

**Lecture notes for**  
**The Quantum Hall Effect and Beyond:**  
**Fractional Quantum Hall Effect**

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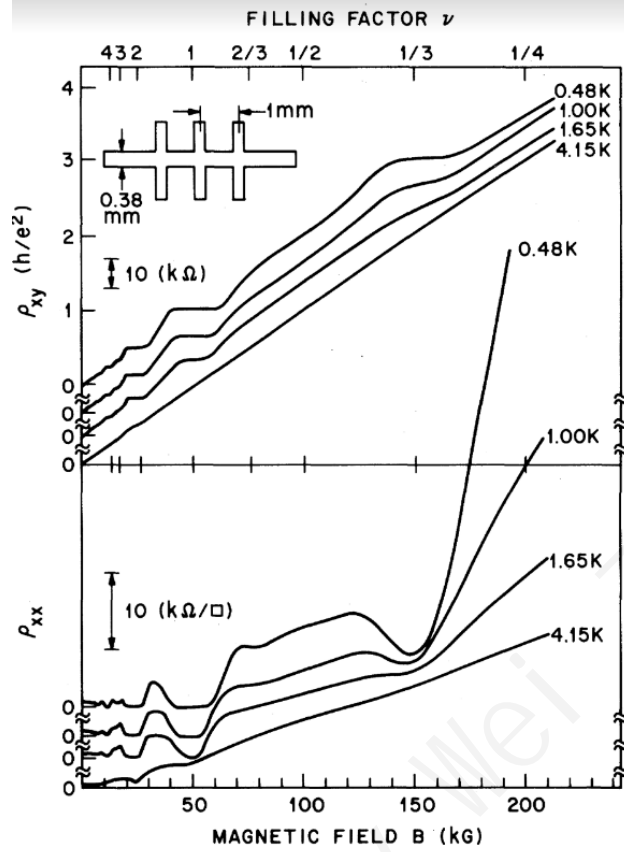


FIG. 1: The magnetic field dependence of Hall and longitudinal resistances,  $\rho_{xy}$  and  $\rho_{xx}$ , for a two-dimensional electron system at the GaAs–AlGaAs interface. Source: D. C. Tsui, H. L. Stormer, and A. C. Gossard, Phys. Rev. Lett. 48, 1559 (1982).

## EXPERIMENTAL OBSERVATIONS

Having just determined that the quantum Hall effect is some sort of spectroscopy on the charge of the electron, it was particularly surprising in 1982 when Dan Tsui and Horst Stormer<sup>1</sup> discovered quantum Hall plateaus at fractional values of the filling fraction  $\nu = p/q$ , and the the Hall resistance

$$R_H = \frac{h}{\nu e^2} \quad (1)$$

with  $p$  and  $q$  integers. This effect is appropriately called the Fractional quantum Hall effect. The first plateau observed was the  $\nu = 1/3$  plateau, but soon thereafter many more plateaus were discovered. The Nobel prize for this discovery was awarded in 1998.

An improvement of experimental conditions (higher mobilities, higher magnetic fields, lower temperatures) has led to the observation of a large number of fractions since then.

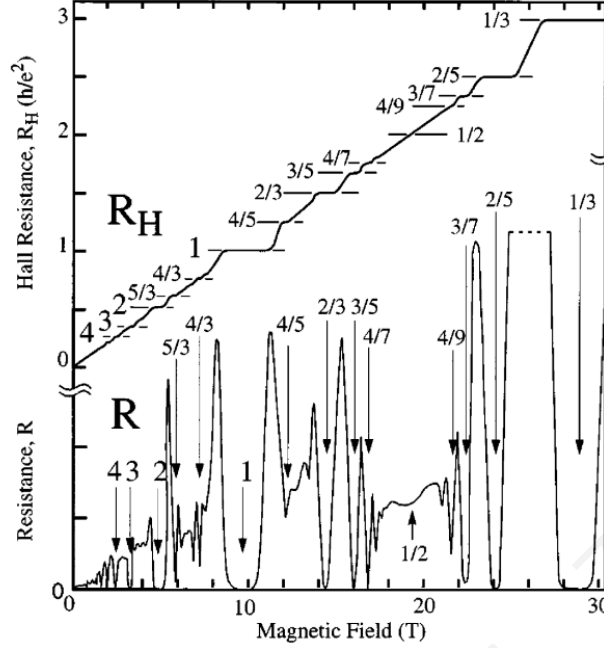


FIG. 2: The improved experimental data. Source: H. L. Stormer, Rev. Mod. Phys. 77, 875 (1999).

Nowadays (2020), the number of observed fractions, counting only fractions below unity, is more than 50, such as  $\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{5}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{2}{7}, \frac{3}{7}, \frac{4}{7}, \frac{5}{7}, \dots$

They are sensitive to disorder. Low-mobility samples do not show a FQHE. The FQHE has a characteristic energy scale of only a few degrees kelvin.

1. Why this phenomenon is exotic? The experimental observation indicates an incompressible state when a Landau level is partially filled. As with the integer case, disorder will be important in allowing us to have plateaus of finite width, but the fundamental physics of the fractional quantum Hall effect comes from the fact that we have a gapped incompressible systems at a particular filling fraction.

