Systematic improvement of the Momentum Average approximation for the Green’s function of a Holstein polaron

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(Dated: February 1, 2008)

We show how to systematically improve the Momentum Average (MA) approximation for the Green’s function of a Holstein polaron, by systematically improving the accuracy of the self-energy diagrams in such a way that they can still all be summed efficiently. This allows us to fix some of the problems of the MA approximation, e.g. we now find the expected polaron+phonon continuum at the correct location, and a momentum-dependent self-energy. The quantitative agreement with numerical data is further improved, as expected since the number of exactly satisfied spectral weight sum rules is increased. The corrections are found to be larger in lower dimensional systems.

PACS numbers: 71.38.-k, 72.10.Di, 63.20.Kr

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the main challenges in condensed matter physics is to find simple yet accurate analytical approximations for systems in non-perturbative (strongly coupled) regimes. This is needed for interpretation of experiments and to help supplement the results available from numerical simulations of model Hamiltonians.

In this general context, we have recently proposed the so-called Momentum Average (MA) approximation for the Green’s function of a single Holstein polaron.1,2 The essence of this approximation is to sum all diagrams contributing to the polaron self-energy, however each diagram is approximated to such a degree as to allow the analytical summation of the entire series. Specifically, each free propagator appearing in a self-energy diagram is replaced by its momentum average. The resulting MA self-energy is a trivial-to-evaluate continued fraction which gives remarkably accurate results over most of the parameter space, including intermediate electron-phonon coupling strengths where perturbational methods completely fail to capture the correct physics.

In Refs. 1 and 2 we identified some of the reasons for this good agreement: first, the MA approximation becomes asymptotically exact for both very weak and very strong couplings. More importantly, the resulting MA spectral weight satisfies the first six spectral weight sum rules exactly, and remains highly accurate for all higher order sum rules. However, we also pointed out some shortcomings of the MA approximation: (i) it fails to predict the continuum that must appear at $E_{GS} + \Omega$, where $E_{GS}$ is the polaron ground-state (GS) energy, and $\Omega$ is the frequency of the Einstein phonons (we set $\hbar = 1$ throughout this work). This continuum arises from states that have a phonon excited very far from where the polaron is. As a result, their interactions are negligible and the energy of the system is simply the sum of the two. MA either predicts a wrong location for this continuum (at weak electron-phonon couplings) or no continuum at all in that range of energies (at intermediary and strong electron-phonon couplings). We noted in Ref. 2 that numerical simulations show that there is very little spectral weight in this continuum, hence its absence or wrong positioning does not significantly upset the agreement with the sum rules. Nevertheless, it would be reassuring to have an approximation that correctly predicts its existence; (ii) the accuracy of the MA approximation worsens as $\Omega \rightarrow 0$; (iii) the MA self-energy $\Sigma_{MA}(\omega)$ is independent of the momentum $k$ of the electron.

Given how featureless the Holstein model is (electron-phonon coupling and phonon frequency are both constants) one may expect a rather weak momentum dependence of the self-energy, however it is certainly not entirely absent.

In this article, we show how to systematically improve the MA approximation, generating a hierarchy of approximations that we call $\text{MA}^{(n)}$ (the original MA is $\text{MA}^{(0)}$ in this notation). As explained below, the idea is to systematically improve the accuracy of the “simplified” self-energy diagrams. The results become more and more accurate as $n$ increases – for example, while the MA spectral weight satisfies only the first 6 sum rules exactly, this improves to 8 and 10 exact sum rules respectively for $\text{MA}^{(1)}$ and $\text{MA}^{(2)}$ spectral weights. While the numerical effort also increases, it is still trivial for the $n = 1$ and $n = 2$ levels that we discuss explicitly here. Level $\text{MA}^{(1)}$ already solves the continuum problem, while all levels with $n \geq 2$ produce momentum-dependent self-energies. The accuracy in the limit $\Omega \rightarrow 0$ is also shown to improve significantly with increasing $n$. In effect, for a slightly increased numerical effort, $\text{MA}^{(2)}$ solves all the known problems of the $\text{MA}^{(0)}$ approximation.

The work is organized as follows: in Sec. II we briefly review the $\text{MA}^{(0)}$ approximation, presenting a new argument to explain its accuracy. In Sec. III we describe the systematic approach to obtain the improved versions $\text{MA}^{(n)}$, $n \geq 1$, and give explicit formulae for the self-energies corresponding to the $\text{MA}^{(1)}$ and $\text{MA}^{(2)}$ approximations. In Sec. IV we compare the predictions of these approximations against numerical simulations, to gauge the improved accuracy as $n$ increases. Spectral sum rules, as well as variational arguments, will also be used to explain the systematic improvement of accuracy with increasing $n$. Finally, Sec. V contains our conclusions.
II. BRIEF REVIEW OF THE MA(0) APPROXIMATION

The Holstein model is the simplest lattice model that includes electron-phonon coupling. Its Hamiltonian is

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_k \left( \varepsilon_k c_k^\dagger c_k + \Omega b_k^\dagger b_k \right) + \frac{g}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k,q} c_{k-q}^\dagger c_k (b_q^\dagger + b_{-q}).$$

The first term is the kinetic energy of the electron, with \( c_k^\dagger \) and \( c_k \) being the electron creation and annihilation operators. For the single electron (polaron) problem of interest to us, the spin of the electron is irrelevant and we suppress its index. \( \varepsilon_k \) is the free-particle dispersion. In all results shown here, we assume nearest-neighbor hopping on a \( d \)-dimensional simple cubic lattice of constant \( a \) (we set \( a = 1 \)) with a total of \( N \) sites, and with periodic boundary conditions. In this case

$$\varepsilon_k = -2t \sum_{i=1}^d \cos(k_i a),$$

but our results are valid for any other dispersion. The second term describes a branch of optical phonons of energy \( \Omega \). \( b_q^\dagger \) and \( b_q \) are the phonon creation and annihilation operators. The last term is the on-site linear electron-phonon coupling \( V_{el-ph} = g \sum_i c_i^\dagger c_i (b_i^\dagger + b_i) \) written in \( k \)-space. All sums over momenta are over the first Brillouin zone, namely \( -\pi < k_i \leq \pi, \ i = 1, d \).

The quantity of interest to us is the (retarded) single polaron Green’s function, defined as \[ G(k, \omega) = \langle 0 | c_k \hat{G}(\omega) c_k^\dagger | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | c_k \frac{1}{\omega - \mathcal{H} + i\eta} c_k^\dagger | 0 \rangle \] (1)
where \( | 0 \rangle \) is the vacuum \( \langle 0 | c_k | 0 \rangle = b_q | 0 \rangle = 0 \), and \( \eta > 0 \) is infinitesimally small.

As described in detail in Ref. 2, using repeatedly Dyson’s identity \( \hat{G}(\omega) = \hat{G}_0(\omega) + \hat{G}(\omega) V_{el-ph} \hat{G}_0(\omega) \), where \( V_{el-ph} = \mathcal{H} - \mathcal{H}_0 \) is the electron-phonon interaction potential and \( \hat{G}_0(\omega) = [\omega - \mathcal{H}_0 + i\eta]^{-1} \), we generate the infinite hierarchy of equations of motion whose exact solution is the desired Green’s function:

$$G(k, \omega) = G_0(k, \omega) \left[ 1 + \frac{g}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{q_i} F_1(k, q_1, \omega) \right], \quad (2)$$

and for \( n \geq 1, \)

$$F_n(k, q_1, \ldots, q_n, \omega) = \frac{g}{\sqrt{N}} G_0(k - q_T, \omega - n\Omega) \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n F_{n-1}(k, \ldots, q_{i-1}, q_{i+1}, \ldots, \omega) + \sum_{q_{n+1}} F_{n+1}(k, q_1, \ldots, q_{n+1}, \omega) \right]. \quad (3)$$

Here, \( q_T = \sum_{i=1}^n q_i \) is the total momentum carried by phonons, \( G_0(k, \omega) = (\omega - \varepsilon_k + i\eta)^{-1} \) is the free electron Green’s function, and we introduced the generalized Green’s functions

$$F_n(k, q_1, \ldots, q_n, \omega) = \langle 0 | c_k \hat{G}(\omega) c_{k-q_1}^\dagger b_{q_1}^\dagger \cdots b_{q_n}^\dagger | 0 \rangle.$$

