The bulk Fermi surfaces for noninteracting electrons in three dimensional (3D) systems with translational symmetry are traditionally classified as closed surfaces, isolated points or closed lines, which emerge in metals, Weyl semimetals or nodal line semimetals [1–3], respectively. Recently, it has been shown that a Weyl point can develop into a type-II Weyl point with an open Fermi surface structure [4, 5], such as a double cone structure that extends infinitely far without boundaries. In a real material with periodic potentials, such an open Fermi surface becomes closed because of the closed structure of Brillouin zones. In fact, in a 3D Hermitian noninteracting system with translational symmetry under a periodic potential, a bulk Fermi surface with boundaries is not allowed. To search for such a Fermi surface, one may consider strongly correlated or disordered systems. Indeed, the bulk Fermi arc with ending points has been experimentally observed in the pseudogap phase of two-dimensional (2D) copper oxide high temperature superconductors [7].

While a Hermitian noninteracting system without disorder does not allow for the existence of bounded Fermi surfaces, it has been found that bounded bulk Fermi surfaces can arise in non-Hermitian Weyl or nodal line semimetals due to the appearance of exceptional rings [8–13]. In this context, great efforts have been put into unravelling intriguing gapless phenomena in non-Hermitian systems [14–18]. In addition, recent studies have theoretically demonstrated that the non-Hermitian topology can arise in disordered or strongly interacted systems due to finite quasiparticle lifetimes [6, 39–46]. Although there has been a number of studies concerning exceptional points and revealing the existence of bulk Fermi arcs in 2D strongly correlated systems by the dynamical mean field theory (DMFT) [47–52], it remains an important open question of whether exceptional rings with bounded Fermi surfaces can appear in a 3D strongly correlated material.

In the paper, we theoretically demonstrate the emergence of exceptional rings with bounded bulk Fermi surfaces in a 3D periodic Anderson model (PAM) in a non-centrosymmetric lattice that was previously identified as a Weyl-Kondo semimetal [53, 54]. The model consists of strongly correlated localized $f$ electrons and itinerant conduction $c$ electrons in a zincblende structure consisting of $A$ and $B$ sublattices. The interactions for $f$ electrons renormalize the effective one-body Hamiltonian through a self-energy in the retarded Green’s function. In the presence of hybridization between $f$ electrons and conduction electrons, the interactions not only renormalize parameters for a Weyl Hamiltonian but also transform Weyl points into exceptional rings. Such a ring arises from the fact that $f$ electrons on $A$ and $B$ sublattices exhibit different lifetimes due to the broken inversion symmetry. Based on the second-order perturbation theory, we show that a Weyl point develops into a Weyl exceptional ring with a bulk Fermi disk as temperatures rise. As we further raise temperatures, two pairs of such Weyl exceptional rings merge into two exceptional rings, leading to the emergence of a bounded Fermi surface in the shape of a tube (we thus call it a Fermi tube, which is topologically equivalent to a Fermi ribbon found in a non-Hermitian nodal line semimetal [11–13]). Finally, we utilize the DMFT to numerically compute the spectral functions illustrating the emergence of the bulk Fermi tubes in our system. Given the fact that a noncentrosymmetric-
The hybridization changes the energy $\varepsilon_{c,i}(k)$ ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4$) of $H_c(k)$ to two energies $\varepsilon_{c,\pm}(k) = [(\varepsilon_f + \varepsilon_{c,i}(k)) \pm \sqrt{(\varepsilon_f - \varepsilon_{c,i}(k))^2 + 4\lambda^2}] / 2$. Thus, a Weyl point at zero energy in $H_c(k)$ becomes two Weyl points with different energies: One has a negative energy corresponding to a quarter filling. For convenience, we will add a constant energy shift $\varepsilon_s = V^2 / \varepsilon_f$ in $H_c$ so that the energy at Weyl points between the second and third bands is fixed at the zero energy.