We restrict our attention to a clean system with a partially filled (say,  $1/3$  filled) Landau level. If there are  $N_e$  electrons in the system, there are  $3N_e$  available single electron orbitals in which to place these electrons. Thus in the absence of disorder, and in the absence of interaction, there are  $\binom{3N_e}{N_e} \sim 6^{N_e}$ , and all of these states have the same energy! In the thermodynamic limit this is an enormous degeneracy. (i.e. the energy gap should be zero at fractional filling.) This enormous degeneracy is broken by the interaction between the electrons, which will pick out a very small ground state manifold (in this case being just 3 degenerate ground states), and will leave the rest of this enormous Hilbert space with higher

energy.

2. How to understand this phenomenon?

The disorder hypothesis may be immediately discarded as the driving mechanism of the FQHE because, in contrast to the IQHE, the FQHE only occurs in high-quality samples with low impurity concentrations.

No way to solve it in the single-particle picture. We have to involve electron-electron interaction.

If the interaction is the only relevant scale, we thus obtain a system of strongly-correlated electrons for the description of which all perturbative approaches starting from the Fermi liquid are doomed to fail. The only hope one may have to describe the FQHE is then a well-educated guess of the ground state. This is quite different.

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## LAUGHLIN'S THEORY

### Landau level in symmetric gauge

$$H = \frac{1}{2m}(\mathbf{p} - e\mathbf{A})^2 \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r})$  is the vector potential that generates the magnetic field

$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \quad (3)$$

When we choose the symmetric gauge:  $\mathbf{A} = B(-y/2, x/2, 0)$ ,

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \left[ (-i\partial_x - \frac{y}{2})^2 + (-i\partial_y + \frac{x}{2})^2 \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[ -4 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z \partial \bar{z}} + \frac{1}{4} z \bar{z} - z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} + \bar{z} \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} \right] \quad (4)$$

where we define  $z = x - iy = re^{-i\theta}$ ,  $\bar{z} = x + iy = re^{i\theta}$ ,  $\partial_x = \partial_z + \partial_{\bar{z}}$ ,  $\partial_y = -i(\partial_z - \partial_{\bar{z}})$ . The ladder operators can be defined as

$$a^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{\bar{z}}{2} - 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \quad (5)$$

$$a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{z}{2} + 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} \right) \quad (6)$$

$$b^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{z}{2} - 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} \right) \quad (7)$$

$$b = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{\bar{z}}{2} + 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \quad (8)$$

$$[a, a^\dagger] = 1, \quad [b, b^\dagger] = 1 \quad (9)$$

The hamiltonian becomes

$$H = a^\dagger a + 1/2 \quad (10)$$

In addition, The  $z$  component of the angular momentum operator is defined as

$$L_z = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} = -\hbar \left( z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - \bar{z} \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} \right) = -\hbar (b^\dagger b - a^\dagger a) \quad (11)$$

Exploiting the property  $[H, L_z] = 0$ , the eigenfunctions are chosen to diagonalize  $H$  and  $L$  simultaneously. The eigenvalue of  $L$  is denoted by  $-m\hbar$ ; with this definition the quantum number  $m$  takes values  $-n, -n + 1, \dots$

The ground state wave function is solved by  $a|0, 0\rangle = 0, b|0, 0\rangle = 0$ . We obtain

$$\langle r|0, 0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\ell}} e^{-\frac{|z|^2}{4}}. \quad (12)$$

The other wavefunctions are obtained by (The wave function in the lowest Landau level)

$$\langle r|n, m\rangle = \frac{(a^\dagger)^n (b^\dagger)^m}{\sqrt{n!} \sqrt{m!}} \langle r|0, 0\rangle \quad (13)$$

Especially, the single particle states are especially simple in the lowest Landau level ( $n = 0$ ):

$$\langle r|n = 0, m\rangle = \frac{(b^\dagger)^m}{\sqrt{m!}} \langle r|0, 0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi 2^m m!} \ell} z^m e^{-|z|^2/4} \quad (14)$$

This wave function represents an electron localized circularly in disk. The maximum of the existence probability is on the circumference of a circle of radius  $\sqrt{2m}\ell$ , and the spread of the wave function in the radial direction is of the order of  $\ell$ . The expectation value of  $r^2$  is  $\langle 0, m|r^2|0, m\rangle = 2(m+1)\ell^2$ . Thus the largest value of  $m$  for which the state falls inside the disk is given by  $m_{max} = \pi R^2/2\pi\ell^2$ ,

Exercises. Prove the normalization condition of electron wave functions.

$$\langle 0, m|0, m'\rangle = \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi 2^m m!} \ell} z^m e^{-|z|^2/4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi 2^{m'} m'!} \ell} z^{m'} e^{-|z|^2/4} \quad (15)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi 2^m m!} \ell} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi 2^{m'} m'!} \ell} \int_{\psi=0}^{2\pi} \int_0^\infty dr d\psi e^{-i(m-m')\psi} r^{m+m'+1} e^{-r^2} \quad (16)$$

$$= \frac{\delta_{m,m'}}{m!} m! = \delta_{m,m'} \quad (17)$$

Exercises. Prove the average area of each Landau orbital.

### Two-electron problem

Unsymmetrised two-particle basis states from the lowest Landau level have the form

$$\psi(z_1, z_2) \sim z_1^{l_1} z_2^{l_2} e^{-(|z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2)/4} \quad (18)$$

with  $l$  non-negative integers. We will consider combinations of these that are eigenfunctions of relative and centre-of-mass angular momentum. They have the form

$$\psi(z_1, z_2) \sim (z_1 - z_2)^l (z_1 + z_2)^m e^{-(|z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2)/4} \quad (19)$$

### Laughlin wave function

When the FQHE was discovered, R. Laughlin realized that one could write down a many-body variational wave function at filling factor  $\nu = 1/q$ . This seminal idea opens a door the answer to the FQHE.