These equations can be recast in a more convenient form after observing that if we treat Eqs. 3 as an inhomogeneous system of linear equations in unknowns \( F_1, F_2, \ldots, \) then the only inhomogeneous term appears in the first equation and is proportional to \( F_0(k, \omega) = G(k, \omega) \). It follows that all generalized Green’s functions \( F_1, F_2, \ldots \) must be proportional to \( G(k, \omega) \). As a result we introduce the more convenient variables:

$$f_n(k, q_1, \ldots, q_n, \omega) = \frac{N^2 g^n F_n(k, q_1, \ldots, q_n, \omega)}{G(k, \omega)}.$$ \quad (4)

In terms of these, Eq. 2 becomes:

$$G(k, \omega) = G_0(k, \omega) \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_1} f_1(k, q_1, \omega) G(k, \omega) \right].$$

so that the exact self-energy is:

$$\Sigma(k, \omega) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_1} f_1(k, q_1, \omega), \quad (5)$$

giving the standard solution:

$$G(k, \omega) = \frac{1}{\omega - \varepsilon_k - \Sigma(k, \omega) + i\eta}.$$ \quad (6)

To find \( f_1(k, q_1, \omega) \), we must solve the infinite system of coupled equations that result from Eqs. 4. For later convenience, we write the first few equations explicitly here, using the short-hand notation \( f_n(k, q_1, \ldots, q_n, \omega) \equiv f_n(q_1, \ldots, q_n) \) (i.e., the dependence of \( k \) and \( \omega \) of these functions is implicitly assumed from now on). Then:
\[ f_1(q_1) = G_0(k - q_1, \omega - \Omega) \left[ g^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_2} f_2(q_1, q_2) \right], \] \tag{7}

\[ f_2(q_1, q_2) = G_0(k - q_1 - q_2, \omega - 2\Omega) \left[ g^2 [f_1(q_1) + f_1(q_2)] + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_3} f_2(q_1, q_2, q_3) \right] \] \tag{8}

and for all \( n \geq 3 \),

\[ f_n(q_1, \ldots, q_n) = G_0(k - \sum_{i=1}^{n} q_i, \omega - n\Omega) \left[ g^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_{n-i}(q_1, \ldots, q_{i-1}, q_{i+1}, \ldots, q_n) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_{n+1}} f_{n+1}(q_1, \ldots, q_{n+1}) \right]. \] \tag{9}

Clearly, all the dependence on free propagators of the self-energy comes from the free propagator prefactors on the right-hand side of these equations.

As already stated, MA\(^{(0)}\) consists in replacing all free propagators in all self-energy diagrams by their momentum average:

\[ \bar{g}_0(\omega) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_k G_0(k, \omega). \] \tag{10}

Obviously, this corresponds to replacing the free propagator pre-factors on the right-hand side of Eqs. (7)-(9) by the corresponding \( \bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega) \). In this case, it is straightforward to see that the resulting solutions, denoted \( f_n^{(0)} \), are functions of \( \omega \) only (all dependence on phonon momenta disappears at this level of approximation). The resulting equations \( f_1^{(0)}(\omega) = \bar{g}_0(\omega - \Omega) \left[ g^2 + f_2^{(0)}(\omega) \right] \) and for \( n \geq 2 \), \( f_n^{(0)}(\omega) = \bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega) \left[ ng^2 f_{n-1}^{(0)}(\omega) + f_n^{(0)}(\omega) \right] \) are solved in terms of continued fractions (also see Appendix A) to find:

\[ \Sigma_{MA^{(0)}}(\omega) = f_1^{(0)}(\omega) = g^2 A_1(\omega) \] \tag{11}

where we define the infinite continued fractions:

\[ A_n(\omega) = \frac{ng_0(\omega - n\Omega)\bar{A}_{n+1}(\omega)}{1 - g^2 \bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega)A_{n+1}(\omega)} \] \tag{12}

\[ = \frac{ng_0(\omega - n\Omega)}{1 - (n + 1)g^2 \bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega)\bar{g}_0(\omega - (n + 1)\Omega)} \quad 1 - \ldots \]

Results based on this MA\(^{(0)}\) approximation have been analyzed in detail in Ref. 2.

Before discussing how to systematically improve this approximation, it is worth pointing out an alternative explanation for its good accuracy. This comes from realizing that in real space, the meaning of the MA\(^{(0)}\) approximation is that it replaces all free-propagators \( G_0(i, j, \omega - n\Omega) \) appearing in all self-energy diagrams, by \( \delta_{i,j}\bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega) \). For example, consider the real-space, second-order Green’s function diagram depicted in Fig. 1. It has the exact value \( \sum_{i,j} G_0(i, i, \omega)\Sigma_{2,c}(i, j, 1, \omega)G_0(j, j, \omega) \), where the contribution to self-energy from the second-order crossed self-energy diagram is: \( \Sigma_{2,c}(i, j, 1, \omega) = g^4 G_0(i, j, 1, \omega - \Omega)G_0(j, i, \omega - \Omega)G_0(j, j, \omega - 2\Omega)G_0(i, i, \omega - \Omega) \). Within MA\(^{(0)}\), \( \Sigma_{2,c}(i, j, 1, \omega) \) is approximated as \( \Sigma_{2,c}^{(0)}(i, j, 1, \omega) = \delta_{i,j}\bar{g}_0(\omega - \Omega) \). Inserting this into the Green’s function diagram removes one of the sums, and after Fourier transforming we find that the contribution of this diagram to \( G(k, \omega) \) is \( G_0(k, \omega)\Sigma_{2,c}^{(0)}(\omega)G_0(k, \omega) \). The same holds for all higher order diagrams. Summing all of them, we see that the free propagators in the proper self-energy parts have indeed been replaced by their momentum averages.

The reason why it is a good zero-order approximation to keep only the diagonal (in real space) contributions \( G_0(i, j, \omega - n\Omega) \rightarrow \delta_{i,j}\bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega) \) is straightforward to understand, at least for low energies \( \omega \sim E_{GS} \). Because of interactions, \( E_{GS} < -2dt \) (the polaron ground-state is below the free electron continuum). It follows that for \( \omega \sim E_{GS} \), the free propagators \( G_0(i, j, \omega - n\Omega) \) are needed at energies below the free electron continuum, and the larger \( n \) is the further below the band-edge these energies are. However, it is well-known that for \( \omega < -2dt \), the free propagator decreases exponentially with increasing distance \( |i - j| \). The reason is that there are no free-electron eigenstates outside the free-electron band, and the electron has to tunnel from one site to another. For example, in one dimension \( G_0(i, j, \omega) = e^{ik_0|j-i|}G_0(i, i, \omega) = e^{ik_0|j-i|}\bar{g}_0(\omega) \), where \( k_0 \) is the first quadrant solution of the equation \( \omega = -2t \cos k_0 \). For \( \omega < -2t \), \( k_0 = i\kappa \), where \( \kappa > 0 \) increases as \( \omega \) decreases. We also used the fact that in

FIG. 1: A second order diagram contribution to \( G(i, j, \omega) \).
terms of its Fourier transform:
\[
G_0(i, i, \omega) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_k e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{R}_i - R_i} G_0(k, \omega) = \tilde{g}_0(\omega).
\]

It follows that at low energies, MA\(^{(0)}\) keeps the largest contributions to the self-energy (from real-space diagonal terms), while ignoring exponentially small contributions coming from off-diagonal terms. This is expected to become more and more accurate for higher order diagrams with many phonons; the larger \(n\) is, the faster the exponential decay with distance of \(G_0(i, j, \omega - n\Omega)\) becomes.

Based on these arguments one expects at least low-energy properties to be well described by MA, at least if \(\Omega\) is not too small. Together with the good agreement with numerics validates this.\(^2\)

**III. HIGHER LEVELS MA\(^{(n)}\), \(n \geq 1\)**

The above arguments also suggest a systematic way towards improving the MA\(^{(0)}\) approximation. The biggest error at low energies is due to the momentum average of the propagators of energy \(\omega - \Omega\). This is the energy closest to the free electron continuum and therefore these propagators have the slowest decay in real space. The next slowest decay is for the propagators of energy \(\omega - 2\Omega\), etc. If one could selectively keep these propagators exactly while momentum-averaging the ones with more phonons (lower energy, faster decay) this should improve the accuracy of the approximation at low energies. In fact, all sum rules would also be improved (individual diagrams are more accurate) therefore one would expect an improvement at all energies. This is precisely what the higher levels MA\(^{(n)}\), \(n \geq 1\), achieve.

We define MA\(^{(n)}\) as being the approximation where in all self-energy diagrams, all free propagators with energy \(\omega - m\Omega\), where \(m \leq n\), are kept exactly, while the ones with more than \(n\) phonons are momentum averaged.

