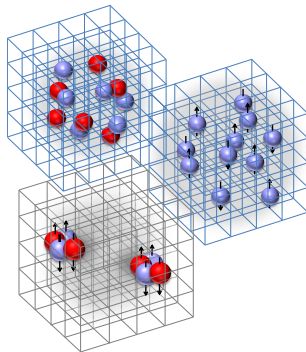


From chiral effective field theory to a lattice Hamiltonian

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How to put nucleons, pions, and short-range interactions on a finite lattice

How do we turn a continuum nuclear interaction into something that can be represented and calculated on a finite spatial lattice?

■ Why chiral EFT?

- ☐ why chiral EFT is appropriate for low-energy nuclear physics;
- ☐ the relevant degrees of freedom and expansion scales;

■ Why put it on a lattice?

- ☐ understand lattice spacings as regulators;

■ One free particle on a lattice

■ Two-body contact interaction

■ Spin, isospin and pions

■ From Hamiltonian to transfer matrix

■ First numerical exercise

From Chiral EFT to a Spatial Lattice

continuum nuclear physics $\longrightarrow$ regulated lattice Hamiltonian

Why chiral EFT?



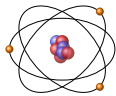
Quarks
 $< 10^{-16}$



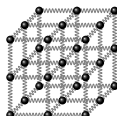
Nucleons
 $\sim 10^{-13}$



Nucleus
 $\sim 10^{-12}$

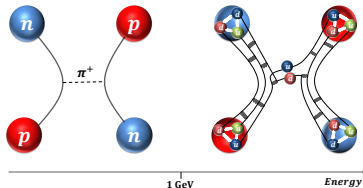


Atoms
 $\sim 10^{-8}$ cm



Matter

- Quantum chromodynamics (QCD) describes the strong forces by confining quarks (and gluons) into baryons and mesons.
- At low energy: $N = (p, n)$, $\pi = (\pi^+, \pi^0, \pi^-)$
- Translating QCD directly into nuclear forces:



“separation of scales”

Λ_χ : chiral symmetry-breakdown scale

$m_u, m_d, m_s \rightarrow 0$ chiral limit

S. Weinberg, *Phys. Lett. B* 251 (1990) 288, *Nucl. Phys. B* 363 (1991) 3, *Phys. Lett. B* 295 (1992) 114.

- Effective theories provide the solution to bridge the gap between QCD and the nuclear interactions

Chiral EFT for nucleons: nuclear forces

Chiral effective field theory organizes the nuclear interactions as an expansion in powers of momenta and other low energy scales such as the pion mass (Q/Λ_χ).

- Short distances are not resolved explicitly; they are encoded in contact operators.
- Long-range physics: pion exchange.
- Many-body physics: three- and higher-nucleon forces.

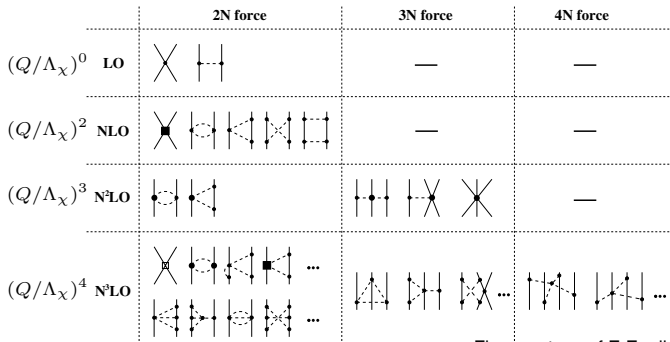
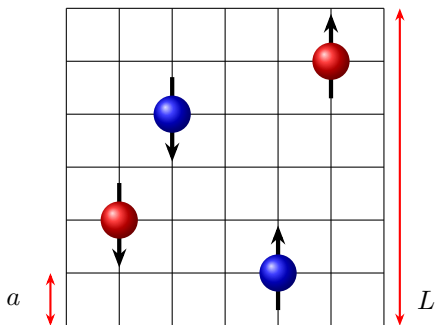


Fig. courtesy of E. Epelbaum

Ordóñez et al. '94; Friar & Coon '94; Kaiser et al. '97; Epelbaum et al. '98,'03,'05,'15; Kaiser '99-'01; Higa et al. '03; ...

Lattice effective field theory: Why a lattice?

- Lattice effective field theory is a powerful numerical method formulated in the framework of chiral effective field theory.
- Lattice EFT is a regulated EFT, not merely a numerical grid method.



$$\mathbf{x} = a \mathbf{n}, \quad \mathbf{n} = (n_x, n_y, n_z)$$

$$p_{\max} = \pi/a$$

$$\text{UV regulator: } \Lambda \sim \pi/a$$

$$\text{finite volume: } L_{\text{phys}} = L a$$

finite-dimensional Hilbert space

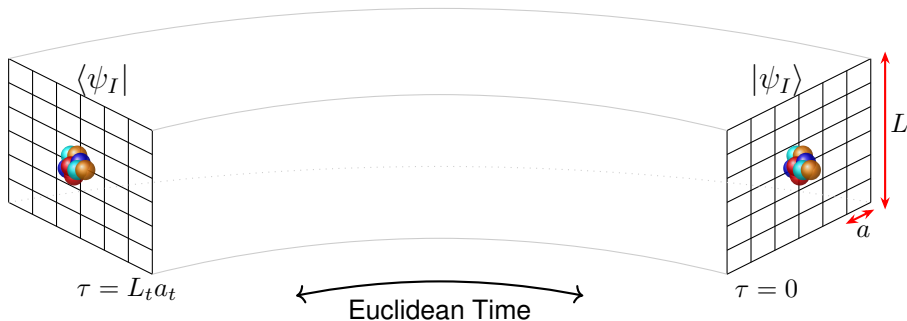
direct access to exact

diagonalization and Monte Carlo

Lee, Prog.Part.Nucl.Phys. 63 (2009) 117-154

Laehde and Meißner, Lect. Notes Phys. 957 (2019),
1-396 Springer.

Lattice effective field theory: Why a lattice?



□ a spatial lattice spacing

□ L number of lattice sites

□ a_t Euclidean time spacing

changing a or a_t changes the regulated theory.