The many-body problem is

$$H = \sum_j \left[ \frac{1}{2m} | -i\hbar\partial_j - e\mathbf{A}_j|^2 \right] + \sum_{j<i} \frac{e^2}{|z_j - z_i|} \quad (20)$$

Laughlin proposed the wave function of ground state of the above hamiltonian at  $\nu = 1/q$  is [R. Laughlin, Anomalous Quantum Hall Effect: An Incompressible Quantum Fluid with Fractionally Charged Excitations Phys. Rev. Lett. 50, 1395 (1983) ; ABSTRACT: This Letter presents variational ground-state and excited-state wave functions which describe the condensation of a two-dimensional electron gas into a new state of matter.]:

$$\psi_q = \prod_{j,i=1}^{N_e} (z_j - z_i)^q \prod_{j=1}^{N_e} e^{-|z_j|^2/4\ell^2} \quad (21)$$

Next we try to understand this famous wave function:

- For  $q$  being an odd integer, this wave function obeys Fermi statistics.
- The value  $q = 1$  describes a full Landau level. Higher values ensure that the probability density falls faster to zero as a pair of particles approach each other.
- The angular momentum is  $M = N_e(N_e - 1)q/2$ .
- In the polynomial part of Laughlin's wave function, an electron coordinate  $z_i$  has  $M = (N_e - 1)q$  as the maximum power. This is the maximum angular momentum that the electron can have, and in this state the area that this electron encloses becomes maximum. The maximum area is determined by the largest momentum:  $A = 2(M + 1)\pi\ell^2$ , thus the filling factor  $\nu = N_e 2\pi\ell^2 / A = N_e / (M + 1) = N_e / [(N_e - 1)q] \sim 1/q$ .

We emphasize once again that Laughlin's wave function is not based on a mathematical derivation, although we will see below that there exist some mathematical models for which it describes the exact ground state, but it is more appropriately characterised as a variational wave function.

Laughlin wave function builds in good correlations among the electrons because each electron sees an  $q$ -fold zero at the positions of all the other electrons. The wave function vanishes extremely rapidly if any two electrons approach each other, which helps to minimize the expectation value of the interaction.

How good the Laughlin wave function is? Let us see some numerics in Fig. 3, which compares the Laughlin wave function with numerically obtained exact diagonalization results.

$N_e$	$N_H$	$\langle \Psi_0   \Psi_3 \rangle$
4	18	0.99804
5	73	0.99906
6	338	0.99644
7	1656	0.99636
8	8512	0.99540
9	45207	0.99406

FIG. 3: Overlap of the wave functions for a system at  $1/3$ .  $\Psi_0$  is the exact ground state of the Coulomb interaction.

### Variational View Point

Alternatively, one can take  $q$  in Eq. 21 as a variational parameter. Then we can test which value of  $q$  will give the best variational energy. Consider Laughlin's wave function as a function of the position  $z_k$  of some arbitrary but fixed electron  $k$ . There are  $N - 1$  factors of the type  $(z_k - z_l)^q$ , one for each of the remaining  $N - 1$  electrons. Now, remember that the highest power of the complex particle position is fixed by the number of states  $N_\phi$  in each LL. This yields the relation  $N_\phi = q(N - 1)$ . One notices that, in the thermodynamic limit, the "variational parameter" is entirely fixed by the filling factor  $\nu = N/N_\phi = N/q(N - 1) \approx 1/q$ , thus  $q = 1/\nu$ . Since we need additional exchange relation, the even  $q$  should be excluded. Therefore, we only see FQHE at odd integer  $q$ .

### Classical Plasma

We go further examine the physics behind this wave function. We think of the probability density arising from this wavefunction as if it were the Boltzmann weight for a problem in classical statistical mechanics. We define a fictitious inverse temperature  $\beta = 1$  and classical Hamiltonian  $H_m$  via

$$|\psi_q|^2 = \exp[-H_m] \quad (22)$$

$$H_m = -2q \sum_{i < j} \ln |z_i - z_j| + \sum_j |z_j|^2 / 2\ell^2. \quad (23)$$

For a charge neutral two-dimensional classical plasma, the interaction is given by

$$V(r) = -e^2 \sum_{j < k} \ln r_{ij} + \frac{1}{2} \pi \rho e^2 \sum_j r_j^2 \quad (24)$$

where the particles are interacting via a two-dimensional Coulomb (logarithmic) interaction with each other and with a uniform neutralizing background. It is clear that  $H_m$  is the Hamiltonian for a two-dimensional classical plasma with,  $e^2 = 2q$ ,  $\rho_q = 1/(2\pi\ell^2q)$ . Therefore, in order to achieve charge neutrality, the plasma particles spread out uniformly in a disk with particle density corresponding to a filling factor  $\nu = 1/q$ , where  $q$  is an odd integer. The classical plasma provides strong support that the Laughlin state is indeed a translationally invariant liquid.

To interpret this form we should recall electrostatics in two dimensions: a point charge  $Q$  at the origin gives rise at radius  $r$  to an electric field

$$E(r) \sim \frac{Q}{2\pi r} \text{ with potential } V(r) \sim -\frac{Q}{2\pi} \ln r \quad (25)$$

Thus the two particle potential is like  $-\frac{q^2}{2\pi} \ln |z_i - z_j|$ , which represents the electrostatic interaction of particles with charge  $q$ .