In terms of the equations-of-motion that need to be solved, Eqs. (7)-(9), achieving this is straightforward, since a propagator of energy \(\omega - m\Omega\) appears only once, in the right-hand side pre-factor of the equation for \(f_m(q_1, \ldots, q_m)\). It follows that if we keep the first \(n\) of Eqs. (7)-(9) as they are, and approximate the equations for \(f_{n+1}, f_{n+2}, \ldots\) by momentum-averaging the free propagator appearing in the right-hand side pre-factor \(G_0(k - q', \omega - m\Omega) \to \tilde{g}_0(\omega - m\Omega)\) if \(m \geq n + 1\), we achieve our goal — provided that we can find the solution of the resulting infinite system of coupled equations.

We now derive explicitly the solutions for \(n = 1\) and \(n = 2\) levels.

**A. MA\(^{(1)}\) level**

In this case, the equations to be solved are:
\[
\Sigma_{MA^{(1)}}(k, \omega) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_1} f_1^{(1)}(q_1) \quad (13)
\]
where
\[
f_1^{(1)}(q_1) = G_0(k - q_1, \omega - \Omega) \left[ g^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_2} f_2^{(1)}(q_1, q_2) \right] \quad (14)
\]
and for all \(n \geq 2\),
\[
f_n^{(1)}(q_1, \ldots, q_n) = \tilde{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega) \left[ g^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_{n-1}^{(1)}(q_1, \ldots, q_{i-1}, q_{i+1}, \ldots) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_{n+1}} f_{n+1}^{(1)}(q_1, \ldots, q_{n+1}) \right]. \quad (15)
\]

As before, the dependence on \(k, \omega\) is implicitly assumed everywhere. We use the upper labels \((1)\) because these are the approximative solutions corresponding to MA\(^{(1)}\).

The solution of this infinite set of recurrent equations is discussed in Appendix [B]. The end result is:
\[
\Sigma_{MA^{(1)}}(\omega) = \frac{g^2 \tilde{g}_0(\ddot{\omega})}{1 - g^2 \tilde{g}_0(\ddot{\omega}) [A_2(\omega) - A_1(\omega - \Omega)]}, \quad (16)
\]
where [see Eq. (11)]:
\[
\ddot{\omega} = \omega - \Omega - g^2 A_1(\omega - \Omega) = \omega - \Omega - \Sigma_{MA}(\omega - \Omega). \quad (17)
\]
The continued fractions \(A_1(\omega - \Omega), A_2(\omega)\) are defined in Eq. (12). This expression is slightly more complicated than \(\Sigma_{MA^{(0)}}(\omega)\), since it involves two different continued fractions, however it is still very trivial to compute.

Note that based on this and other results derived in Appendix [B] we can now calculate the MA\(^{(1)}\) expressions for the generalized Green’s functions \(f_n^{(1)}(k, q_1, \ldots, q_n, \omega) \sim F_n(k, q_1, \ldots, q_n, \omega)\). These will be more accurate than the values obtained within the MA\(^{(0)}\) approximation, where none of the \(f_n^{(0)}\) expression had any momentum dependence. These generalized Green’s functions contain further information about the polaron, for example regarding the phonon statistics.

As can be seen from Eq. (10), the self-energy is still momentum independent at this level. However, it is
clear that this is because the Holstein model is so featureless. If, e.g., the coupling was dependent on the phonon momentum, then the first self-energy diagram \( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}} |g(\mathbf{q})|^2 G_0(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{q}, \omega) \) would be \( \mathbf{k} \) dependent, and so would \( \Sigma_{MA^{(1)}}(\mathbf{k}, \omega) \) (this diagram is exact at MA\(^{(1)}\) level). Indeed, work in progress on generalizing this approach to models with \( g(\mathbf{q}) \) coupling verifies this.

It is also clear that even for the Holstein model, all expressions \( \Sigma_{MA^{(n)}}(\mathbf{k}, \omega) \) with \( n \geq 2 \) will have momentum dependence, since Holstein self-energy diagrams of second order are momentum dependent. We demonstrate below that this is indeed the case.

Finally, the MA approximation becomes exact in the limit \( g \to 0 \) and \( t \to 0 \). The first limit is trivial, since \( \Sigma \to 0 \). The second is due to the fact that if \( t = 0 \) then free propagators \( G_0(\mathbf{k}, \omega) \) are in fact independent of \( \mathbf{k} \), and thus the momentum averages become irrelevant. Clearly, the same must hold true for all higher level MA\(^{(n)}\) approximations. Indeed, one can verify directly that if \( \bar{g}_0(\omega) = (\omega + i\eta)^{-1} \) (corresponding to \( t = 0 \)), then the expressions in Eqs. (16) and (11) are equal. The same is true for the MA\(^{(2)}\) results we present below.

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### B. MA\(^{(2)}\) level

In this case, the equations to be solved are [compare to the exact Eqs. (7)-(9)]:

\[
\Sigma_{MA^{(2)}}(\mathbf{k}, \omega) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_1} f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1)
\]

where

\[
f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1) = G_0(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{q}_1, \omega - \Omega) \left[ g^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_2} f_2^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2) \right],
\]

\[
f_2^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2) = G_0(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{q}_1 - \mathbf{q}_2, \omega - 2\Omega) \left[ g^2 f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1) + f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_2) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_3} f_3^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \mathbf{q}_3) \right]
\]

and for all \( n \geq 3 \),

\[
f_n^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{q}_n) = \bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega) \left[ g^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_{n-1}^{(2)}(\ldots, \mathbf{q}_{i-1}, \mathbf{q}_{i+1}, \ldots) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_{n+1}} f_{n+1}^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{q}_{n+1}) \right].
\]

Dependence on \( \mathbf{k}, \omega \) is again implicitly assumed.

This can be reduced to a closed system of equations in terms of only \( f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1) \) and \( f_2^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2) \), after solving for \( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2} f_3^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \mathbf{q}_3) \) from Eqs. (19). The details are provided in Appendix C.

We use the short-hand notation:

\[
A_1 \equiv A_1(\omega - 2\Omega); A_2 \equiv A_2(\omega - \Omega); A_3 \equiv A_3(\omega),
\]

where the continued fractions are defined in Eq. (12).

We also define various momentum averages (dependence on \( \mathbf{k}, \omega \) is implicit):

\[
\mathcal{F}_1 = \Sigma_{MA^{(2)}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_1} f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1),
\]

\[
\mathcal{F}_2 = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2} f_2^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2) = \frac{2g^2 \bar{g}_0(\tilde{\omega}) \mathcal{F}_1}{1 - g^2 \bar{g}_0(\tilde{\omega})(A_3 - A_1)},
\]

\[
\delta \tilde{F}_2(\mathbf{q}_1) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_2} f_2^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2) - \mathcal{F}_2.
\]

The link between \( \mathcal{F}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{F}_2 \) is proved in Eq. (C4).

In terms of these, the closed system of equations to be solved becomes (see Appendix C for more details):

\[
f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1) = G_0(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{q}_1, \omega - \Omega) \left[ g^2 + \delta \tilde{F}_2(\mathbf{q}_1) + \mathcal{F}_2 \right],
\]

\[
\delta \tilde{F}_2(\mathbf{q}_1) = g^2 \bar{g}_0(\tilde{\omega}) \left[ f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_1) + (A_2 - A_1) \delta \tilde{F}_2(\mathbf{q}_1) - 2\mathcal{F}_1 \right] + \frac{g^2}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_2} G_0(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{q}_1 - \mathbf{q}_2, \tilde{\omega}) \left[ f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}_2) + (A_2 - A_1) \delta \tilde{F}_2(\mathbf{q}_2) \right].
\]

These equations can be solved in a variety of ways. We present here the most efficient solution that we have found, and then comment briefly on other possible solutions. First, given the form of these equations, it is advantageous to introduce the new unknown

\[
x_\mathbf{q} = f_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}) + (A_2 - A_1) \delta \tilde{F}_2(\mathbf{q}).
\]

Consider its Fourier transform at various lattice sites \( \mathbf{R}_i \), namely \( x(i) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}} e^{i\mathbf{q}\cdot\mathbf{R}_i} x_\mathbf{q} \). First, observe that \( x(0) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{q}} x_\mathbf{q} = \mathcal{F}_1 = \Sigma_{MA^{(2)}} \), by definition.
As shown in Appendix C, the set of two closed equations above can be rewritten as an inhomogeneous equation involving $x(i)$ (at all lattice sites):

$$
\sum_j M_{ij}(\mathbf{k}, \omega)x(i) = e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{R}_i} g^2 G_0(-i, \tilde{\omega})
$$  \hspace{1cm} (23)

where

$$
\tilde{\omega} = \omega - \Omega - \frac{g^2 \tilde{g}_0(\tilde{\omega})}{1 - g^2 \tilde{g}_0(\tilde{\omega})(A_2 - A_1)},
$$

$G_0(i, \omega) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_k e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{R}_i} G_0(\mathbf{k}, \omega)$, and the expression of the matrix elements $M_{ij}(\mathbf{k}, \omega)$ is given in Eqs. \((\ref{eq:matrix_elements})\) \textit{et al.} They have simple expressions, involving only (the same) three continued fractions $A_1, A_2, A_3$ as well as various $G_0(i, \omega)$ values, therefore they can be calculated easily.