Lattice effective field theory

One particle in the continuum: For a relativistic particle,

$$E(p) = \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} = m + \frac{p^2}{2m} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{p^4}{m^3}\right).$$

In nonrelativistic quantum mechanics we are interested in the small energy above the rest energy, m . So, for $p \ll m$

$$E(p) \approx m + \frac{p^2}{2m}.$$

Single particle Hamiltonian (non-relativistic kinetic energy), $\hat{h}_{\text{free}} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m}$.

Then, we introduce the second quantization $|p\rangle = a_p^\dagger|0\rangle$, $\hat{h}_{\text{free}}|p\rangle = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m}|p\rangle$.

Therefore the free Hamiltonian for an arbitrary number of particles is

$$H_{\text{free}} = \sum_p \frac{p^2}{2m} a_p^\dagger a_p \quad \implies \quad H_{\text{free}} |p\rangle = \frac{p^2}{2m} a_p^\dagger |0\rangle.$$

This is the energy of one momentum eigenstate. In second quantization we simply sum this kinetic energy over all occupied momentum modes.

Lattice effective field theory

The free Hamiltonian in coordinate space: Now define the field operator in a periodic box of physical length $L a$:

$$\psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L a}} \sum_p e^{i p x} a_p, \quad \psi^\dagger(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L a}} \sum_p e^{-i p x} a_p^\dagger.$$

Then explicitly,

$$-\frac{1}{2m} \int_0^{L a} dx \psi^\dagger(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi(x) = \frac{1}{L a} \sum_{p,p'} \frac{p^2}{2m} a_{p'}^\dagger a_p \int_0^{L a} dx e^{i(p-p')x} = \sum_p \frac{p^2}{2m} a_p^\dagger a_p.$$

Therefore,

$$-\frac{1}{2m} \int_0^{L a} dx \psi^\dagger(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi(x) = H_{\text{free}}$$

Since we work in a periodic box, we can integrate by parts:

$$H_{\text{free}} = \frac{1}{2m} \int_0^{L a} dx \left(\frac{\partial \psi^\dagger}{\partial x} \right) \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right)$$

The boundary term vanishes because the fields are periodic.

Lattice effective field theory

From the continuum to the spatial lattice:

$$\text{Let } x_n = na, \quad n = 0, \dots, L-1,$$

Define dimensionless lattice operators by

$$a_n = \sqrt{a} \psi(x_n), \quad \text{so that for fermions,} \quad \{a_n, a_{n'}^\dagger\} = \delta_{nn'}.$$

Then discretize the derivative:

$$\left. \frac{\partial \psi(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_n} \longrightarrow \frac{a_{n+1} - a_n}{a^{3/2}}.$$

Using the continuum form,

$$H_{\text{free}} = \frac{1}{2m} \int dx (\partial_x \psi^\dagger)(\partial_x \psi),$$

we obtain

$$H_{\text{free}}^{\text{lat}} = \frac{1}{2ma^2} \sum_n \left(a_{n+1}^\dagger - a_n^\dagger \right) (a_{n+1} - a_n) = \frac{1}{2ma^2} \sum_n \left[2a_n^\dagger a_n - a_{n+1}^\dagger a_n - a_n^\dagger a_{n+1} \right].$$

$$\underbrace{a_{n+1}^\dagger a_n}_{n \rightarrow n+1}$$

$$\underbrace{a_n^\dagger a_{n+1}}_{n+1 \rightarrow n}$$

as forward and backward hopping.

Lattice effective field theory

Free-particle spectrum on the lattice: With the periodic boundary conditions already imposed ($a_{n+L} = a_n$), a momentum eigenstate is

$$|p\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} \sum_{n=0}^{L-1} e^{ipna} a_n^\dagger |0\rangle$$

The corresponding one-particle wavefunction on the lattice is

$$\phi_p(n) \equiv \langle n | p \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} e^{ipna}.$$

Periodicity quantizes the allowed momenta:

$$\phi_p(n+L) = \phi_p(n) \implies e^{ip(n+L)a} = e^{ipna} \implies e^{ipLa} = 1 \implies p_k = \frac{2\pi k}{La}.$$

For even L , choose

$$k = -\frac{L}{2}, \dots, \frac{L}{2} - 1 \quad \longrightarrow \quad -\frac{\pi}{a} \leq p < \frac{\pi}{a}.$$

This is the **first Brillouin zone**, and it connects directly to

$$p_{\max} \sim \frac{\pi}{a}.$$

Lattice effective field theory

Free-particle spectrum: from hopping to the dispersion relation

For nearest-neighbor hopping in one dimension,

$$H_{\text{free}}^{\text{lat}} = \frac{1}{2ma^2} \sum_n \left[2a_n^\dagger a_n - a_n^\dagger a_{n+1} - a_n^\dagger a_{n-1} \right].$$

In the one-particle basis $|n\rangle = a_n^\dagger |0\rangle$,

this is simply an $L \times L$ periodic matrix

$$H_{nn'} = \frac{1}{ma^2} \left[\delta_{nn'} - \frac{1}{2} (\delta_{n',n+1} + \delta_{n',n-1}) \right]$$

Because the Hamiltonian is translationally invariant, its eigenstates are plane waves,

$$|p_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} \sum_{n=0}^{L-1} e^{ip_k na} |n\rangle, \quad p_k = \frac{2\pi k}{La}.$$

Acting with $H_{\text{free}}^{\text{lat}}$
$$H_{\text{free}}^{\text{lat}} |p\rangle = \frac{1}{2ma^2} \left[2 - e^{ipa} - e^{-ipa} \right] |p\rangle = \frac{1 - \cos(pa)}{ma^2} |p\rangle.$$

Therefore

$$E_{\text{lat}}(p) = \frac{1 - \cos(pa)}{ma^2}.$$

Finite lattice spacing modifies the free-particle dispersion

For nearest-neighbor hopping $E_{\text{lat}}(p) = \frac{1 - \cos(pa)}{ma^2}.$

Expanding for $pa \ll 1$ $E_{\text{lat}}(p) = \frac{p^2}{2m} - \frac{a^2 p^4}{24m} + \mathcal{O}(a^4 p^6).$