The single particle term  $\frac{q}{8\pi} \sum_k |z_k|^2$  would arise for particles of charge  $q$  moving in an electrostatic potential  $|z|^2/(8\pi)$ . We can view this potential as arising from a background charge distribution, and find the density of these charges using Poisson's equation.

### Quasi-hole Statistics and Fractionalization

We consider a situation where the filling factor is close to  $1/q$  and there is only one quasihole in the system. Let us add a perturbation to a Hamiltonian which gives the fractional quantum Hall effect. The Hamiltonian then has a similar form to

$$H_{hole} = H_0 + \epsilon V(z - z_a) \quad (26)$$

The weak perturbation attracts the quasihole to  $z_a$ , which is a coordinate in the two-dimensional space represented by a complex number. The ground state of this Hamiltonian is evidently a state in which the quasihole is trapped at  $z_a$ :

$$\Psi(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{N_e}) \sim \prod_i (z_i - z_a) \psi_q \quad (27)$$

where  $\psi_q$  is the Laughlin wave function and there is an unspecified normalization factor here.

Now we move the quasihole in the real space and enclose a circle. The Berry phase in this case is calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\gamma_C &= i \oint_C \langle \Psi_{r(t)} | \frac{\partial}{\partial r_t} | \Psi_{r(t)} \rangle dr(t) \\
&= i \oint_C \langle \Psi_{z_a} | \frac{\partial}{\partial z_a} \Psi_{z_a} \rangle dz_a \\
&= i \oint_C dz_a \langle \Psi_{z_a} | [ \frac{\partial}{\partial z_a} \sum_i \ln(z_i - z_a) ] | \Psi_{z_a} \rangle \\
&= i \oint_C dz_a d^2z \frac{\partial}{\partial z_a} \ln(z - z_a) \langle \Psi_{z_a} | \sum_i \delta(z - z_i) | \Psi_{z_a} \rangle \\
&= i \oint_C dz_a \int d^2z \frac{\partial}{\partial z_a} \ln(z - z_a) \rho(z) \\
&= i \int d^2z \rho(z) \oint_C dz_a \frac{\partial}{\partial z_a} \ln(z - z_a) \\
&= i \int d^2z \rho(z) (-2i\pi) = 2\pi \int d^2z \rho(z) = 2\pi \langle n \rangle = 2\pi S \frac{\nu}{2\pi\ell^2} = \frac{eBS}{q\hbar} \equiv e^* \frac{BS}{\hbar} \quad (28)
\end{aligned}$$

Here we assume the electron density is uniform  $\rho(z) = \nu/2\pi\ell^2$ . This result can be interpreted as the AB phase that a quasihole of charge  $e^* = e/q$  acquires in the magnetic field. The size of this charge coincides with that of the quasi-hole at  $\nu = 1/q$ .

Similarly, we can also study statistics of the quasiparticles. When the two quasiholes are at  $z_a, z_b$ , the wave function can be written as

$$\Psi_{a,b} = \prod (z_i - z_a)(z_i - z_b) \psi_q(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{N_e}) \quad (29)$$

And we calculate the berry phase, when the quasihole at  $z_a$  moves adiabatically around a closed loop C. This calculation is parallel to the one quasihole case:

$$\gamma_C = 2\pi \int_C d^2z \rho(z) = 2\pi \langle n \rangle \stackrel{!}{=} 2\pi \left( \frac{\nu}{2\pi\ell^2} S - \frac{1}{q} \right) \quad (30)$$

Here the only difference is the density in the contour C is not uniform, but we have another quasihole at  $z_b$ , which leads to the density around  $z_b$  lower. The reduce of number of electrons is  $1/q$ . The charge of a quasihole should be independent of the presence of other quasiholes. So we must attribute this extra phase to some other cause. We interpret the extra phase as coming from a fictitious magnetic flux attached to each quasihole. Namely, we consider that the quasiholes are anyons by nature. Therefore, when we treat them as bosons in wavefunction, they appear as composite particles with flux attached to recover their anyonic nature: the exchange or interchange of two quasiholes gives a phase  $\pi/q$ , i.e. the quasi-holes obey fractional statistics.

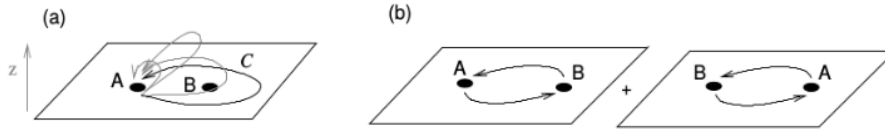


FIG. 4: (a) Process in which a particle A moves on a path C around another particle B. In three space dimensions, one may profit from the third direction (z-direction) to lift the path over particle B and thus to shrink the path into a single point. (b) Process equivalent to moving A on a closed path around B which consists, apart from a topologically irrelevant translation, of two successive exchanges of A and B.

### Fractional Statistics

One of the most exotic consequences of charge fractionalisation in 2D quantum mechanics, exemplified by Laughlin quasi-particles, is fractional statistics. Remember that, in three space dimensions, the quantum-mechanical treatment of two and more particles yields a superselection rule according to which quantum particles are, from a statistical point of view, either bosons or fermions. This superselection rule is no longer valid in 2D (two space dimensions), and one may find intermediate statistics between bosons and fermions.