In the presence of interactions, we consider the retarded Green’s function at the energy $\omega$

$$G^R(\omega, k) = [\omega + H_0(k) - \Sigma(\omega, k)]^{-1},$$

where $\mu$ is the chemical potential and $\Sigma(\omega, k)$ is the self-energy. Similar to the two-dimensional case [48], since there are interactions only for $f$ electrons, only $f$ electrons acquire a nonzero self-energy,

$$\Sigma(\omega) = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_f(\omega) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$  

Here, we also assume that the self-energy is independent of quasimomenta because we consider heavy $f$ electrons without dispersion (in other words, the temperature is high compared to the bandwidth of $f$ electrons) [48]. With time-reversal symmetry, $\Sigma_f$ is independent of spins, i.e., $[\Sigma_f]_{\sigma\sigma'} = [\Sigma_f]_{\sigma\sigma'}$. However, without inversion symmetry, $\Sigma_f$ can have different components at different sublattices. At finite temperatures, the self-energy takes complex values due to quasiparticle finite lifetimes. The breaking of inversion symmetry thus leads to different lifetimes for electrons at different sublattices, resulting in the appearance of Weyl exceptional rings as shown in the following discussion.

To demonstrate that exceptional rings emerge in the presence of lifetime difference of electrons at different sublattices, we expand the self-energy in the Taylor series up to the first order with respect to $\omega$,

$$\Sigma_f(\omega) \approx a_0 - i\Gamma_0 + (a_1 - i\Gamma_1)\tau_z + a_{0\omega}\omega + a_{1\omega}\omega\tau_z,$$  

where $a_0 + a_1$ and $a_0 - a_1$ ($a_{0\omega} + a_{1\omega}$ and $a_{0\omega} - a_{1\omega}$) describe the zeroth-order (first-order) real parts of the self-energy at sublattices $A$ and $B$, respectively, and $\Gamma_0 + \Gamma_1$ and $\Gamma_0 - \Gamma_1$ depict the inverse of quasiparticle lifetimes at sublattices $A$ and $B$, respectively. To present clearly, we here do not consider the imaginary contribution in the first-order correction (see Supplementary Section 2 for the derivation). In this case, the first-order terms only renormalize parameters as $\varepsilon_f = \varepsilon_f + a_0 \to \varepsilon_f = [(Z_A + Z_B)\varepsilon_f + (Z_A - Z_B)a_1] / 2$, $\Gamma_0 \to \Gamma_0 = [(Z_A + Z_B)\Gamma_0 + (Z_A - Z_B)\Gamma_1] / 2$, $\Gamma_1 \to \Gamma_1 = [(Z_A - Z_B)\Gamma_0 + (Z_A + Z_B)\Gamma_1] / 2$ with $Z_A = 1/(1 - a_{0\omega} - a_{1\omega})$ and $Z_B = 1/(1 - a_{0\omega} + a_{1\omega})$. The first-order terms also renormalize the coupling matrix diag($V, V$) to diag($V_A, V_B$) with $V_A = \sqrt{Z_A V}$ and
ε

where the Hamiltonian becomes nondiagonalizable. One exceptional ring determined by

v

2 sin

in momentum space are still determined by to a quarter filling. There, the locations of Weyl points

H

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FIG. 1. (a) The first Brillouin zone of the fcc structure with six pairs of Weyl points marked out as red (chiral charge +1) and blue (chiral charge −1) solid circles. (b) Schematics of the evolution of the zero-energy structure from four Weyl points to four Weyl exceptional rings (with bulk Fermi disks highlighted by the gold color) which finally develop into two exceptional rings (with bulk Fermi tubes highlighted by the gold color). The winding number over the closed red circle enclosing two Weyl exceptional rings vanishes so that the two rings can merge. (c) The distribution of bulk Fermi tubes in the first Brillouin zone at the temperature \( T = 1/6 \). (d) The spectral function versus the energy for the points in momentum space marked out by solid circles in (b). The sectional view of the zero-energy spectral function \((e)(g)\) in the \( k_y = 0 \) plane around \( k_x = 2\pi \) and \((f)(h)\) in the \( k_\perp = 2\pi \) plane. In \((e)-(f)\), \( T = 1/20 \), and in \((g)-(h)\), \( T = 1/6 \). (i) The zero-energy spectral function over the full Brillouin zone in the \( k_y = 0 \) plane. Here, \( t = 0.5, m = 1.2, \lambda = 0.6, V = 2, U = 2, \varepsilon_f = 1 \) and \( \varepsilon_s = -4 \). We take \( k_B \) and Kelvin as energy and temperature units, respectively.