Thus $a \rightarrow 0 \implies E_{\text{lat}}(p) \rightarrow \frac{p^2}{2m}.$

Finite a changes the dispersion relation: the difference from $p^2/(2m)$ is a lattice artifact.

$$\Delta E(p) = E_{\text{lat}}(p) - E_{\text{cont}}(p) = -\frac{a^2 p^4}{24m} + \dots \implies \frac{\Delta E}{E_{\text{cont}}} = -\frac{(pa)^2}{12} + \dots$$

Everything generalizes immediately to three dimensions,

$$E_{\text{lat}}(\mathbf{p}) = \frac{1}{ma^2} \sum_{l=1}^3 [1 - \cos(p_l a)] = \frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2m} + \mathcal{O}(a^2 p^4).$$

Lattice effective field theory

Improved kinetic energy: cancel the finite- a errors

Can we make the lattice dispersion follow $p^2/(2m)$ more accurately **without decreasing the lattice spacing**? Allow hopping over several lattice spacings,

$$H_{\text{free}} = \frac{1}{ma^2} \sum_n \left[\omega_0 a_n^\dagger a_n - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{r=1}^R \omega_r (a_n^\dagger a_{n+r} + a_n^\dagger a_{n-r}) \right].$$

The plane waves remain eigenstates, with

$$E_{\text{lat}}(p) = \frac{1}{ma^2} \left[\omega_0 - \sum_{r=1}^R \omega_r \cos(rpa) \right].$$

	ω_0	ω_1	ω_2	ω_3	leading error
nearest neighbor	1	1	0	0	$\mathcal{O}(a^2 p^4)$
$\mathcal{O}(a^2)$ improved	$\frac{5}{4}$	$\frac{4}{3}$	$-\frac{1}{12}$	0	$\mathcal{O}(a^4 p^6)$
$\mathcal{O}(a^4)$ improved	$\frac{49}{36}$	$\frac{3}{2}$	$-\frac{3}{20}$	$\frac{1}{90}$	$\mathcal{O}(a^6 p^8)$

longer-range hopping $\Rightarrow$ smaller lattice artifacts.

From one particle to many particles (interactions)

We now return to three spatial dimensions and add the simplest interaction. Start in the continuum,

$$H = H_{\text{free}} + H_{\text{int}} \implies H_{\text{int}} = \frac{C_0}{2} \int dx^3 : \rho^2(\mathbf{x}) : \implies \rho(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{x}) a_{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}).$$

α denotes the internal spin/isospin state. The lattice connection explicitly,

$$a_{\alpha}(\mathbf{n}) = a^{3/2} \psi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}), \quad \text{and} \quad \int dx^3 \rightarrow a^3 \sum_{\mathbf{n}}$$

$$\text{and the dimensionless local density} \quad \rho(\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{n}) a_{\alpha}(\mathbf{n}).$$

$$H_{\text{int}}^{\text{phys}} = \frac{C_0}{2a^3} \sum_{\mathbf{n}} : \rho^2(\mathbf{n}) : \implies H_{\text{int}}^{\text{lat}} = a H_{\text{int}}^{\text{phys}} \implies H_{\text{int}}^{\text{lat}} = \frac{C_0^{\text{lat}}}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{n}} : \rho^2(\mathbf{n}) :$$

where $C_0 = a^2 C_0^{\text{lat}}$.

What does $: \rho^2 :$ actually mean?

What exactly is C_0^{lat} ?

From one particle to many particles

What does ρ^2 : actually mean: For fermions at one lattice site,

$$\rho(\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{n}) a_{\alpha}(\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{\alpha} n_{\alpha} \implies \text{For a fermionic mode } n_{\alpha}^2 = n_{\alpha}$$

Now square the total density:

$$\rho^2 = \left(\sum_{\alpha} n_{\alpha} \right)^2 = \sum_{\alpha} n_{\alpha}^2 + \sum_{\alpha \neq \beta} n_{\alpha} n_{\beta} = \rho + \sum_{\alpha \neq \beta} n_{\alpha} n_{\beta}$$

Normal ordering ($::$) removes precisely such one-body contraction (self-interaction)

$$:\rho^2(\mathbf{n}): = \rho^2(\mathbf{n}) - \rho(\mathbf{n}) = \rho(\mathbf{n}) [\rho(\mathbf{n}) - 1] = \sum_{\alpha \neq \beta} n_{\alpha} n_{\beta} = 2 \sum_{\alpha < \beta} n_{\alpha} n_{\beta}$$

$$\implies \frac{1}{2} : \rho^2(\mathbf{n}) : = \sum_{\alpha < \beta} n_{\alpha} n_{\beta}$$

counts the number of distinct pairs occupying that lattice site.

For the simplest two-component system: $\alpha = \uparrow, \downarrow$,

$$\frac{1}{2} : \rho^2(\mathbf{n}) : = \rho_{\uparrow}(\mathbf{n}) \rho_{\downarrow}(\mathbf{n})$$

From one particle to many particles

The coupling $C_0 = a^2 C_0^{\text{lat}}$ is not physical by itself, and it depends

$$a, \quad \Lambda \sim \pi/a \quad \text{regularization scheme.}$$

Why must the contact coupling be fitted?: The two-body scattering equation is,

$$T(E) = V + V G_0(E) T(E).$$

For a momentum-independent contact interaction, $V = C_0$, so formally,

$$T(E) = \frac{C_0}{1 - C_0 G_0(E)} = \frac{1}{C_0^{-1} - G_0(E)}.$$

$$\text{On the lattice} \quad G_0(E) \sim \sum_{\mathbf{q} \in BZ} \frac{1}{E - 2E_{\text{lat}}(\mathbf{q}) + i\epsilon}.$$

But the allowed momentum region depends on, $|q_i| \leq \frac{\pi}{a}$, therefore changing a changes G_0 , and consequently the coupling must change,

$$C_0 \rightarrow C_0(a)$$

The physical quantity is not C_0 . Physical quantities are $a_s, r_s, E_B, \delta_l(p)$.