In order to illustrate the different statistical (i.e. exchange) properties of two quantum particles in three and two space dimensions, consider a particle A that moves adiabatically on a closed path C in the xy-plane around another one B of the same species (see Fig. 4). Path C in the xy-plane around another one B of the same species. We choose the path to be sufficiently far away from particle B and the two particles to be sufficiently localised such that we can neglect corrections due to the overlap between the two corresponding wave functions. Notice first that such a process T is equivalent to two successive exchange processes  $T = E^2$ .

Let us discuss first the three-dimensional case. Because of the presence of the third direction (z-direction), one may elevate the closed path in this direction while keeping the position of particle A fixed in the xy plane. We have  $T(C) = 1$ , so  $E = 1$  (boson) or  $E = -1$  (fermion).

In two space dimensions, this topological argument yields a completely different result. It is not possible to shrink a path C enclosing the second particle B into a single point at the

position of A, without passing by B itself. From an algebraic point of view, the exchange processes are no longer described by the two roots of unity, 1 and -1, but by the so-called braiding group. In the simplest case of Abelian statistics,

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi(\mathbf{r}_2) = e^{i\alpha\pi}\psi(\mathbf{r}_2)\psi(\mathbf{r}_1) \quad (31)$$

where  $\alpha$  is also called the statistical angle. One has  $\alpha = 0$  for bosons and  $\alpha = 1$  for fermions, and all other values of  $\alpha$  in the interval between 0 and 2 for anyons. Sometimes anyonic statistics is also called fractional statistics - indeed all physical quasi-particles, such as those relevant for the FQHE, have an angle that is a fractional (or rational) number, but there is no fundamental objection that irrational values of the statistical angle should be excluded.

## COMPOSITE FERMION THEORY

In the previous chapter it was demonstrated that the state that causes the fractional quantum Hall effect can be essentially represented by Laughlin's wave function. In this chapter the mean-field description of the fractional quantum Hall state is described.

### Flux attachment

We consider a Hamiltonian for N-fermion:

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2m} [\mathbf{p}_i^2 - e\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}_i)]^2 + \sum_i eA_0(\mathbf{r}_i) + \sum_{i<j} V(\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j) \quad (32)$$

$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}_i)$  and  $A_0$  are the vector potentials. Because we are dealing with fermions, the wave function in the eigenvalue problem,

$$H\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N) = E\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N) \quad (33)$$

$$\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_i, \dots, \mathbf{r}_j, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N) = -\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_j, \dots, \mathbf{r}_i, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N) \quad (34)$$

Next, we try to consider a different problem, by introducing a new vector potential (gauge field)  $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r})$  to each electron:

$$H' = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2m} [\mathbf{p}_i^2 - e\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}_i) + e\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r}_i)]^2 + \sum_i eA_0(\mathbf{r}_i) + \sum_{i<j} V(\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j) \quad (35)$$

and the new vector potential ( $\phi_0 = 2\pi\hbar/e = 2\pi/e$  by setting  $\hbar = 1$ )

$$\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r}_i) = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \sum_{j \neq i} \nabla_i \alpha_{ij} \quad (36)$$

where  $\alpha_{ij} = \arctan \frac{y_j - y_i}{x_i - x_j}$  is the angle of  $\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j$ .

Physically, this picture can be viewed as shown in Fig. 5. The newly introduced gauge field is represented by a flux tube, resulting from all other electrons (see discussion in the frame).

*The gauge field induced by each flux.* Let us define two electrons at position  $\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{r}_j$ , respectively.  $\alpha_{ij}$  is the angle between the x axis and the difference vector between  $\mathbf{r}_j$

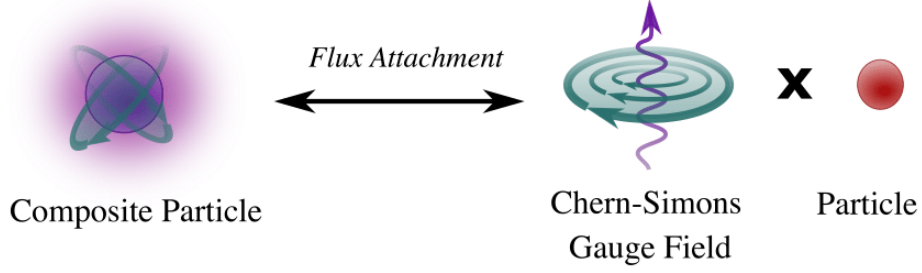


FIG. 5: Flux attachment scheme: A composite particle is made of a bare particle with a flux tube.

and  $\mathbf{r}_i$  (i.e.,  $\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{r}_i$ ). Here, the value  $\alpha_{ij}$  is determined only up to  $2\pi$ . The angle can be expressed by the coordinates as:

$$\alpha_{ij} = \arctan \frac{y_j - y_i}{x_i - x_i} \quad (37)$$

Next, we consider one electron is attached by a flux  $\phi_0$  (in unit of  $2\pi$ ), and ask what the vector potential is in the real space. So the problem is to solve the vector potential  $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r})$  for the condition

$$\nabla \times \mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r}) = \phi_0 \delta(\mathbf{r}) \hat{e}_z \quad (38)$$

One can check that, the solution is

$$\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \frac{1}{r} \hat{e}_\varphi = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \left( \frac{-y}{|\mathbf{r}|^2}, \frac{x}{|\mathbf{r}|^2} \right) \quad (39)$$

since

$$\oint_C \mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} r d\varphi \frac{1}{r} = \phi_0 \quad (40)$$

Importantly, one may notice that, the vector field, that is generated by electron at position  $\mathbf{r}_j$  is experienced by the other electron at position  $\mathbf{r}_i$ , can be expressed by

$$\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{r}_j) = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \left( -\frac{y_i - y_j}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|^2}, \frac{x_i - x_j}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|^2} \right) = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \nabla_i \alpha_{ij} \quad (41)$$

where the angle  $\alpha_{ij}$  has been defined above.