Because at low energies the free propagators in real space decay exponentially, one expects that $x(i)$ decreases fast with increasing distance $\mathbf{R}_i$. Alternatively, consider, for instance, the $f^{(2)}_i$ contribution to $x_{\mathbf{q}}$. When Fourier transformed, the initial state $c^\dagger_{-\mathbf{q} \mathbf{k}} b^\dagger_\mathbf{q} |0\rangle$ goes into $c^\dagger_{-\mathbf{q} \mathbf{q} + i} |0\rangle$, i.e. the phonon is further and further apart from the electron. Similar interpretation can be given for the second contribution to $x(i)$. One expects the amplitudes for such processes to decay with $i$.

As a result, we can truncate the system of equations (23) assuming that $x(i) = 0$ for all $\mathbf{R}_i$ larger than a cutoff. We vary this cutoff to insure that convergence has indeed been achieved. In this formulation, we find that convergence is reached extremely fast, typically for a cutoff distance of order 5-10 (see results section). In other words, to obtain $\Sigma_{MA(2)}(\mathbf{k}, \omega) = x(0)$, in 1D we typically have to solve a system of 11 or so inhomogeneous equations, which can be done very efficiently. Higher dimensions imply larger systems, but overall the numerical task is still trivial and results can be obtained very fast and with little computational resources.

It is important to emphasize that such low cutoffs are not inherent in the problem. In fact, one could also solve these equations, for instance, by eliminating $f^{(2)}_i(\mathbf{q})$ to get an equation only in terms of $\delta f_2(\mathbf{q}_1)$ and $F_2 \sim \Sigma$. If one Fourier transforms this, it turns out that cutoffs as large as 100a are needed before convergence is achieved, and this is especially so for the polaron+one-phonon continuum (the bound polaron states converge quickly). This is not surprising, since states in the polaron+one-phonon continuum do have a free phonon, i.e. one that could be infinitely far from the polaron. In reality, we expect that if we have a finite but large enough system, all quantities will eventually converge to their bulk values. In particular, here this suggests that one needs to allow the free phonon to be hundreds of sites away from the polaron before convergence for the continuum is achieved.

The much faster convergence for the formulation of Eq. (23) is due in part to the particular choice of variable $x_{\mathbf{q}}$. Even more important is the infinite summation of diagrams performed when the new frequency $\tilde{\omega}$ appears (see Appendix C). Without this, the convergence for continuum energies remains slow and large cutoffs are needed. Examples are discussed in the results section.

Of course, one could also attempt to solve these equations directly in the $\mathbf{k}$-space. Without having tried it, we believe this to be an inefficient approach. The goal is to find $F_1 = \Sigma$, i.e. an average over the Brillouin zone. Within MA(1), $f^{(1)}_i(\mathbf{q}) \sim g^2 G_0(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{q}, \tilde{\omega})$ (it is a constant in MA). Presuming that $f^{(2)}_i(\mathbf{q})$ is not too different, it is clear that these functions are of comparable size everywhere in the Brillouin zone, and therefore one should sample many points in the Brillouin zone to obtain an accurate average.

Finally, going back to Eq. (23), we would like to point out that if we set the cutoff at zero distance, i.e. use $M_{00}x(0) = g^2 \tilde{g}_0(\tilde{\omega})$, we obtain an analytical, momentum-independent approximation to the true $\Sigma_{MA(2)}(\mathbf{k}, \omega)$:

$$
\Sigma_{MA(2)}(\omega) = \frac{g^2 \tilde{g}_0(\tilde{\omega})}{1 - g^2 \tilde{g}_0(\tilde{\omega}) (A_2 - A_1)}, \hspace{1cm} (24)
$$

where

$$
a_{ij}(\omega) = 1 - g^2 \tilde{g}_0(\tilde{\omega})(A_i - A_j).
$$

One can think of this as the variant of MA(2) that keeps some of the free propagators of energy $\omega - 2\mathbf{q}$ exactly (typically those appearing in non-crossed diagrams), but averages over those that give momentum dependence to the self-energy. The self-energy $\Sigma_{MA(2)}(\omega)$ is more accurate than $\Sigma_{MA(1)}(\omega)$ but less accurate than $\Sigma_{MA(2)}(\mathbf{k}, \omega)$. Such “zero-cutoff” analytical approximations can be obtained for higher levels of MA(n) quite easily. The full MA(n) for $n > 2$ can also be done. The reduction to a closed system of $n$ coupled equations is always straightforward. Its solution, however, becomes more computationally involved as $n$ increases, and leads to gradually smaller improvements in the accuracy.

\section{Results}

A detailed comparison of the predictions of the MA approximation vs. numerical simulations is available in Ref. 2. Instead of another comprehensive investigation, here we will focus on several properties where the higher level MA(n) approximations show a significant improvement over MA results. The way of extracting quantities of interest from the Green’s function, \textit{e.g.} ground-state (GS) energies, quasiparticle (qp) weights, effective masses, average number of phonons in the polaron cloud, etc., are described in detail in Ref. 2. Throughout we use

$$
\lambda = \frac{g^2}{2d\Omega}, \hspace{1cm} (25)
$$

as the effective coupling strength, $d$ being the dimension of the lattice. All energies are measured in units of $t$. 

other words, the real-space counterpart of the general-
lows phonons only at the site where the electron is. In
tions are built within a restricted Hilbert space that al-
equivalent to a variational approach where the eigenfunc-
the use of more accurate expressions for the diagrams.
higher order sum rules is also systematically improved by
10 sum rules exactly, etc. Of course, the accuracy of all
fies the first 8 sum rules exactly, MA
It does become asymptotically exact, as expected. The
comparison with Quantum Monte Carlo (QMC) results
is shown in Fig. 2, where we also show the MA
accurate for a large range of parameters. The accuracy is
known to worsen as Ω/t → 0, however even for Ω/t = 0.1
the MA energies have less than 5% relative error. On the
other hand, the GS qp weight for this low Ω/t ratio is
quite wrong for intermediary couplings λ ∼ 1, although it
does become asymptotically exact, as expected. The
comparison with Quantum Monte Carlo (QMC) results
is shown in Fig. 2 where we also show the MA(1) and
MA(2) predictions.

A. Ground-state properties

The ground-state energies predicted by MA are quite
accurate for a large range of parameters. The accuracy is
known to worsen as Ω/t → 0, however even for Ω/t = 0.1
the MA energies have less than 5% relative error. On the
other hand, the GS qp weight for this low Ω/t ratio is
quite wrong for intermediary couplings λ ∼ 1, although it
does become asymptotically exact, as expected. The
comparison with Quantum Monte Carlo (QMC) results
is shown in Fig. 2 where we also show the MA(1) and
MA(2) predictions.

The accuracy is improved significantly for the higher
MA levels. Improvements are observed for all other sets
of parameters (not shown) analyzed in Ref. 2, however
for higher Ω/t ratios MA is much more accurate to begin
with, so the supplementary improvements due to MA(1)
and MA(2) are comparatively smaller. As discussed, this
systematic improvement is expected since all self-energy
diagrams become more and more accurate. This is re-
flected in the sum rules for spectral weight, which are
also systematically improved (the link between diagrams
and sum rules is discussed at length in Ref. 2). While
MA satisfies the first 6 sum rules exactly, MA(1) satis-
fies the first 8 sum rules exactly, MA(2) satisfies the first
10 sum rules exactly, etc. Of course, the accuracy of all
higher order sum rules is also systematically improved by
the use of more accurate expressions for the diagrams.

This systematic improvement can also be understood
in variational terms. As pointed out in Ref. 2, MA is
equivalent to a variational approach where the eigenfunc-
tions are built within a restricted Hilbert space that al-
loows phonons only at the site where the electron is. In
other words, the real-space counterpart of the general-
ized Green’s functions \( F_n \), namely \( F_n(i; j, j_1, \ldots, j_n; \omega) = \)
\( \langle 0|c_i \hat{G}(\omega)c_j^{\dagger}b_{j_1}^{\dagger} \cdots b_{j_n}^{\dagger}|0 \rangle \rightarrow F_n^{(0)}(i; j; \omega) \Pi_{\alpha=1}^{n} \delta_{j_i,j_{\alpha}} \) at the
MA(0) level. This is equivalent to asking that the single-
polaron eigenstates have non-zero overlap only with basis
states of the general type \( c_j^{\dagger}(b_j^{\dagger})^n|0 \rangle \), ∀\( j, n \). It is straight-
forward to verify that with this restriction, the resulting
equations for \( F_n \) lead to the MA(0) self-energy.