\[ V_B = \sqrt{ZT}V. \]

When \( \Gamma_0 = \Gamma_1 = 0 \), we add an energy shift \( \epsilon_s = \langle \varepsilon_{fr} V^2 + V_0 \bar{a}_1 \rangle / (\bar{\varepsilon}_{fr}^2 - \bar{a}_1^2) \) with \( \bar{V} = \sqrt{V_1^2 + V_2^2} \), \( V_0 = -2V_1 V_2 \), \( V_1 = (V_A + V_B)/2 \) and \( V_2 = (V_A - V_B)/2 \) in \( H_z \) to fix the energy of Weyl points at zero corresponding to a quarter filling. There, the locations of Weyl points in momentum space are still determined by \( H_z \) with a renormalized mass \( \bar{m} = m - d_z \) with \( d_z = (\bar{V}^2 a_1 V_0 \bar{\varepsilon}_{fr})/(a_1^2 - \bar{\varepsilon}_{fr}^2) \). In fact, only \( k_0 \) is changed to \( k_0 = 2 \sin^{-1}(\bar{m}/4\lambda)) \) with \( 0 < \bar{k}_0 < \pi \).

We now study the effects of the imaginary parts of the self-energy on the pole of the Green’s function. To derive an analytical expression of the energy close to a Weyl point, we assume that \( \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, a_1, a_0, \) and \( a_{1w} \) are small quantities. Slightly away from a Weyl point \( k_W \) determined by \( u_1(k_W) = u_2(k_W) = 0 \) and \( \bar{m} + \alpha \lambda D(k_W) = 0 \) with \( D = \sqrt{D_x^2 + D_y^2 + D_z^2} \) and \( \alpha = \pm 1 \), \( u_1 \) and \( u_2 \) and \( \bar{m} + \alpha \lambda D(k_W) \) are small quantities. Specifically, \( u_1(k_W + \delta k) = d_x, u_2(k_W + \delta k) = d_y \) and \( \bar{m} + \alpha \lambda D(k_W + \delta k) = d_z \), where \( \delta k \) is a small vector measured with respect to \( k_W \). The energy is derived as

\[ \omega = -i\Gamma_0 \nu_0 \pm \sqrt{\nu_1^2 + \nu_2^2 + (d_z - i\gamma_0)^2}, \]

where \( \nu_0 = \varepsilon_s / (\bar{\varepsilon}_{fr} + \varepsilon_s), \nu_1 = \varepsilon_{fr} / (\bar{\varepsilon}_{fr} + \varepsilon_s) \) and \( \gamma_0 = \varepsilon_s \bar{\Gamma}_1 / \bar{\varepsilon}_{fr} \). Remarkably, the inverse lifetime difference \( \bar{\Gamma}_1 \) at two sublattices leads to the emergence of a Weyl exceptional ring determined by \( d_z = 0 \) and \( d_x^2 + d_y^2 = \gamma_0^2 \), where the Hamiltonian becomes nondiagonalizable. One of the authors has established that a Weyl exceptional ring is characterized by two topological invariants: the Chern number and the Berry phase [5]. In addition, the real part of the energy vanishes inside the ring, leading to a bulk Fermi surface in the shape of a Fermi disk. Specifically, consider the two pairs of Weyl points on the \( k_x = 2\pi \) plane. Based on the perturbation theory up to the second order (see Supplementary Section 3 for details), as temperatures rise, the difference of the inverse of quasiparticle lifetimes \( \bar{\Gamma}_1 \) gets bigger, leading to the development of four Weyl exceptional rings from four Weyl points; as \( \bar{\Gamma}_1 \) further increases, the neighboring Weyl exceptional rings merge and become two exceptional rings [see Fig. 1(b)]. The two rings serve as two boundaries of a bounded Fermi surface in the shape of a Fermi tube (there is a total of three Fermi tubes in the first Brillouin zone as shown in Fig. 1[c]). The mergence can happen due to the fact that the winding number defined as [58–60]

