx' \rho(x) V(x-x') \rho(x') = \sum_{i,j} V(r_i - r_j)$$

except that this has problems when $r_i = r_j$.

Consider next the quantum situations. If we regard the particles as distinguish, the Hilbert space is $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathcal{H}_N$, ~~whose~~ whose elements are wave functions $\psi(r_1, \dots, r_N)$. Electrons are fermions, so wave functions are skew-symmetric. The particle density $\rho(r)$ becomes an operator; more generally any ^{symmetric} function of r_1, \dots, r_N gives a multiplication operator on skew-symmetric wave functions. Since $\rho(r)$ is a sum of the one-particle functions $r_i \mapsto \delta(r - r_i)$, its effect on $\Lambda^N \mathcal{H}_1$ is that of a derivation. ~~Let~~ Let u_α be an orthonormal basis for \mathcal{H}_1 . Then on \mathcal{H}_1 , one has

$$\langle u_\beta | \rho(r) | u_\alpha \rangle = \overline{u_\beta(r)} u_\alpha(r)$$

and so on the Fock space

$$\rho(r) = \sum_{\beta, \alpha} a_\beta^* \overline{u_\beta(r)} u_\alpha(r) a_\alpha = \psi(r)^* \psi(r)$$

where $\psi(r) = \sum u_\alpha(r) a_\alpha$ is the interior multiplication by $f \mapsto f(r)$.

Assuming $V(0) = 0$ the potential energy can be written

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2} \iint dr dr' \rho(r) V(r-r') \rho(r') \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \iint dr dr' \psi(r)^* \psi(r) V(r-r') \psi(r')^* \psi(r') \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \iint dr dr' \psi(r)^* \psi(r')^* V(r-r') \psi(r') \psi(r) \\ & \quad + \frac{1}{2} \iint dr dr' \psi(r)^* V(r-r') \underbrace{\{\psi(r), \psi(r')^*\}}_{\delta(r-r')} \psi(r') \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\frac{1}{2} \iint dr dr' \psi(r)^* \psi(r) V(r-r') \psi(r')^* \psi(r')} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{correct} \\ \text{potential} \\ \text{energy in} \\ \text{general} \end{array}$$

The 2nd term is $V(0) \frac{1}{2} \int dr \psi(r)^* \psi(r) = \frac{V(0)}{2} N$. Thus one sees that the potential energy is essentially

$$\frac{1}{2} \iint dr dr' \rho(r) V(r-r') \rho(r') + \text{constant}$$

Thomas-Fermi model for an atom. One has a nucleus with charge Ze . The first model (due to Pauli) is treat all the electrons as independent particles subject only to the exclusion principle. Then one puts in Z electrons filling one shell at a time. The Thomas-Fermi and Hartree-Fock models attempt to understand the effects of the Coulomb repulsion between electrons by introducing an average potential due to the nucleus and the other electrons. Let $\varphi(r)$ denote the average or effective potential; by spherical symmetry it depends only on $r = |\underline{r}|$.

With Thomas-Fermi one treats the electrons as a fermi gas with density $\rho(r)$ (here $r = |\underline{r}|$). Once $\varphi(r)$ is given one can solve Schrodinger's equation to get an orthonormal

basis of eigenfunctions $u_\alpha(\mathbf{r})$ and then one gets the density

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\epsilon_\alpha < \epsilon_F} |u_\alpha(\mathbf{r})|^2$$

by giving a Fermi energy. But there is a way to get at this density semi-classically: Recall:

$$\textcircled{*} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{number of eigenvalues} \\ \text{of } \frac{p^2}{2m} + \varphi(\mathbf{r}) < \epsilon_F \end{array} \underset{\text{(spins)}}{\sim} 2 \int_{\frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} + \varphi(\mathbf{r}) < \epsilon_F} \frac{d^3 k d^3 r}{(2\pi)^3} = 2 \int_{\frac{p^2}{2m} + \varphi(\mathbf{r}) < \epsilon_F} \frac{d^3 p d^3 r}{(2\pi\hbar)^3}$$

Thus the number of semi-classical states belonging to a volume $d^3 p d^3 r$ in phase space is $2 \frac{d^3 p d^3 r}{(2\pi\hbar)^3}$. So in a small volume $d^3 r$ the number of electrons, namely $\rho(\mathbf{r}) d^3 r$, should have their momenta distributed in such a way as to fill up all the possible states with position \mathbf{r} and energy $< \epsilon_F$. Thus

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) \quad \blacksquare = 2 \frac{\text{volume of } \frac{p^2}{2m} + \varphi(\mathbf{r}) < \epsilon_F}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} = 2 \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} \frac{4\pi}{3} (2m(\epsilon_F - \varphi(\mathbf{r})))^{3/2}$$

Finally $\varphi(\mathbf{r})$ is determined from $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ by Poisson's equation

$$\Delta\varphi = 4\pi e \rho \quad -e = \text{charge of electron}$$

~~together~~ together with the boundary condition that

$$\varphi(\mathbf{r}) \sim -\frac{Ze^2}{r} \quad \text{as } r \rightarrow 0$$

In connection with the "Weyl" formula $\textcircled{*}$, recall Victor checked it for the harmonic oscillator. One needs:

$$\text{Vol unit ball in } \mathbb{R}^{2n} = \frac{\pi^n}{n!}$$

Is this related to the $\pi^{-5/2} \Gamma(3/2)$ in the final eqn. for J ?