This observation immediately explains the absence of
the polaron+one-phonon continuum, since within this re-
stricted Hilbert space it is not allowed to have a phonon
far from where the electron is. To compensate for the
missing continuum’s weight and satisfy the sum rules,
the GS qp weight is increased within MA, as seen in Fig.
2 b) and many other examples discussed in Ref. 2.

In this variational interpretation, MA(1) almost cor-
responds to using a restricted Hilbert space enlarged by
basis states of the form \( c_j^{\dagger}(b_j^{\dagger})^n b_{j'}^{\dagger}|0 \rangle \), ∀\( j, j', n \), i.e. it
also includes states where one phonon could exist any-
where with respect to the electron. The equivalence is
not exact, because the resulting equation for \( F_2 \) is not
the same in the two cases (all other equations for all
other \( F_n \) with \( n \neq 2 \) are the same). More precisely, one
should think of MA(1) as a variational method also ac-
companied by a change in the Hamiltonian if and only if
acting on electron+two-phonon states. Similarly, MA(2)
corresponds to using a restricted Hilbert space spanned
by basis states that allow any number of phonons on the
electron site plus up to two phonons anywhere else in the
system, accompanied by a change in the Hamiltonian if
and only if acting on electron+three-phonon states (now
the equation for \( F_3 \) is not quite the same as in MA(2),
etc. Note that one could also define improvements to
MA based on the variational equations for \( F_2 \) (instead of
that resulting from MA(1)), \( F_3 \) (instead of MA(2)), etc.
However, these equations are more involved than the cor-
responding MA(\( n \)) type equations, making the solution of
the system of coupled equations more difficult.

This systematic increase in the size of the variational
Hilbert space is another way to explain the gradual im-
provement of the GS energy. Also, it is now clear that
the polaron + one-phonon continuum should appear at
level MA(1) (see below). As a result, the GS qp weight
no longer needs to account for it and it decreases, im-
proving the agreement with QMC results as shown in
Fig. 2 b). We will return to this issue when we investi-
gate spectral weights. For the time being, we note that
in the adiabatic limit Ω/t → 0, many phonons can be
created in the system at low energetic cost. In the in-
termediary region \( λ \sim 1 \) where the polaron cloud is still
relatively large, one expects many of these phonons to
be relatively far from the polaron and therefore a high
order \( n \) would be required in order to accurately describe
them within this approach. As a result, it is expected
that the strongly adiabatic regime will not be quanti-
tatively well described for \( λ \sim 1 \) by the low-level MA
approximations, even though the qualitative behavior is
correctly captured. Of course, this limit can be investig-
gated by other means, such as in Ref. 2 and references
therein. However, for most of the parameter space, i.e.
for 1D and two couplings, $\lambda$ leads to an obvious improvement, even though for this found similar improvements in 2D cases. Clearly, MA(2) gives very easy to evaluate yet remarkably accurate results.

Results are shown in Fig. 3 for the energy $E_k$ in (a),(c),(e), respectively $\lambda=0.25$, $\Omega=0.5$ and $\lambda=1.00$, $\Omega=0.5$; the MA set of approximations give very easy to evaluate yet remarkably accurate results.

We can also track how the lowest eigenstate of momentum $k$, and its various properties, change with various parameters. Results are shown in Fig. 3 for the energy $E_k$, qp weight $Z_k$, and (c) and (f) average number of phonons $N_{ph}(k)$ vs. $k$, in $d=1$, for $\Omega=0.5t$ and $\lambda=0.25$ in (a),(c),(e), respectively $\lambda=1.00$ in (b),(d),(f). The QMC results are from Ref. 13.

any $\Omega/(dt) > 0.1$ or so and any coupling $\lambda$, the MA set of approximations give very easy to evaluate yet remarkably accurate results.

B. Polaron band

We can also track how the lowest eigenstate of momentum $k$, and its various properties, change with various parameters. Results are shown in Fig. 3 for the energy $E_k$, qp weight $Z_k$, and average number of phonons $N_{ph}(k)$ for 1D and two couplings, $\lambda=0.25$ and $\lambda=1.00$. We found similar improvements in 2D cases. Clearly, MA(2) leads to an obvious improvement, even though for this value of $\Omega/t = 0.5$, MA itself is quite accurate already. It should be noted that $\lambda \sim 1$ is where the MA accuracy is generally expected to be at its worst. In particular, for the weak-coupling value $\lambda = 0.25$, we see that MA overestimates the distance to the continuum, i.e. $E_2 - E_0 > \Omega$. This should be $\Omega$, but it is larger for MA because the polaron+one-phonon continuum is not predicted at the correct energy $\lambda$ (For $\lambda = 1$, there is a second bound state between the one shown and the continuum, therefore the bandwidth is much less than $\Omega$). For MA(1) and MA(2) this problem is indeed fixed, and the polaron dispersion width (at weak couplings) is $\Omega$. All other quantities are also clearly more accurate.

C. Polaron+one-phonon continuum and higher energy states

In order to understand the effects on higher-energy states, we study the spectral weight $A(k, \omega) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \text{Im} G(k, \omega)$. As is well known, this is finite only at energies $\omega$ where eigenstates of momentum $k$ exist. For discrete (bound) states the spectral weight is a Lorentzian of width $\eta$ and height proportional to the qp weight. In a continuum, the lifetime is determined by $\text{Im} \Sigma(k, \omega)$ and is independent of $\eta$ if $\eta$ is chosen small enough.

In Fig. 4(a) we show results for the 1D spectral weight $A(k=0, \omega)$ vs. $\omega$ for a relatively weak coupling $\lambda = 0.6$. The MA spectral weight shows two discrete states at low energies, and a continuum starting for $\omega > -1.5t$. Within MA(1), the second peak spreads into a continuum whose lower edge is at roughly $\Omega$ above the energy of the GS peak. In fact, since $g_0(\omega)$ acquires an imaginary part when $-2dt \leq \omega \leq 2dt$, from Eq. 10 it follows that the
FIG. 5: (color online) (a) Spectral weight $A(0, \omega)$ vs. $\omega$ in 1D for $t = 1$, $\Omega = 0.5$, $\lambda = 1.2$, $\eta = 0.01$, in MA, MA$^{(1)}$ and MA$^{(2)}$ (curves shifted for clarity); (b) $\ln A(0, \omega)$ vs. $\omega$ for MA$^{(2)}$ and $\eta = 10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-4}$. Other parameters are as in (a).

MA$^{(1)}$ continuum appears when $\tilde{\omega} \geq -2t - \omega > E_{GS}^{(0)} + \Omega$, where $E_{GS}^{(0)}$ is the MA prediction for the GS energy. Since the MA$^{(1)}$ GS energy $E_{GS} < E_{GS}^{(0)}$, it follows that the gap is in fact slightly larger than $\Omega$. In MA$^{(2)}$ the weight is redistributed within this continuum, and its lower band-edge is at $\Omega$ above the ground-state energy, within numerical precision.

The convergence of MA$^{(2)}$ with the cutoff value used to truncate Eqs. (22) is shown in Fig. 4(b). For a cutoff value of 0 we obtain the momentum-independent self-energy of Eq. (22), which gives a continuum with a shape rather similar to that predicted by MA$^{(1)}$. As the cutoff value is increased, weight shifts towards the lower band-edge. Convergence is reached very quickly, with little difference visible between results corresponding to a cutoff of 5 or 10 (these imply solving an inhomogeneous system of 11, respectively 21 equations in Eqs. (22)). Other solutions of the coupled equations (briefly discussed in the previous section) converge much more slowly. In Fig. 4(c) we show results for 3 cutoffs for such an alternative scheme. Even for a cutoff as large as 100, one can still see small oscillations, very reminiscent of finite-size effects. The finding of an efficient solution for the MA$^{(2)}$ self-energy is thus quite important.