\[ W_L = \frac{1}{2\pi} \oint_{L} d\mathbf{k} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{k}}[\arg(\omega_+) + \arg(\omega_-)], \]

vanishes over a closed path enclosing two neighboring rings [see Fig. 1(b)]. Here, \( \omega_- \) and \( \omega_+ \) refer to the two energies close to zero energy which are numerically obtained by approximating the self-energy up to the first order.

The bounded Fermi surface manifests in the spectral functions, which can be experimentally measured.
by angle-resolved photoemission spectroscopy (ARPES). The spectral functions read

$$\rho(\omega, \mathbf{k}) = -(1/\pi) \text{Im} \text{Tr}[G^R(\omega, \mathbf{k})],$$

which reflects the pole information of the Green’s function. To demonstrate, we calculate the self-energy by the perturbation theory up to the second order (see Supplementary Material for details) and then evaluate the spectral functions (see Fig. 1). Specifically, when $T = 1/20$, there are two pairs of Weyl exceptional rings with four bulk Fermi disks [see Fig. 1(b)]. We illustrate the Fermi disk structures by the sectional view of the zero-energy spectral function in the $k_y = 0$ plane around $k_z = 2\pi$ and in the $k_z = 2\pi$ plane. The former shows two short bright lines and the latter shows four bright arcs. The arcs are connected to form a ring with much smaller values in the connecting parts, which arises from the fact that the existence of $\Gamma_0$ widens the spectral functions. When the temperature is raised to $T = 1/6$, two pairs of Weyl exceptional rings become two rings with a bulk Fermi tube. Similarly, the sectional view of the zero-energy spectral function reflects the bulk Fermi tube structure: There are two bright lines in the $k_y = 0$ plane and a bright circle in the $k_z = 2\pi$ plane. Figure 1(d) further displays the spectral functions with respect to the energy for some points in momentum space. On the Fermi tube, the spectral function exhibits a peak at zero energy; away from the tube, it develops a minimum around the zero energy and peaks away from the zero energy, consistent with the energy spectrum structure (see Supplementary Section 4 for details).

**Spectral functions calculated by the DMFT**—In order to analyze the interacting effects more accurately, we adopt the DMFT with the segment-based hybridization-expansion continuous-time quantum Monte Carlo impurity solver (CT-HYB) implemented in the toolkit Triqs [61]. Within the DMFT, we treat the self-energy $\Sigma(\mathbf{k}, \omega)$ in Eq. (4) approximately as $\Sigma(\omega)$ based on the local fluctuation approximation. We also numerically confirm that the off-diagonal entries in $\Sigma'(\omega)$ are much smaller than the diagonal ones. Even though the self-energy is $\mathbf{k}$-independent, it is beyond the reach of the perturbation theory for intermediate and strong interactions.

To calculate the spectral function $\rho(\omega, \mathbf{k})$, we first employ the DMFT to compute the imaginary time Green’s function and then carry out the numerical analytic continuation of the imaginary time self-energy $\Sigma(i\omega_n)$ with Triqs/maxent. For the numerical analytic continuation, we find that the output of $\Sigma(\omega)$ is extremely sensitive to the noise in $\Sigma(i\omega_n)$. To ensure the reliability of our results, we need to reduce the amplitude of noises as far as possible. In practice, we utilize the Legendre polynomial to reduce high-frequency noises during self-consistent iterations and average multi-step iterative results of $\Sigma(i\omega_n)$ as the final output after convergence.