Exact Few-Body Calculations on the Lattice

$$H|\Psi_n\rangle = E_n|\Psi_n\rangle$$

basis $\rightarrow H_{\text{kin}} \rightarrow V \rightarrow \text{symmetries} \rightarrow E_n$

Exact few-body calculations on the lattice

We have learned how to construct a lattice Hamiltonian.

Now we ask new questions:

How to determine its coupling constant?

Given a few-body lattice Hamiltonian, how do we solve it exactly?

The central idea is simple:

$H|\Psi_n\rangle = E_n|\Psi_n\rangle \longrightarrow$ finite-dimensional matrix eigenvalue problem.

basis $\rightarrow H_{\text{kin}} \rightarrow V \rightarrow$ symmetry projection $\rightarrow$ eigs $\rightarrow E_n$

Exact few-body calculations on the lattice

We consider two-component fermion $\uparrow, \downarrow$

with masses $m_{\uparrow}, m_{\downarrow}$.

Only particles with unlike species interact
through an S -wave contact interaction.

$\Rightarrow$

$$H_A = \sum_{i=1}^A T_i + C_0 \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ \text{unlike species}}} \delta_{\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{r}_j}.$$

```
main_01_tune_dimer.m  
main_02_dimer_fermion.m  
main_03_dimer_dimer.m
```

Wu, SE, Meissner, Shen, Geng, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* 136 (2026) 14, 142502
SE, *Turk. J. Phys.* 42 (2018) 6, 631-640
SE, Katterjohn Lee, Meissner, Rupak, *Phys. Lett. B* 768 (2017) 337-344
SE, Lee *Phys. Rev. C* 90 (2014) 6, 064001

Step 1

$$A = 2$$

Fit the two-body coupling
constant:

$$E_2(C_0) = -B_2.$$

C_0 is determined

Step 2

$$A = 3$$

Solve the dimer-fermion
system:

$$\uparrow\uparrow\downarrow.$$

$$N_{\text{basis}} = L^6$$

Step 3

$$A = 4$$

Solve the dimer-dimer
system:

$$\uparrow\uparrow\downarrow\downarrow.$$

$$N_{\text{basis}} = L^9$$

two-body calibration $\rightarrow$ three-body spectrum $\rightarrow$ four-body spectrum.

Construct the relative-coordinate basis

For A particles on a cubic lattice, a naive coordinate basis has L^{3A} states.

But translational invariance allows us to remove the center-of-mass coordinate.

Choose particle A as the reference particle and define

$$\mathbf{r}_i = \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_A, \quad i = 1, \dots, A-1.$$

Then only $A-1$ relative coordinates are stored

$$N_{\text{basis}} = L^{3(A-1)}.$$

The function
`relative_coordinates.m`
implements

$$\mathbf{r}_i = \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_A.$$

```
function [idx, coord] = relative_coordinates(L, nA, ndim)

N = L^(ndim*(nA-1));
idx = (0:N-1)';

coord = cell(nA, ndim);

for a = 1:nA
    for d = 1:ndim
        power = ndim*(a-1) + (d-1);
        coord{a,d} = mod(floor(idx/L^power), L);
    end
end

% For a = nA the powers are beyond the stored basis digits,
% hence coord{nA,d}=0 automatically:
% particle A is the reference particle.
end
```

The kinetic term on a periodic lattice

For one particle, the lattice kinetic energy is represented by a finite difference operator,

$$T = \frac{1}{2ma^2} \sum_{\mathbf{n}} \left[2\omega_0 a_{\mathbf{n}}^\dagger a_{\mathbf{n}} - \sum_{k=1}^{n_k} \sum_{\alpha=x,y,z} \omega_k \left(a_{\mathbf{n}}^\dagger a_{\mathbf{n}+k\hat{\alpha}} + a_{\mathbf{n}}^\dagger a_{\mathbf{n}-k\hat{\alpha}} \right) \right],$$

The code uses improved finite-difference coefficients,

$$w_k = \begin{cases} (-1)^{k+1} \frac{2(n_k!)^2}{k^2 (n_k + k)! (n_k - k)!}, & k \neq 0 \\ \sum_{k=1}^{n_k} w_k, & k = 0. \end{cases}$$

The first $A - 1$ particles are easy: $\mathbf{r}_i = \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_A$.

If particle $i < A$ hops: $\mathbf{x}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_i + k\hat{e}_d \implies \boxed{\mathbf{r}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{r}_i + k\hat{e}_d}.$

If the reference particle (A) hops $\implies \mathbf{x}_A \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_A + k\hat{e}_d,$

every relative coordinate changes $\implies \boxed{\mathbf{r}_i = \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_A \rightarrow \mathbf{r}_i - k\hat{e}_d, \quad i = 1, \dots, A - 1}$

Improved kinetic-term coefficients

The coefficients are generated directly in `build_kinetic_relative.m`:

```
w = zeros(1,iKine);
w0 = 0.0;

for k = 1:iKine
    w(k) = (-1)^(k+1) * 2*factorial(iKine)^2 / ...
        (k^2*factorial(iKine+k)*factorial(iKine-
            k));
    w0 = w0 + w(k);
end
```

The diagonal kinetic-energy contribution from each particle is

```
for a = 1:nA
    diagonal = (2*ndim*w0)/(2*mbar(a))*cutoff;
    Hkin = Hkin + spdiags(diagonal*ones(N,1),0,N,N)
;
end
```

$$m_{\text{bar}} = m a$$

```
cutoff = 1/a
```

is the factor defining the energy units in the code.

This is the most important part of `build_kinetic_relative.m`.

```
% Hopping of the reference particle A.
% If x_A -> x_A + k e_d,
% each r_i=x_i-x_A shifts by -k e_d.

a = nA;

for d = 1:ndim
    for k = 1:iKine
        idx_p = idx;
        idx_m = idx;

        for i = 1:nA-1
            base = L^(ndim*(i-1)+(d-1));

            idx_p = idx_p - coord{i,d}*base ...
                + mod(coord{i,d}-k,L)*base;

            idx_m = idx_m - coord{i,d}*base ...
                + mod(coord{i,d}+k,L)*base;
        end

        hop = -w(k)/(2*mbar(a))*cutoff;

        Hkin = Hkin ...
            + sparse(idx+1,idx_p+1,hop*ones(N,1),N,N)
            ...
            + sparse(idx+1,idx_m+1,hop*ones(N,1),N,N);
    end
end
```

The zero-range contact interaction

The interaction is local and acts only when two unlike particles occupy the same lattice site.