Similar behavior is observed for higher couplings, as seen in Figs. 5(a) and 6(a) for intermediate, respectively strong couplings $\lambda = 1.2$ and 1.8. In both cases there are now two bound, discrete states below the continuum starting at $E_{GS} + \Omega$, as expected. The weight of the polaron+one-phonon continuum decreases very fast, so that for $\lambda = 1.8$ it is barely visible just above the second peak. Fig. 6(b) shows it clearly, on a logarithmic scale. Interestingly, it is not only the height of this feature that is much smaller as $\lambda$ increases, but its width as well. In fact, scaling vs. $\eta$ in Fig. 6(b) shows that this is more like a Lorentzian, i.e. a single bound state, and not a finite-width continuum as was the case for lower couplings (see Fig. 5(b)). This is in fact reasonable, since at such large couplings the lowest energy polaron state is basically dispersionless (the effective mass is already considerable and the polaron is well into the small-polaron regime). Since the width of the continuum is due to the polaron dispersion (the phonon being dispersionless) it is reasonable that as the polaron bandwidth decreases exponentially with increasing coupling, so does the width of the polaron+one-phonon continuum.

The higher energy features are also quite interesting. For the intermediate coupling $\lambda = 1.2$, at some distance above the polaron+one-phonon continuum one can see the feature evolved from what was the third discrete state in the MA approximation. For a large $\eta$ value this looks like a continuum, however scaling with $\eta$ reveals a discrete state just below another continuum. In fact, the spectrum is broken up into discrete states and continua separated by gaps where no states are present. Of course, the detailed shape of the spectral weight above the third bound state is likely to change as one goes to MA$^{(3)}$ and higher orders, however it seems implausible that these gaps should all close and a single continuum should form above $E_{GS} + \Omega$, as is the case at very weak couplings (see below). Instead, these results suggest that most weight is inside bound states which are reminiscent of the Lang-Firsov “comb” of discrete states separated by a frequency $\Omega$. Here the distance between discrete states is generally less than $\Omega$ and there are narrow continua in both, which evolve from lower-energy bound-states + one or more phonons. This is nicely illustrated by the results in Fig. 6(b), which show 2 different features between the third and the fourth bound states. The lower-energy one is a continuum that starts roughly at $\Omega$ above the second bound state, and has a finite width. Since the second bound state still has some finite bandwidth at this coupling (see below), it seems reasonable to interpret this feature as being the polaron in the second-bound state plus one phonon somewhere far from it. The higher energy feature is much narrower, but close inspec-
tion reveals that it also is a continuum, with the lower edge starting at \( E_{GS} + 2\Omega \), so its origin is obvious. The continua between higher bound states become wider, in agreement with expectations if one assumes that indeed they result from adding a distant phonon to a polaron in a higher bound state, which has a larger bandwidth. There is also overlap between different types of states, which also leads to increased bandwidth.

This structure of the spectral weight explains why the MA (which predicts only bound states at low energies, for medium to strong coupling) still obeys sum rules with such good accuracy. Most of the weight is indeed in the bound states, not in the narrow continua that appear in between them. These results also show clearly how the convergence towards the Lang-Firsov limit \( g \gg t \) is achieved: the width and weight of the continua shrink to zero, and one is left only with the equally spaced discrete states. This is illustrated in Fig. 7 where \( k = 0 \) MA spectral weights are contrasted with MA\(^{(2)}\) spectral weights for different \( \lambda \) values. The largest difference is observed at small couplings, where MA predicts the (wrong) continuum pinned at \(-2dt + \Omega = -1.5\) for these values, whereas MA\(^{(2)}\) clearly shows a continuum starting at \( \Omega \) above the ground-state for as long as it is still visible. For \( \lambda > 0.7 \) or so, a second bound state splits from this continuum and comes quite close to the GS peak before moving away so that it asymptotically goes to \( E_{GS} + \Omega \).

There are clear similarities between the two plots, with most of the weight concentrated in the bound states that are roughly \( \Omega \) apart, but MA overestimates their weights in order to compensate for the missing narrow continua that appear in between these discrete states. As stated, the precise shape and weight of the higher continua is very likely to change as one goes to a higher level MA approximation, however we expect the general picture to remain essentially the same.

The higher energy spectral weight against detailed numerical predictions, beyond the sort of comparisons shown for the polaron dispersion in Fig. 3. The reason is that most of the numerical work is focused on computing low-energy properties (a detailed overview of such work is provided in Ref. [2] or, for example, in Ref. [9]). The much fewer high-energy results, such as those based on a variational treatment in Ref. [10] and a novel QMC / exact diagonalization approach in Ref. [11] use a rather large \( \eta \) and are already in reasonable agreement with MA, as discussed in Ref. [2]. Cluster perturbation theory (CPT) results such as shown in Ref. [12], while also an approximation, are in good qualitative and quantitative agreement with ours. It would be very interesting to be able to compare our results against detailed high-accuracy, high-energy numerical predictions.

We are unable to check quantitatively the accuracy of the higher energy spectral weight against detailed numerical predictions, beyond the sort of comparisons shown for the polaron dispersion in Fig. 3. The reason is that most of the numerical work is focused on computing low-energy properties (a detailed overview of such work is provided in Ref. [2] or, for example, in Ref. [9]). The much fewer high-energy results, such as those based on a variational treatment in Ref. [10] and a novel QMC / exact diagonalization approach in Ref. [11] use a rather large \( \eta \) and are already in reasonable agreement with MA, as discussed in Ref. [2]. Cluster perturbation theory (CPT) results such as shown in Ref. [12], while also an approximation, are in good qualitative and quantitative agreement with ours. It would be very interesting to be able to compare our results against detailed high-accuracy, high-energy numerical predictions.

Finally, we contrast the difference between MA and MA\(^{(2)}\) spectral weights for different momenta and energies. Typical results are shown in Figs. 8 and 9 for weak, intermediate and strong couplings \( \lambda = 0.3, 0.6, 1.2 \) and 1.8, respectively. For the weak coupling, as already discussed, the most obvious difference is that the polaron bandwidth is decreased to its correct value of \( \Omega \) in MA\(^{(2)}\). The \( qp \) weights and all other features are very similar. Based on the MA\(^{(2)}\) results, it is now clear that the strong resonance seen in the electron+phonon continuum occurs at an energy of \( 2\Omega \) above the ground-state energy. One expects that here is where the second bound state will arise from. For \( \lambda = 0.6 \), Figs. 8(c) and (d) show a bigger contrast. Here, MA already predicts a second bound state that has evolved in between the
FIG. 8: $A(k, \omega)$ vs. $k$ and $\omega$ in 1D for $t = 1, \Omega = 0.5, \eta = 0.01$ and $\lambda = 0.3$ in (a), (b) and $\lambda = 0.6$ in (c), (d). Results for MA are shown in (a), (c), while MA$^{(2)}$ is shown in (b), (d).

FIG. 9: $A(k, \omega)$ vs. $k$ and $\omega$ in 1D for $t = 1, \Omega = 0.5, \eta = 0.01$ and $\lambda = 1.2$ in (a), (b) and $\lambda = 1.8$ in (c), (d). Results for MA are shown in (a), (c), while MA$^{(2)}$ is shown in (b), (d).

polaron band and the higher-energy continuum. In contrast, MA$^{(2)}$ shows that there is no second-bound state yet, however the electron+one-phonon continuum is split off the higher energy continuum, which also starts to fractionalize at higher energies (roughly multiples of $\Omega$).

Within MA$^{(2)}$, a true second bound-state is observed for the higher couplings shown in Fig. 9. In contrast to MA, which shows several bound states which disperse as $k$ increases, MA$^{(2)}$ also clearly shows continua in between these discrete states. These account for some of the spectral weight that was in the MA peaks. These results again suggest a very fractionalized spectrum at intermediate and strong couplings. Instead of the polaron band, a second-bound state and a rather featureless continuum. These account for some of the spectral weight that was in the MA peaks. These results again suggest a very fractionalized spectrum at intermediate and strong couplings. Instead of the polaron band, a second-bound state and a rather featureless continuum.