Figure 2 demonstrates the sectional view of the zero-energy spectral functions around $k_z = 2\pi$ at different temperatures obtained by the DMFT calculation. We see clearly the existence of bulk Fermi tubes, which become longer and thinner with temperatures. The spectral functions with respect to the energy exhibit a peak at zero energy in a momentum on a Fermi tube and peaks away from zero energy in momenta away from the Fermi tube. The results are qualitatively consistent with those obtained by the perturbation theory. However, compared with the results from the perturbation theory calculations, the contrast between the values of the peak and background of $\rho(\omega, \mathbf{k})$ from the DMFT calculations is lower. We attribute this to a smaller value of $\Gamma_1/\Gamma_0$ from the DMFT than that from the perturbation theory, generating a relatively larger background. Because the DMFT is a better way to treat interactions, one can attribute the features above to interaction effects. Clearly, the DMFT reveals that the bulk Fermi tubes benefit from the complex-valued self-energy from intermediate interactions. However, one can expect that this interesting phenomenon would be finally suppressed by strong interactions when the system enters into the Mott insulator phase (see Supplementary Section 5 for details).

In summary, we have found that exceptional rings emerge in the complex pole of the Green’s function in a 3D PAM model at finite temperatures due to distinct quasiparticle lifetimes at different sublattices. Such
rings give rise to bounded bulk Fermi surfaces such as Fermi disks or Fermi tubes manifesting in the spectral functions, which are experimentally measurable by the ARPES. We finally use the DMFT to calculate the spectral functions in our system, revealing the emergence of bulk Fermi tubes. Recently, a noncentrosymmetric heavy fermion semimetal Ce$_3$Bi$_4$Pd$_3$ has been experimentally identified [55, 56], and we may expect that bulk Fermi tubes may be experimentally observed in the material. Our work thus adds a new direction for studying bounded Fermi surfaces in 3D strongly correlated systems.

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In the Supplementary Material, we will provide the specific expressions for the hopping terms in the Hamiltonian (2) in the main text in Section S-1, derive the pole of the Green’s function near a Weyl point in the presence of the self-energy in Section S-2, compute the self-energy using the second-order perturbation theory in Section S-3, analyze the emergence of Weyl exceptional rings arising from the quasiparticle lifetime difference at different sublattices. After we first study a simple case where the self-energy contains only the terms that are independent of the energy, and show that, we demonstrate that the effects of including a term in the self-energy that is linearly dependent of the energy is zero. The inverse of the Green’s function is

$$G^{-1} = \omega - \left( \frac{\tilde{\varepsilon}_f + \alpha \tau_2}{V} \begin{pmatrix} V_H & \varepsilon_s \\
H_c & \varepsilon_s \end{pmatrix} \right),$$

where $\tilde{\varepsilon}_f = \varepsilon_f - \alpha \tau_2 / V$.

S-1. HOPPING TERMS IN THE HAMILTONIAN

The hopping terms $u_1$, $u_2$ and $D_\nu$ ($\nu = x, y, z$) in the Hamiltonian (2) in the main text are given by

$$u_1(k) = t[1 + \sum_{n=1}^{3} \cos(k \cdot a_n)]$$
$$u_2(k) = t \sum_{n=1}^{3} \sin(k \cdot a_n)$$
$$D_x(k) = \lambda \{ \sin(k \cdot a_2) - \sin(k \cdot a_3) \sin[k \cdot (a_2 - a_1)] + \sin[k \cdot (a_3 - a_1)] \}$$
$$D_y(k) = \lambda \{ \sin(k \cdot a_3) - \sin(k \cdot a_1) \sin[k \cdot (a_3 - a_2)] + \sin[k \cdot (a_1 - a_2)] \}$$
$$D_z(k) = \lambda \{ \sin(k \cdot a_1) - \sin(k \cdot a_2) \sin[k \cdot (a_1 - a_3)] + \sin[k \cdot (a_2 - a_3)] \},$$

where $a_1 = (0, 1/2, 1/2)$, $a_2 = (1/2, 0, 1/2)$ and $a_3 = (1/2, 1/2, 0)$ are the lattice vectors for a fcc lattice.