Suppose that we have  $N$  electrons in the system, the total vector potential generated by  $N - 1$  electrons are:

$$\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r}_i) = \sum_{j \neq i} \mathcal{A}(\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{r}_j) = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \sum_{j \neq i} \nabla_i \alpha_{ij} \quad (42)$$

Next we can write the vector potential  $\mathcal{A}$  into the continuum form as

$$\mathcal{A}_\mu(\mathbf{r}_i) = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \int d\mathbf{r}' \rho(\mathbf{r}') \frac{\partial}{\partial x_\mu} \alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') \quad (43)$$

where  $\rho(\mathbf{r})$  is charge density. Then we observe that this vector field is a pure gauge, i.e.  $\mathcal{A}_\mu(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_\mu} \Lambda(\mathbf{r})$  where  $\Lambda(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \alpha(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') \rho(\mathbf{r}')$ .

Since it is a pure gauge,  $\mathcal{A}$  can be removed through the gauge transformation

$$A_\mu \rightarrow A'_\mu = A_\mu - \partial_\mu \Lambda = 0. \quad (44)$$

This exactly involves correspondingly a gauge redefinition of the field operators as

$$\Psi(x) \rightarrow \Psi'(x) = e^{ie\Lambda(x)} \Psi(x) = e^{ie\frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} \alpha(\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}') \rho(\mathbf{r}')} \Psi(x) \quad (45)$$

while the Hamiltonian changes with  $D_\mu \rightarrow \partial_\mu$ :

$$H' = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2m} [\mathbf{p}_i^2 - e\mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{r}_i)]^2 + \sum_i eA'_0(\mathbf{r}_i) + \sum_{i<j} V(\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j) \quad (46)$$

$$H'\Psi' = E'\Psi' \quad (47)$$

However, the new free fields do not obey standard anticommutation relations any longer. These are in fact replaced e.g. by the braiding relation

$$\Psi'(\dots, \mathbf{r}_i, \dots, \mathbf{r}_j, \dots) = -e^{ie\frac{\phi_0}{2\pi} [\alpha(\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j) - \alpha(\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{r}_i)]} \Psi'(\dots, \mathbf{r}_j, \dots, \mathbf{r}_i, \dots) \quad (48)$$

Introducing a cut along the negative x axis and measuring angles from the positive x axis, so that all angles belong to  $[-\pi, \pi)$  and becomes single-valued, one has

$$\alpha(\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j) - \alpha(\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{r}_i) = \pm\pi \quad (49)$$

So, we reach that

$$\Psi'(\dots, \mathbf{r}_i, \dots, \mathbf{r}_j, \dots) = -e^{i\pi} \Psi'(\dots, \mathbf{r}_j, \dots, \mathbf{r}_i, \dots) = \Psi'(\dots, \mathbf{r}_j, \dots, \mathbf{r}_i, \dots) \quad (50)$$

Therefore, the gauge transformation, Eq. 44, is equivalent to transmuting fermions into anyons with statistical parameter  $\alpha = \pi$ . Or, we have shown that this system composed of fermions coupled to attached flux fields does indeed describe anyons with an appropriate statistical parameter. In the example here, the composite fermion turns out to be a boson!

### Jain's construction

First of all, we define, a composite fermion is the bound state of an electron and an even number of quantized vortices. The fundamental postulate is, strongly interacting electrons turn into weakly interacting composite fermions, where a composite fermion is a bound state of an electron and an even number of quantized vortices.

First we consider the state at  $1/q$  as the starting point of the theory. At this filling factor the real external magnetic field has a strength which corresponds to  $q$  magnetic flux quanta per electron. When we replace the electrons by composite fermions, which have  $2k$  flux quanta in the opposite direction, the mean field of the fictitious flux cancels part of the external magnetic field such that the effective field for a composite fermion corresponds to  $q - 2k$  flux quanta per composite fermion. The number  $q - 2k$  is still odd. Namely, if  $q - 2k = 1$ , the effective filling factor  $\nu$  of the composite fermions is 1, the integer quantum Hall state, and if  $q - 2k > 1$ , they are in a fractional quantum Hall state. Therefore, in this picture the fractional quantum Hall states at  $\nu = 1/q$  are all equivalent to the integer quantum Hall state at  $\nu = 1$ .

Similarly, we can understand the filling  $\nu = \frac{n}{2kn+1}$  in the same way, therefore  $2/5, 3/7, \dots$  can all be understood.