FIG. 10-13: We show the 2D spectral weight $A(k = 0, \omega)$ vs. $\omega$, for effective couplings $\lambda = 0.3, 0.6, 0.95$ and 1.2, both on linear and logarithmic scales. Qualitatively, everything is similar to the behavior seen in the 1D case. Quantitatively, we find that the continuum that appears at $\Omega$ above the ground-state is broader, but of lower height. In fact, its height is so small that it is invisible on curves like those in Fig. 7, which is the reason why we do not show such curves here. The overall weight in this continuum also decreases much faster with increasing $\lambda$. In 1D, for $\lambda = 1.2$ the continuum is not clearly visible, see Fig. 5. For $\lambda = 1.8$ it becomes harder to see on the linear scale, but it is clearly seen on the logarithmic scale. By contrast, in 2D, for $\lambda = 1.2$ the continuum is no longer visible on the linear scale, and even in the logarithmic scale it only barely starts to be visible for $\eta = 10^{-4}$ (small shoulder marked by arrow). The spectral weight for a Lorentzian contribution $Z/(\omega + i\eta)$ is done by numerically. Of course, one could choose simpler forms of the dispersion $\epsilon_k$ for which analytical results are possible. However, as we show now, in higher dimensions the improvements in going to MA$^{(1)}$ and MA$^{(2)}$ are quantitatively smaller, because the relative weight in the continua is reduced compared to the 1D case. This is in agreement with our general observation that MA itself becomes more accurate with increased dimensionality.2
$Z\eta/[\pi(\omega^2 + \eta^2)]$, so the maximum height of the peak, at resonance, is $Z/\pi\eta$. This is visible only if it is larger than the background, which of course depends on how close is the next spectral feature. However, for a very small $Z$, $\eta$ has to be really small before the peak is seen.

As in the 1D case, we also observe the fractionalization of the spectrum for moderate and large effective couplings, with a succession of discrete peaks and continua at higher energies. We expect similar behavior to be observed in 3D as well. Clearly, the changes in going from MA to MA$^{(1)}$ and MA$^{(2)}$ are quantitatively much smaller in 2D than in 1D, because the continua have so little weight. We expect the trend to continue in going to 3D, meaning that in 3D, the difference between MA$^{(2)}$ and MA should be quantitatively even less. Indeed, all the comparisons of MA results with available 3D numerics, shown in Ref. 2, are already in excellent agreement, even for intermediary couplings $\lambda \sim 1$. As a result, we find it unnecessary to present 3D results, although they can be obtained very straightforwardly.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we presented a way to systematically improve the MA approximation, by systematically improving the accuracy of self-energy diagrams, but in such a way that they can still all be efficiently summed.

This allows us to rather easily fix various known failings of the MA approximation, such as the absence of the polaron+one-phonon continuum at the correct energy, and its momentum-independent self-energy. It also allows us to understand in more detail the effects of the Holstein-type electron-phonon coupling on the polaron spectrum, both at low and high energies. While agreement with exact numerical results is improved, unfortunately there are not many such results for higher energy states, so detailed comparisons are not possible there. However, the hierarchy of MA$^{(n)}$ approximations is clearly providing a simple way towards obtaining quantitatively more and more accurate results for the Green’s function of the Holstein polaron, in any dimension and
for any free electron dispersion.

The next direction of obvious interest is to study to what extent this work can be extended to other models, for example models where the electron-phonon coupling depends on the phonon momentum (e.g. the breathing-mode or Fröhlich Hamiltonians). For such models there are very few reliable high-energy results available. A simple approximation such as MA could easily investigate the whole parameter space and identify interesting regimes. Such work is currently in progress.

Acknowledgments: We thank O. S. Barisić for useful comments and George A. Sawatzky for many discussions. This work was supported by the A. P. Sloan Foundation, CIAR Nanoelectronics, NSERC and CFI.

APPENDIX A: CONTINUED FRACTIONS

Consider the set of recurrence relations \( f_{-1} = 1 \) and for \( n \geq 0 \),

\[
f_n = \alpha_n f_{n-1} + \beta_n f_{n+1},
\]

where \( f_n \to 0 \) as \( n \to \infty \) (this is justified for all cases of interest to us since \( f_n \) is related to a generalized Green’s function with \( n \) phonons in the initial state and none in the final state. If \( n \) is large enough, the amplitude of probability to evolve between states must vanish).

Truncating the system at a large enough \( N \) so that \( f_{N+1} \approx 0 \), we solve backwards to find \( f_N = \alpha_N f_{N-1}, f_{N-1} = \alpha_{N-1} f_{N-2}/(1 - \beta_{N-1} \alpha_N), \ldots \). In general,

\[
f_n = \frac{\alpha_n f_{n-1}}{1 - \frac{\alpha_n+1 \beta_n}{1 - \alpha_n+2 \beta_n+1}} = A_n f_{n-1}.
\]

If we allow \( N \to \infty \), then the solution becomes exact and \( A_n = \alpha_n/[1 - \beta_n A_{n+1}] \) are infinite continued fractions.

APPENDIX B: MA(1) DETAILS

First, we use Eqs. (15) to find how \( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_2} f_2^{(1)}(q_1, q_2) \) depends on \( f_1^{(1)}(q_1) \). This is then used in Eq. (14) to solve for \( f_1^{(1)}(q_1) \), and \( \Sigma \) follows from Eq. (13).

We introduce the partial momentum averages:

\[
\bar{f}_n(q_1) = \frac{1}{N_{n-1}} \sum_{q_2, \ldots, q_n} f_n^{(1)}(q_1, \ldots, q_n), \tag{B1}
\]

We use the convention that \( \bar{f}_1(q_1) = f_1^{(1)}(q_1) \) and the full momentum averages:

\[
\bar{f}_n = \frac{1}{N^n} \sum_{q_1, \ldots, q_n} f_n^{(1)}(q_1, \ldots, q_n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_1} \bar{f}_n(q_1)
\]

so that \( \Sigma_{MA(1)}(k, \omega) = F_1 \).

First, we average each of Eqs. (15) over all the corresponding momenta, to find that for \( n \geq 2 \), \( F_n = g_0(\omega - n \Omega)[g^2 F_{n-1} + F_{n+1}] \). This has the continued-fraction solution (see Appendix A):

\[
F_2 = g^2 A_2(\omega) F_1 \tag{B3}
\]

where \( A_2(\omega) \) is a continued fraction defined in Eq. (12) and \( F_1 \) is still unknown.

We now average each of Eqs. (15) over all the momenta except \( q_1 \), to find that for \( n \geq 2 \), \( \bar{f}_n(q_1) = g_0(\omega - n \Omega)[g^2 \bar{f}_{n-1}(q_1) + \bar{f}_{n+1}(q_1)] \). This can also be solved by rewriting it in terms of \( \bar{f}_n(q_1) = \bar{f}_n(q_1) - F_n \). Using the recurrence relation for \( F_n \), we find that:

\[
\bar{f}_n(q_1) = g_0(\omega - n \Omega) [(n - 1)g^2 \bar{f}_{n-1}(q_1) + \delta \bar{f}_{n+1}(q_1)].
\]

This also has solutions in terms of continued fractions, in particular \( \delta \bar{f}_2(q_1) = g^2 A_2(\omega - \Omega) \bar{f}_1(q_1) \). Using Eq. (13) we then find \( f_2(q_1) = g^2 A_1(\omega - \Omega) f_1(q_1) + g^2 [A_2(\omega - A_1(\omega - \Omega)] F_1 \). This expression is now inserted in Eq. (14) to give an equation with only \( f_1^{(1)}(q_1) \) and \( F_1 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_q f_1^{(1)}(q_1) \) as unknowns, which can be re-arranged as:

\[
\left[ (G_0(k - q_1, \omega - \Omega))^{-1} - g^2 A_1(\omega - \Omega) \right] f_1^{(1)}(q_1)
\]

\[
= g^2 + g^2 [A_2(\omega) - A_1(\omega - \Omega)] F_1.
\]

But \( [G_0(k, \omega)]^{-1} - \alpha(\omega) = \omega - \epsilon_k + i \eta - \alpha(\omega) = [G_0(k, \omega - \alpha(\omega))]^{-1} \) and therefore we find:

\[
f_1^{(1)}(q_1) = G_0(k - q_1, \omega - \Omega - g^2 A_1(\omega - \Omega))
\]

\[
\times [g^2 + g^2 [A_2(\omega) - A_1(\omega - \Omega)] F_1].
\]

After momentum averaging over \( q_1 \) on both sides, we find \( F_1 = \Sigma [\text{see Eq. (16)}] \). Based on the knowledge of \( f_1^{(1)}(q_1) \) and the various partial and total averages, one can now compute \( f_2^{(1)}(q_1, q_2) \), etc.

APPENDIX C: MA(2) DETAILS

As for MA(1), the strategy is to solve Eqs. (21) to find how \( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_3} f_3^{(1)}(q_1, q_2, q_3) \) depends on \( f_2^{(1)}(q_1, q_2) \). Using this in Eq. (20) allows us to solve it in conjunction with Eq. (19) to find \( f_1^{(2)}(q_1) \) and therefore \( \Sigma \).