S-2. THE ENERGY DISPERSION IN THE PRESENCE OF THE SELF-ENERGY

In this section, we will derive the energy dispersion near a Weyl point in the presence of the self-energy. For clarity, we first study a simple case where the self-energy contains only the terms that are independent of the energy, and show the emergence of Weyl exceptional rings arising from the quasiparticle lifetime difference at different sublattices. After that, we demonstrate that the effects of including a term in the self-energy that is linearly dependent of the energy is the renormalization of system parameters, which does not affect the qualitative feature of the energy spectrum.

A. Energy spectra in the presence of the real energy independent self-energy

We now study the effects of the terms in the self-energy that are independent of the energy, which read

$$\Sigma^f = a_0 - i\Gamma_0 + (a_1 - i\Gamma_1)\tau_2\sigma_0,$$

where $a_0 + a_1$ and $a_0 - a_1$ denote the zeroth-order real parts of the self-energy at sublattices $A$ and $B$, respectively, and $\Gamma_0 + \Gamma_1$ and $\Gamma_0 - \Gamma_1$ denote the inverse of quasiparticle lifetimes at sublattices $A$ and $B$, respectively. In the derivation, we first consider the complex self-energy and then make $\Gamma_0$ and $\Gamma_1$ zero. The inverse of the Green’s function is

$$G^{-1} = \omega - \left( \frac{\tilde{\varepsilon}_f + \alpha \tau_2}{V} \begin{pmatrix} V_H & \varepsilon_s \\
H_c & \varepsilon_s \end{pmatrix} \right).$$
where $\tilde{\varepsilon}_f = \varepsilon_f + a_0 - i\Gamma_0 = \varepsilon_{f'} - i\Gamma_0$ and $a = a_1 - i\Gamma_1$. Here
\[ H_\epsilon = \sigma_0(u_1\tau_x + u_2\tau_y + m\tau_z) + \lambda D \cdot \sigma\tau_z. \]  
(17)

We can transform this matrix into a block form
\[ \tilde{H}_c = S^\dagger H_c S = \begin{pmatrix} h_+ & 0 \\ 0 & h_- \end{pmatrix} = u \cdot \tau + \lambda D\sigma\tau_z \]
with $h_{\pm} = u_1\tau_x + u_2\tau_y + (m \pm D\lambda)\tau_z$, $u_x = u_1$, $u_y = u_2$, and $u_z = m$ by the matrix
\[ S = \begin{pmatrix} |u_+\rangle & |u_-\rangle \end{pmatrix} \tau_0. \]
(18)

Here $|u_{\pm}\rangle$ are eigenstates of $D \cdot \sigma$ corresponding to eigenvalues $\pm D$, i.e., $D \cdot \sigma|u_{\pm}\rangle = \pm D|u_{\pm}\rangle$.