The microscopic meaning of the formation of composite fermions is that, the Hamiltonian becomes

$$H_{MF} = \frac{1}{m_b} (\mathbf{p}_i + e\mathbf{A}^*(\mathbf{r}_i) + e\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{r}_i))^2 \quad (51)$$

where  $A^*$  produces a uniform magnetic field  $B^*$ . We assume that composite fermions are free. The vector potential  $\mathbf{a}^*$  binds flux quanta to electrons:

$$\mathbf{a}_i^* = \frac{2p\phi_0}{2\pi} \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{\hat{r}_{ij}}{r_{ij}^2}, \quad r_{ij} = |z_i - z_j| \quad (52)$$

which generates a magnetic field

$$\mathbf{b}_i = \nabla \times \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{r}_i) = 2p\phi_0 \sum_{j \neq i} \delta^{(2)}(\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j) \quad (53)$$

The corresponding wave function of interacting electrons at  $\nu$  has the form

$$\Psi_{\nu=\frac{n}{2pn \pm 1}}^{MF}(B) = P_{LLL} \Phi_{\pm n}(B^*) \prod_{i < j} (z_i - z_j)^{2p} \quad (54)$$

where  $\Phi = \prod_{i<j} (z_i - z_j) \exp[-|z_i|^2/2\ell^2]$  is an antisymmetric wave function for electrons in IQHE. The Jastrow factor,  $\prod_{i<j} (z_i - z_k)^{2p}$ , binds  $2p$  vortices to each electron to convert it into a composite fermion.  $P_{LLL}$  denotes projection into the lowest Landau level.

As an example, we now show how the Laughlin wave function can be “derived” from the CF theory. For the ground state at  $\nu = 1/(2p + 1)$ , the projected wave function reduces to

$$\Psi_{\nu=\frac{1}{2p+1}}^{MF} = P_{LLL} \prod_{i<j} (z_i - z_j)^{2p} \Phi_1, \quad (55)$$

$$\Phi_1 = \prod_{i<j} (z_i - z_j) \exp[-\sum_i |z_i|^2/\ell^2] \quad (56)$$

which gives

$$\Psi_{\nu=\frac{1}{2p+1}}^{MF} = P_{LLL} \prod_{i<j} (z_i - z_j)^{2p+1} \exp[-\sum_i |z_i|^2/\ell^2] \quad (57)$$

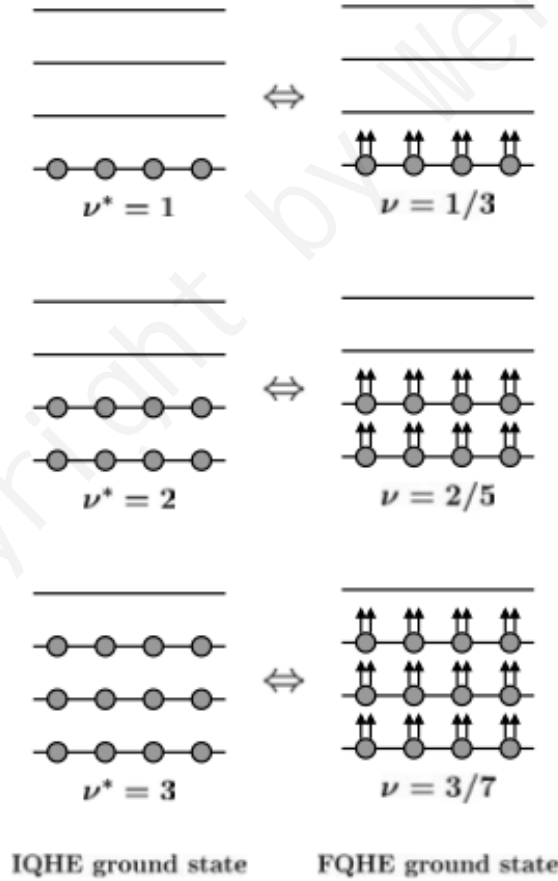


FIG. 6: The composite fermion picture. “*Lambda*” levels are analogous to Landau levels of electrons at  $B^*$ .

This is exactly identical to Laughlin wave function at  $\nu = 1/(2p + 1)$ . (The projection operator does not do anything because the wave function is already in the lowest Landau level.)

How do we know the statistics of a composite fermion? To answer this question, we need to check the exchange operation between two composite fermion: exchange two fermion leads to a factor  $-1$ ; winding one fermion around a flux quanta by  $\pi$  leads to a factor  $-1$ ; so that winding a composite fermion (constructed by one electron and two flux quanta) leads to a total factor  $-1$ , therefore a composite fermion takes the fermionic statistics.

Furthermore, composite particle theory can be generalized to the composite boson. So that we can predict the FQHE for boson at filling  $\nu = 1/2p$  (this is quite different from fermion). Here we can prove a composite particle which encloses one electron and one flux quanta takes bosonic statistics. Then the  $\nu = 1/3$  state will be reduced to a bosonic  $\nu = 1/2$  state. We can argue bosonic  $\nu = 1/2$  state should be a FQHE state.

### HALDANE'S THEORY

In this section we show how the FQHE at the filling factors  $\nu = p/q$  can be understood from the viewpoint of a hierarchy [F.D.M. Haldane: Phys. Rev. Lett. 51, 605 (1983)].

In this theory, we start our reasoning by noticing that there is a correspondence between the original electron system and the system of quasiparticles. Namely, the electrons have charge and repel each other, which gives rise to a Laughlin state. Similarly, quasiparticles are charged and repel each other. Thus we can expect that they form a Laughlin state at appropriate densities. An important feature is that the quasiparticles do not interact with electrons, since the quasiparticles are excitations from the uniform electron state. We examine the question of at what density the quasiparticles form a Laughlin state.