For one pair (i, j) $V_{ij} = C_0 \delta_{\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{r}_j}$.

For a set of interacting unlike pairs,

$$V = C_0 \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{P}} \delta_{\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{r}_j}.$$

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned}\uparrow\downarrow: \quad \mathcal{P} &= \{(1, 2)\}, \\ \uparrow\uparrow\downarrow: \quad \mathcal{P} &= \{(1, 3), (2, 3)\}, \\ \uparrow\uparrow\downarrow\downarrow: \quad \mathcal{P} &= \{(1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 3), (2, 4)\}.\end{aligned}$$

The function `build_contact_relative.m` tests whether two particles are at the same lattice point.

```
V = sparse(N,N);

for ip = 1:size(pairs,1)
    i = pairs(ip,1);
    j = pairs(ip,2);

    same_site = true(N,1);

    for d = 1:ndim
        same_site = same_site & ...
            (coord{i,d} == coord{j,d});
    end

    V = V + spdiags( ...
        c0*cutoff*double(same_site),0,N,N);
end
```

Tune the two-body coupling

Before solving three- and four-body systems, we determine the coupling C_0 from one two-body observable.

$$H_2(C_0) = T_1 + T_2 + C_0 \delta_{\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2}.$$

We choose a target dimer binding energy,

$$E_2(C_0) = -B_2.$$

physical input



C_0



few-body Hamiltonian

The main program is
`main_01_tune_dimer.m`.

```
m_up   = 939.0;      % MeV
m_down = 939.0;      % MeV

Btarget = 2.2246;      % desired dimer binding
                    energy
L2 = 30;               % two-body box

masses2 = [m_up m_down];

c0 = tune_dimer_contact( ...
    L2, cutoff, masses2, Btarget, iKine, ndim);

E2 = lowest_two_body_energy( ...
    L2, cutoff, masses2, c0, iKine, ndim);
```

The fitting routine minimizes

$$\chi^2(C_0) = [E_2(C_0) + B_2]^2.$$

```
objective = @(c) dimer_chi2(c, Hkin, Vunit, Btarget,
    optsE);
c0 = fminsearch(objective, -0.25, optsFit);
```

The dimer-fermion system

Now use the same fitted interaction in the three-body system

$$\boxed{\uparrow\uparrow\downarrow.}$$

Particles 1 and 2 are identical $\uparrow$ fermions, while particle 3 is a $\downarrow$ fermion.

Only unlike pairs interact:

$$\boxed{\mathcal{P} = \{(1, 3), (2, 3)\}.$$

The Hamiltonian is

$$\boxed{H_3 = T_1 + T_2 + T_3 + C_0 (\delta_{\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_3} + \delta_{\mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3}).}$$

After removing the center of mass,

$$\boxed{N_{\text{basis}} = L^6.}$$

The main program is
`main_02_dimer_fermion.m`.

```
L = 5;
nA = 3;
numeigs = 4;

masses = [m_up m_up m_down];
pairs = [1 3; 2 3];

Hkin = build_kinetic_relative( ...
    L, cutoff, masses, iKine, ndim);

V = build_contact_relative( ...
    L, cutoff, nA, pairs, c0, ndim);

H = Hkin + V;

Nbasis = size(H,1);
```

$$\boxed{L = 5 \Rightarrow N_{\text{basis}} = 5^6 = 15625.}$$

The dimer-fermion system

Define an operator P , with desired eigenvalue, $P|\Psi\rangle = s|\Psi\rangle = \pm|\Psi\rangle$.

Particles 1 and 2 are identical fermions; instead of explicitly constructing a smaller antisymmetric basis, the code uses a symmetry penalty.

$$H = H_3 + \lambda(1 + P_{12})$$

If $P_{12}|\Psi\rangle = -|\Psi\rangle$, then the penalty vanishes.

If $P_{12}|\Psi\rangle = +|\Psi\rangle$, the state is shifted upward by 2λ .

We also separate the spectrum by parity,

$$\Pi|\Psi\rangle = \pm|\Psi\rangle.$$

$$H = H_3 + \lambda(1 + P_{12}) + \lambda(1 + \Pi)$$

The exchange and parity maps are constructed as index maps.

```
P12 = permutation_map_relative(L,nA,[2 1 3],ndim);
Pinv = parity_map_relative(L,nA,ndim);
lambda = 100.0;
for parity = [-1 +1]
    maps = {P12, Pinv};
    desired = [-1, parity];

    Hfun = @(x) apply_symmetry_penalty( ...
        x,H,maps,desired,lambda);

    [~,D] = eigs( ...
        Hfun,Nbasis,numeigs,'smallestreal',opts);
end
```

The eigensolver only needs matrix-vector products. Therefore the penalty is applied directly to a vector:

```
function y = apply_symmetry_penalty( ...
    x,H,maps,eigenvalues,lambda)

y = H*x;
for k = 1:length(maps)
    Pindex = maps{k};
    s = eigenvalues(k);

    y = y + lambda*(x - s*x(Pindex));
end
```

The dimer-dimer system

Now move to four particles,



Particles 1, 2 are identical $\uparrow$ fermions,
and particles 3, 4 are identical $\downarrow$ fermions.

Only unlike particles interact:

$$\mathcal{P} = \{(1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 3), (2, 4)\}.$$

The Hamiltonian is

$$H_4 = \sum_{i=1}^4 T_i + C_0 (\delta_{13} + \delta_{14} + \delta_{23} + \delta_{24}).$$

After removing the center of mass,

$$N_{\text{basis}} = L^9.$$

The main program is

main_03_dimer_dimer.m.

```
L = 3;
nA = 4;
numeigs = 4;

masses = [m_up m_up m_down m_down];

pairs = [1 3;
         1 4;
         2 3;
         2 4];

Hkin = build_kinetic_relative( ...
    L,cutoff,masses,iKine,ndim);

V = build_contact_relative( ...
    L,cutoff,nA,pairs,c0,ndim);

H = Hkin + V;

Nbasis = size(H,1);
```

$$L = 3 \Rightarrow N_{\text{basis}} = 3^9 = 19683.$$

The dimer-dimer system

There are now two independent exchange symmetries.