We introduce various partial momentum averages:

\[
\bar{f}_n(q_1, q_2) = \frac{1}{N_{n-2}} \sum_{q_3, \ldots, q_n} f_n^{(2)}(q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_n),
\]

\[
\bar{f}_n(q_1) = \frac{1}{N_{n-1}} \sum_{q_2, \ldots, q_n} f_n^{(2)}(q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_n).
\]
where we take \( \tilde{f}_1(q_1) = f_1(q_1) = f_2^{(2)}(q_1, q_2) = f_2^{(2)}(q_1, q_2) \). We also define the full momentum averages:

\[
F_n = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_1, \ldots, q_n} f_n^{(2)}(q_1, \ldots, q_n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_1} \tilde{f}_n(q_1) \quad (C1)
\]

The functions \( \tilde{f}_n, f_n \) and \( F_n \) should also carry the upper label (2) since their values are different than those obtained within \( \text{MA}^{(1)} \), however we do not write it explicitly to simplify the notation somewhat.

The solutions for \( F_n \) and \( f_n \) proceed just as in the \( \text{MA}^{(1)} \) case, with one difference. Averaging all equations \( 21 \) over all corresponding momenta, we find that now only for \( n \geq 3 \), \( F_n = \bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega)[nq^2F_{n-1} + F_{n+1}] \), therefore this recurrence relation now ends with:

\[
F_3 = g^2A_3(\omega)F_2. \quad (C2)
\]

Similarly, after using the same approach as for \( \text{MA}^{(1)} \), one finds that \( \delta f_3(q_1) = \tilde{f}_3(q_1) - F_3 = g^2A_2(\omega - \Omega)\delta f_2(q_1) \) so that \( \tilde{f}_3(q_1) = g^2A_2(\omega - \Omega)f_2(q_1) + g^2A_3(\omega - 2\Omega)F_2 \). Of course, the functions \( F_2, f_2(q_1) \) are still unknown. Finally, we can proceed to calculate \( \tilde{f}_3(q_1, q_2) \) which is needed in Eq. (20).

We momentum average Eqs. \( 21 \) over all momenta except \( q_1, q_2 \), to find:

\[
\bar{f}_n(q_1, q_2) = \bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega) \left[ g^2(\bar{f}_{n-1}(q_1) + \bar{f}_{n-1}(q_2)) \right] + (n-2)g^2\bar{f}_{n-1}(q_1, q_2) + \bar{f}_{n+1}(q_1, q_2) .
\]

Let \( \delta \bar{f}_n(q_1, q_2) = \tilde{f}_n(q_1, q_2) - \bar{f}_n(q_1) - \bar{f}_n(q_2) + F_n \). For these, the recurrence relations are \( \delta \bar{f}_n(q_1, q_2) = \bar{g}_0(\omega - n\Omega) \left[ (n-2)g^2\delta \bar{f}_{n-1}(q_1, q_2) + \delta \bar{f}_{n+1}(q_1, q_2) \right] \) with the solution \( \delta \bar{f}_3(q_1, q_2) = g^2A_1(\omega - 2\Omega)\delta \bar{f}_2(q_1, q_2) \), from which we find \( \tilde{f}_3(q_1, q_2) = g^2A_1f_2^{(2)}(q_1, q_2) + g^2A_2 - A_1)[\delta f_2(q_1) + \delta f_2(q_2)] + g^2[A_3 - A_1]F_2 \), i.e. only in terms of various partial averages of \( f_2^{(2)}(q_1, q_2) \). Throughout we use the shorthand notation:

\[
A_1 = A_1(\omega - 2\Omega), A_2 = A_2(\omega - \Omega), A_3 = A_3(\omega).
\]

We now substitute \( \tilde{f}_3(q_1, q_2) \) in Eq. (20), which gives:

\[
f_2(q_1, q_2) = g^2G_0(k - q_1 - q_2, \tilde{\omega}) \left[ f_1^{(2)}(q_1) + f_1^{(2)}(q_2) \right] + (A_2 - A_1)[\delta f_2(q_1) + \delta f_2(q_2)] + [A_3 - A_1]F_2. \quad (C3)
\]

We used the fact that \( G_0(k - q_1 - q_2, \omega - 2\Omega)^{-1} - g^2A_1 = [G_0(k - q_1 - q_2, \omega)^{-1}]^{-1} \), with \( \tilde{\omega} = \omega - 2\Omega - g^2A_1 \).

Momentum averaging Eq. (C3) over both momenta leads immediately to \( F_2 = g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega) [2F_1 + (A_3 - A_1)F_2] \), and therefore:

\[
F_2 = \frac{2g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega)\bar{g}_0(\omega)F_1}{1 - g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega)[A_3 - A_1]]. \quad (C4)
\]

It follows that all higher order total averages \( F_n \) are proportional to \( F_1 = \Sigma \).

Since only \( \tilde{f}_2(q_1) \) is needed in Eq. (19), we can obtain it by momentum averaging Eq. (C2) over \( q_2 \). This leads directly to the closed system of coupled equations:

\[
f_1^{(2)}(q_1) = G_0(k - q_1, \omega - \Omega) \left[ g^2 + \delta f_2(q_1) + F_2 \right],
\]

\[
\delta f_2(q_1) = g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega) \left[ f_1^{(2)}(q_1) + (A_2 - A_1)\delta f_2(q_1) - 2F_1 \right] + \frac{g^2}{N} \sum_{q_2} G_0(k - q_1 - q_2, \tilde{\omega}) \left[ f_1^{(2)}(q_2) + (A_2 - A_1)\delta f_2(q_2) \right].
\]

To solve it, we first rewrite these as a single equation in terms of the unknowns \( q_1 = f_1^{(2)}(q_1) + (A_2 - A_1)\delta f_2(q_1) \). This is obtained by adding the second equation to \( [A_2 - A_1 + G_0(k - q_1, \omega - \Omega)] \times \) the first equation. We introduce the short-hand notation:

\[
a_{ij} = a_{ij}(\omega) = 1 - g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega)(A_2 - A_i)
\]

and use the identities \( [G_0(k - q_1, \omega - \Omega)]^{-1} - g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega)[1 + (A_2 - A_1)G_0(k - q_1, \omega - \Omega)]^{-1} = [1 - g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega)[A_2 - A_1]] [G_0(k - q_1, \tilde{\omega})]^{-1} \), where

\[
\tilde{\omega} = \omega - \Omega - g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega)/a_{21},
\]

and \( G_0(k - q_1, \tilde{\omega}) \left[ 1 + (A_2 - A_1)G_0(k - q_1, \omega - \Omega)]^{-1} \right] = A_2 - A_1 + G_0(k - q_1, \omega) / a_{21} \). Both identities are based on the definition \( G_0(k, \omega)]^{-1} = \omega - gk + i\eta \).

With these, the final equation for \( x_q \) becomes:

\[
a_{21}x_q = G_0(k - q_1, \tilde{\omega}) \left[ g^2 + \frac{a_{21} + a_{31}}{a_{21}}F_2 \right] - a_{31}(A_2 - A_1)F_2 + \left[ A_2 - A_1 + \frac{G_0(k - q_1, \tilde{\omega})}{a_{21}} \right] \times \frac{g^2}{N} \sum_{q_2} G_0(k - q_2, \tilde{\omega}) x_{q_2}.
\]

We now Fourier transform \( x(i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_q e^{iqR} x_q \). From the definition of \( x_q \) it follows immediately that \( x(0) = F_1 = \Sigma \). Since \( F_2 \sim F_1 \sim x(0) \) [see Eq. (C4)], the resulting system of inhomogeneous equations is:

\[
\sum_j M_{ij}(k, \omega) x(j) = e^{ikR} g^2 G_0(-i, \tilde{\omega})
\]

where \( G_0(i, \omega) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_k e^{ikR} G_0(k, \omega) \), and the matrix elements are:

\[
M_{00} = 1 - g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega)\bar{g}_0(\omega) \left( \frac{2}{a_{31}} - \frac{1}{a_{21}} \right), \quad (C5)
\]

\[
M_{i0} = -g^2\bar{g}_0(\omega)e^{ikR} G_0(-i, \tilde{\omega}) \left( \frac{2}{a_{31}} - \frac{1}{a_{21}} \right) \quad (C6)
\]

for \( i \neq 0 \), and for both \( i, j \neq 0 \):

\[
M_{ij} = a_{21} \delta_{i,j} - g^2 e^{ikR} G_0(i, \tilde{\omega}) \times \left[ (A_2 - A_1)\delta_{i,j} + \frac{G_0(-i - j, \tilde{\omega})}{a_{21}} \right]. \quad (C7)
\]
We truncate this system by keeping only sites $R_i$ within a certain distance from the origin (see discussion in main text) and solve it numerically. The self-energy is

$$\Sigma_{MA}^{(2)}(\mathbf{k}, \omega) = x(0).$$

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