We consider a system of area  $S$  with  $N_e$  electrons. In this case the number of single-electron states is  $N_s = S/2\pi\ell^2$ . Recall that the number of single-particle orbital is related to maximum power of the Laughlin wave function:  $N_s = M + 1$ . So we know that, for a single quasihole wave function  $\prod_i (z_i - z_a) \Psi_q$ , it is a polynomial of order  $N_e$  (for  $z_a$ ), so the number of single-quasihole states is  $N_s^{q.h.} = N_e + 1$ . If we consider a multi-quasi-hole state:

$$\prod_i (z_i - z_a) \prod_j (z_j - z_b) \prod_k (z_k - z_c) \dots \times \Psi_q \quad (58)$$

Here  $z_a, z_b \dots$  indicate the positions of the quasiholes. The orders of the polynomial with respect to each quasi-hole is still  $N_e$ , so the number of single quasi-hole states is  $N_s^{q.h.} = N_e + 1$ . Here we assume the quasiholes are boson, or they are not the identical particles. Bosonic Laughlin state should be written as  $\prod (z_i - z_j)^{2p}$  at filling  $\nu = 1/2p$ , by directly extending the fermionic Laughlin state. Namely, the state is realized when  $\nu^{q.h.} = 1/2p = N_e^{q.h.}/N_s^{q.h.}$ , where  $N_e^{q.h.}$  is the number of quasi-holes. Please distinguish the filling factor of quasi-holes  $\nu^{q.h.}$  from that of electrons  $\nu$ . Finally, we calculate the filling factor of electrons to fill the consistent relationship. Say, the largest power of an electron in the multiple quasi-hole wave function is  $(N_e - 1)q + N_e^{q.h.}$ , which should be equal to  $N_s - 1$ . The filling of electrons therefore is

$$\nu = \frac{N_e}{N_s} = \frac{N_e}{(N_e - 1)q + N_e^{q.h.}} = \frac{N_e}{(N_e - 1)q + (N_e + 1)/2p} \sim \frac{2p}{2pq + 1}. \quad (59)$$

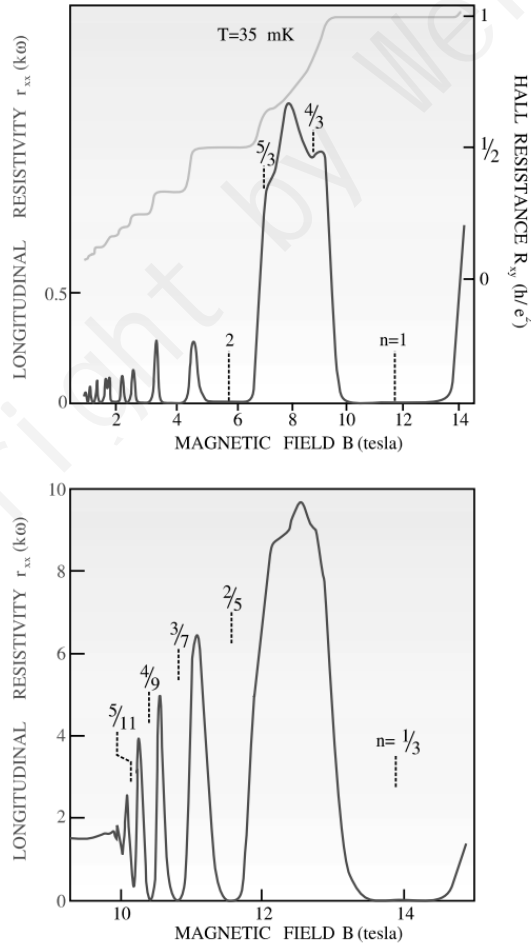


FIG. 7: Comparing the FQHE and the IQHE (J. K. Jain, Physics Today 53 (4), 39 (2000)).

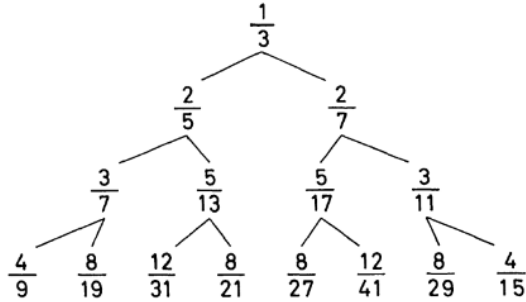


FIG. 8: Haldane hierarchy state by setting  $p_i = 1$  based on Laughlin  $\nu = 1/q = 1/3$ .

As an example, we put  $p = 1$  to construct the state at  $\nu = 2/5$ . What we have shown at this point is that if quasiparticles are introduced into the Laughlin state of electrons, which we call the parent generation, the quasi particles, which belong to the daughter generation, form a Laughlin state of their own. We can take this relation further: when quasiparticles of the granddaughter generation are introduced into the daughter generation Laughlin state of quasiparticles, they form a Laughlin state at appropriate densities. Similarly, a great-granddaughter generation Laughlin state will be formed, and so on. As a result, the filling factor of electrons when the Laughlin state is formed at some stage of these generations is as follows:

$$\nu = \frac{1}{q + \frac{\alpha_1 \alpha_2}{2p_1 + 2p_2 + \dots}} \quad (60)$$

$\alpha = 0, \pm 1$ , and  $p_i$  is an arbitrary positive integer.

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- [1] E. Fradkin, Field Theories of Condensed Matter Physics. Cambridge University Press, 2013.

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