For the identical $\uparrow$ fermions,

$$P_{12}|\Psi\rangle = -|\Psi\rangle.$$

For the identical $\downarrow$ fermions,

$$P_{34}|\Psi\rangle = -|\Psi\rangle.$$

For the example in the code, we also choose even parity,

$$\Pi|\Psi\rangle = +|\Psi\rangle.$$

$$H = H_4 + \lambda(1 + P_{12}) + \lambda(1 + P_{34}) + \lambda(1 - \Pi).$$

The symmetry maps are again simple index maps.

```
P12 = permutation_map_relative(L,nA,[2 1 3 4],
                               ndim);
P34 = permutation_map_relative(L,nA,[1 2 4 3],
                               ndim);

Pinv = parity_map_relative(L,nA,ndim);

maps   = {P12, P34, Pinv};
desired = [-1, -1, +1];

lambda = 100.0;

Hfun = @(x) apply_symmetry_penalty( ...
    x,H,maps,desired,lambda);

[~,D] = eigs( ...
    Hfun,Nbasis,numeigs,'smallestreal',opts);
```

$$P_{12} = -1, \quad P_{34} = -1, \quad \Pi = +1.$$

Only states satisfying all desired symmetry conditions remain in the low-energy spectrum.

Exact diagonalization: What is exact and What is not?

The calculation solves exactly

$$H_L |\Psi_n^{(L)}\rangle = E_n^{(L)} |\Psi_n^{(L)}\rangle$$

for the chosen finite lattice
Hamiltonian.

What is exact?

$E_n^{(L)}$ and $\Psi_n^{(L)}$ of the finite sparse matrix.

What is still approximate?

finite volume L ,
finite lattice spacing a ,
chosen regulator and interaction,
limited number of computed eigenstates.

After removing the center of mass,

$$N_{\text{basis}} = L^{3(A-1)}.$$

For a modest lattice $L = 5$,

$$A = 2 : \quad 5^3 = 125,$$

$$A = 3 : \quad 5^6 = 15625,$$

$$A = 4 : \quad 5^9 = 1,953,125.$$

The Hilbert space grows exponentially
with particle number.

As A increases exact diagonalization
rapidly becomes impossible.

Exact few-body calculations teach us how the Hamiltonian works. For larger nuclei, we need transfer matrices, Euclidean-time projection, auxiliary fields, and Monte Carlo sampling.

Transition to realistic nuclear lattice EFT

The two-component fermion examples teach the essential numerical structure. For realistic nuclear systems, we keep the same computational logic but replace the simple contact Hamiltonian by a nuclear lattice EFT Hamiltonian,

$$H = H_{\text{kin}}^{\text{imp}} + V_{NN} + V_{3N} + \dots$$

The basis now includes spin and isospin degrees of freedom, and the interactions include

contact interactions + pion exchange + three-nucleon forces + $\dots$

But the conceptual chain remains the same:

basis $\rightarrow H \rightarrow$ symmetries $\rightarrow$ low-energy spectrum.

EXERCISES: Two-body bound state on the lattice

Exercise 1: Consider two distinguishable particles of equal mass m interacting in the S wave. Take an attractive interaction with the zero-range limit and show that

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{a_s}.$$

Exercise 2: Consider a cubic lattice with L sites in each direction and spatial lattice spacing a . The physical box size is $L_{\text{phys}} = La$, and the allowed momenta are $q_i = 2\pi n_i/La$, $n_i = 0, 1, \dots, L-1$. For nearest-neighbor hopping, the single-particle lattice dispersion is

$$\varepsilon_{\text{lat}}(\mathbf{q}) = \frac{1}{ma^2} \sum_{i=1}^3 [1 - \cos(q_i a)].$$

The two particles, labelled $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$, interact through an attractive on-site interaction

$$H_{\text{int}} = U \sum_{\mathbf{n}} n_{\uparrow}(\mathbf{n}) n_{\downarrow}(\mathbf{n}), \quad U < 0.$$

For a bound state $E = -B < 0$, show that this becomes

$$\frac{1}{U} = -\frac{1}{L^3} \sum_{\mathbf{q}} \frac{1}{B + 2\varepsilon_{\text{lat}}(\mathbf{q})}.$$

EXERCISES: Two-body bound state on the lattice

Exercise 3: Introduce the dimensionless variables

$$\mathbf{k} = a\mathbf{q}, \quad g = ma^2U, \quad b = ma^2B.$$

If C_0 is the continuum contact coefficient,

$$U = \frac{C_0}{a^3}, \quad C_0^{\text{lat}} = \frac{C_0}{a^2} = aU, \quad m_{\text{lat}} = ma, \quad \implies \boxed{g = m_{\text{lat}}C_0^{\text{lat}}}.$$

Show that the exact finite-volume equation can be written as

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{g} = -\frac{1}{L^3} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{1}{b + 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 [1 - \cos k_i]}}.$$

and in the infinite-volume limit can be written as

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{g} = -J(b) = -\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{b + 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 [1 - \cos k_i]}}.$$

EXERCISES: Two-body bound state on the lattice

Exercise 4: For the on-site interaction, sum the geometric series for repeated two-body scattering and show that the lattice two-body T matrix has the form

$$T(E) = \frac{1}{U^{-1} - G_0(E)}.$$

Evaluate the zero-energy loop and show that

$$G_0(0) = -ma^2 J(0).$$

Exercise 5: Use the continuum threshold relation $\mathcal{T}(0) = 4\pi a_s/m$, and the fact that the continuum-normalized contact amplitude is $\mathcal{T} = a^3 T$ to derive

$$\boxed{\frac{a}{4\pi a_s} = \frac{1}{g} + J(0)}.$$

Exercise 6: Numerically evaluate $J(0)$. Hence determine the critical coupling g_c for which a_s diverges. Show that

$$\boxed{g_c = -\frac{1}{J(0)}}.$$

Interpret this point physically.

EXERCISES: Two-body bound state on the lattice

Exercise 7: Combine the continuum result $\kappa = 1/a_s$ with the matching relation above and show that

$$\kappa a = \frac{a}{a_s} = 4\pi \left[\frac{1}{g} + J(0) \right].$$

Show also that the exact continuum benchmark in dimensionless units is simply

$$b_{\text{cont}} = (\kappa a)^2.$$

Two-body bound state on the lattice

Exercise 8 (Numerical work): A minimal working Python program, `two_body_contact_starter.py`, is provided. It constructs the relative-coordinate Hamiltonian for $m = a = 1$ and computes the lowest eigenvalue using sparse diagonalization.

For $m = a = 1$, the scaled relative-coordinate Hamiltonian is

$$\begin{aligned} H_{\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r}} &= 6 + g \delta_{\mathbf{r},\mathbf{0}}, \\ H_{\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r} \pm \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i} &= -1, \end{aligned}$$

with periodic boundary conditions.

- Run the supplied code for $L = 10$ and $g = -5$. Record the numerical ground-state energy.
- Add a function that solves the exact finite-volume equation from Exe. 3. Compare the exact result with the sparse-matrix diagonalization. Quote the absolute difference.
- Study finite-volume convergence for $L = 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 16, 20$ at fixed $g = -5$. Determine the infinite-volume lattice binding energy and plot

$$\frac{B_L}{B_\infty^{\text{lat}}} - 1$$

versus L .

EXERCISES: From one particle to many particles

Exercise 9 (Numerical work):

- D) Evaluate $J(0)$ numerically and determine g_c .
- E) For several couplings more attractive than g_c , for example

$$g = -4.0, -4.2, -4.5, -5, -8, -12, -20,$$

calculate

$$\frac{a_s}{a}, \quad \kappa a, \quad b_{\text{cont}}, \quad b_{\text{lat}}.$$

Plot

$\frac{B_{\text{lat}}}{B_{\text{cont}}} \quad \text{versus} \quad \kappa a.$

Answer the following question in a short paragraph:

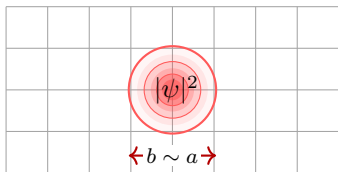
What physical length scale determines when the lattice result deviates significantly from the continuum result? Why is “the coupling is too strong” not the most precise statement?

Why do strong point-like contacts generate lattice artifacts?

A very attractive zero-range interaction can produce a very compact bound state. The key quantity is not just the coupling itself, but the dimensionless ratio

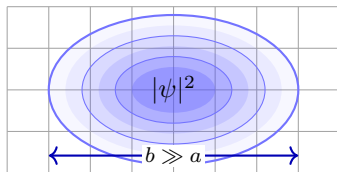
$$\kappa a, \quad \kappa \sim \text{binding momentum}, \quad b \sim \kappa^{-1}.$$

Bad regime: $\kappa a \sim 1$



The state is so compact that it probes the one-site structure of the point-like lattice contact. The UV details of the regulator become important, and lattice artifacts grow.

Good regime: $\kappa a \ll 1$



The relative bound-state probability density extends over many lattice sites. The state does **not** resolve the short-distance details of the regulator.

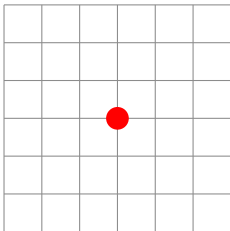
too strong coupling constant



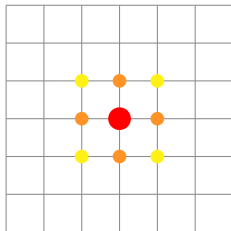
the physical size $\kappa^{-1} \sim a$.

Smearing is part of the regulator

A point-like lattice contact probes only one site.



Smearing distributes the short-range interaction over neighboring sites.



Non-local smearing:
$$a_{s,i}^{s_{NL}}(\mathbf{n}) = a_{s,i}(\mathbf{n}) + s_{NL} \sum_{|\mathbf{n}'|=1} a_{s,i}(\mathbf{n} + \mathbf{n}') + \dots$$

Local smearing:
$$\rho^{s_L}(\mathbf{n}) = \rho(\mathbf{n}) + s_L \sum_{|\mathbf{n}'|=1} \rho(\mathbf{n} + \mathbf{n}') + \dots$$

Its purpose is not simply “numerical smoothing.” It changes the regulator and can improve the effective-range behavior and reduce lattice artifacts.

If the regulator/smearing changes, the LECs must be refitted.

Local vs. non-local smearing: a momentum-space interpretation

Local smearing

Smear the *local density* entering the interaction:

$$\rho^{s_L}(\mathbf{n}) = \rho(\mathbf{n}) + s_L \sum_{|\boldsymbol{\delta}|=1} \rho(\mathbf{n} + \boldsymbol{\delta}) + \dots$$

After Fourier transform,

$$\rho^{s_L}(\mathbf{q}) = f_L(\mathbf{q}) \rho(\mathbf{q}),$$

$$\text{with } f_L(\mathbf{q}) = 1 + 2s_L \sum_{i=1}^3 \cos(q_i a) + \dots$$

Therefore the interaction depends on the **momentum transfer**

$$V_L(\mathbf{p}', \mathbf{p}) = V_L(\mathbf{q}), \quad \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{p}' - \mathbf{p}.$$

local $\implies$ depends only on $\mathbf{q}$

Non-local smearing

Smear the *single-particle field* itself:

$$a^{s_{NL}}(\mathbf{n}) = a(\mathbf{n}) + s_{NL} \sum_{|\boldsymbol{\delta}|=1} a(\mathbf{n} + \boldsymbol{\delta}) + \dots$$

After Fourier transform,

$$a^{s_{NL}}(\mathbf{p}) = f_{NL}(\mathbf{p}) a(\mathbf{p}),$$

$$\text{with } f_{NL}(\mathbf{p}) = 1 + 2s_{NL} \sum_{i=1}^3 \cos(p_i a) + \dots$$

So the interaction depends separately on **incoming and outgoing momenta**.

$$V_{NL}(\mathbf{p}', \mathbf{p}) \sim f_{NL}(\mathbf{p}') V f_{NL}(\mathbf{p}).$$

non-local $\implies$ depends separately on $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p}'$

From a Toy Interaction to Realistic Nuclear Lattice EFT

$$\uparrow, \downarrow \longrightarrow p \uparrow, p \downarrow, n \uparrow, n \downarrow$$

contact interaction $\longrightarrow$ spin + isospin + pion exchange

Realistic nuclear lattice EFT

Nucleons have spin and isospin: Introduce occupation-number language:

$$a_{s,i}^\dagger(\mathbf{n}), \quad s = \uparrow, \downarrow, \quad i = p, n.$$

At every lattice site $\mathbf{n}$, a nucleon can occupy four internal states,

$$\boxed{p \uparrow, \quad p \downarrow, \quad n \uparrow, \quad n \downarrow.}$$

$$\rho(\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{s,i} a_{s,i}^\dagger(\mathbf{n}) a_{s,i}(\mathbf{n}) \implies \text{“how many nucleons?”}$$

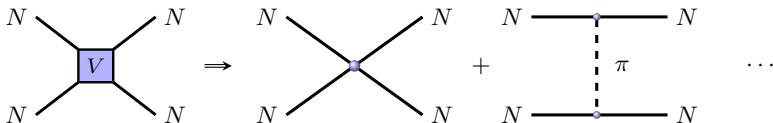
$$\rho_S(\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{s,s',i} a_{s,i}^\dagger(\mathbf{n}) [\sigma_S]_{s,s'} a_{s',i}(\mathbf{n}) \implies \text{“how are the spins oriented?”}$$

$$\rho_I(\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{s,i,i'} a_{s,i}^\dagger(\mathbf{n}) [\tau_I]_{i,i'} a_{s,i'}(\mathbf{n}) \implies \text{“proton or neutron?”}$$

$$\rho_{S,I}(\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{s,s',i,i'} a_{s,i}^\dagger(\mathbf{n}) [\sigma_S]_{s,s'} [\tau_I]_{i,i'} a_{s',i'}(\mathbf{n}) \implies \text{“how are spin and isospin correlated?”}$$

These densities are the building blocks from which the nuclear interaction is constructed.

Realistic nuclear lattice EFT



The LO nuclear contact interaction: At LO there are no derivatives in the short-range interaction. Therefore the contact is momentum independent and zero range,

$$V_{\text{contact}}^{\text{LO}} \sim \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{r}).$$

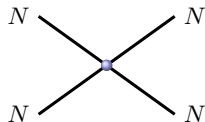
What scalar operators can act on the spin and isospin of two nucleons?

$$1, \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}_2, \quad \boldsymbol{\tau}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau}_2, \quad (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}_2)(\boldsymbol{\tau}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau}_2).$$

These are natural **scalar operator structures**, but are they four independent physical contact interactions?

Pauli principle $\implies$ only two independent LO NN contact channels.

The LO nuclear contact channels:



A nonderivative contact acts in $\ell = 0$, so the spatial wave function is symmetric:

$$(-1)^\ell = +1.$$

The total two-nucleon wave function must be antisymmetric $\implies$ the spin-isospin part must be antisymmetric.

Only two possibilities survive:

$$\boxed{S = 0, \quad I = 1} \iff {}^1S_0 \qquad \boxed{S = 1, \quad I = 0} \iff {}^3S_1$$

There are consequently only two independent numbers that the LO contact interaction needs to specify:

$$\boxed{C_{1S_0}} \qquad \boxed{C_{3S_1}}$$

Everything else is simply a choice of operator basis for representing these two numbers.

The LO nuclear contact channels: $\{1, \tau_1 \cdot \tau_2\}$ basis

At LO the momentum-independent NN contact interaction can be written

$$V_{\text{contact}}^{\text{LO}} = C + C_I \tau_1 \cdot \tau_2$$

$$^1S_0 (I = 1)$$

$$\tau_1 \cdot \tau_2 = +1$$

$$C_{1S_0} = C + C_I.$$

$$^3S_1 (I = 0)$$

$$\tau_1 \cdot \tau_2 = -3$$

$$C_{3S_1} = C - 3C_I.$$

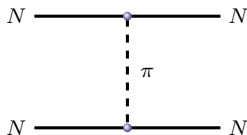
Thus C and C_I are simply another parametrization of the two S-wave couplings.

Conversely,

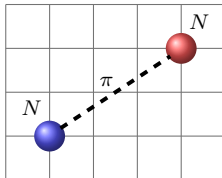
$$C = \frac{3C_{1S_0} + C_{3S_1}}{4}, \quad C_I = \frac{C_{1S_0} - C_{3S_1}}{4}.$$

Long-range physics: one-pion exchange

Continuum picture



On the spatial lattice



V_{OPE}

$$\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{p}' - \mathbf{p}.$$

At LO

$$V_{\text{OPE}}(\mathbf{q}) = -\frac{g_A^2}{4f_\pi^2} \frac{(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_1 \cdot \mathbf{q})(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_2 \cdot \mathbf{q})}{\mathbf{q}^2 + m_\pi^2} (\boldsymbol{\tau}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau}_2).$$

$$\frac{1}{\mathbf{q}^2 + m_\pi^2} \quad \text{pion propagator}$$

$$(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_1 \cdot \mathbf{q}) \text{ and } (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_2 \cdot \mathbf{q}) \quad \text{derivative } \pi N \text{ couplings}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau}_2 \quad \text{isospin structure}$$

pion exchange $\Rightarrow$ finite-range, spin- and isospin-dependent force.

The chiral lattice Hamiltonian

At leading order,

$$H_{\text{LO}} = H_{\text{free}}^{\text{lat}} + V_{\text{contact}}^{\text{LO}} + V_{\text{OPE}}^{\text{lat}}.$$

At higher orders we add

derivative NN contacts,
two-pion exchange,
three-nucleon forces,
Coulomb and isospin-breaking terms, . . .

operator basis + regulator + fitted LECs = a specified lattice interaction.