The determinant of the inverse of the Green’s function can be simplified as
\[ \det(G^{-1}) = \begin{vmatrix} \tilde{\varepsilon}_f + a\tau_z - \omega & V \\ V & \tilde{H}_c + \varepsilon_s - \omega \end{vmatrix} \]
\[ = |(\tilde{\varepsilon}_f + a\tau_z - \omega)(H_c + \varepsilon_s - \omega) - V^2| \]
\[ = |S^\dagger[(\tilde{\varepsilon}_f + a\tau_z - \omega)(H_c + \varepsilon_s - \omega) - V^2]S| \]
\[ = |(\tilde{\varepsilon}_f + a\tau_z - \omega)(u \cdot \tau + \lambda D\sigma\tau_z + \varepsilon_s - \omega) - V^2| \]
\[ = \begin{vmatrix} b_{00} + b_{0+} \cdot \tau & 0 \\ 0 & b_{0-} + b_{-+} \cdot \tau \end{vmatrix} \]
\[ = (b_{00}^2 - b_{0+}^2)(b_{00}^2 - b_{0-}^2), \]
(20)

where
\[ b_{00} = \omega^2 - V^2 - \omega(\tilde{\varepsilon}_f + \varepsilon_s) + \tilde{\varepsilon}_f\varepsilon_s + a\varepsilon_s' \]
\[ b_x = (-\omega + \tilde{\varepsilon}_f)u_x - iau_y \]
\[ b_y = (-\omega + \tilde{\varepsilon}_f)u_y + iau_x \]
\[ b_{00} = -\omega(u_z + a + \alpha\lambda D) + \tilde{\varepsilon}_fu_z' + a\varepsilon_s \]
\[ b_{00} = \sqrt{b_x^2 + b_y^2 + b_{00}^2 - b_{0+}^2}, \]
with $u_z' = u_z + \alpha\lambda D$ and $\alpha = \pm 1$. In the derivation, we have used the identity
\[ \det \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \det(AD - ACA^{-1}B), \]
(21)

where $A$, $B$, $C$ and $D$ are $n \times n$, $n \times m$, $m \times n$ and $m \times m$ matrices, respectively, and $A$ is invertible. It follows immediately from the identity
\[ \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & -A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ C & D - CA^{-1}B \end{pmatrix}. \]
(22)

We also have
\[ b_x^2 + b_y^2 = [(\omega + \tilde{\varepsilon}_f)^2 - a^2](u_x^2 + u_y^2). \]
(23)

The poles of the Green’s function are determined by $\det(G^{-1}) = 0$ which yields
\[ b_{00}^2 = b_{0+}^2. \]
(24)

To determine the position of a Weyl point in momentum space, we suppose that $\tilde{\varepsilon}_f$ and $a$ are real ($\tilde{\varepsilon}_f = \varepsilon_{f'}$ and $a = a_1$). The existence of a Weyl point at zero energy $\omega = 0$ requires that $b_{00}(\omega = 0) = b(\omega = 0)$ and $b_{00}(\omega = 0) = -b(\omega = 0)$ so that
\[ b_{00}(\omega = 0) = 0 \]
(24)
\[ b(\omega = 0) = 0, \]
(25)
where we have dropped the subscript $\alpha$ to simplify notations. Specifically, we require that

\begin{align}
-V^2 + \tilde{\epsilon} f \varepsilon_s + a u'_z &= 0 \quad (26) \\
u_x &= u_y = 0 \quad (27) \\
\tilde{\epsilon} f u'_z + a \varepsilon_s &= 0. \quad (28)
\end{align}

These equations indicate that the location of a Weyl point is the same as that in $H_{\epsilon}$ with an effective mass $\tilde{m} = m - u'_z$. In fact, only $k_0$ changes to $\tilde{k}_0 = 2 \sin^{-1}(\mid\tilde{m}/4\lambda\mid)$. These equations further lead to

\begin{align}
\varepsilon_s &= \frac{\varepsilon f, V^2}{\varepsilon f_s - a_1^2}. \quad (30)
\end{align}

We are now interested in deriving the energy dispersion near a Weyl point. By expanding $u_x$, $u_y$ and $u'_z$ around zero, that it, $u_x = d_x$, $u_y = d_y$ and $u'_z = u_{Wz} + d_z$ where $d_x$, $d_y$ and $d_z$ are the first-order small quantities, we obtain

\begin{align}
b_0 &= \omega^2 - \omega(\varepsilon f_r + \varepsilon_s) + a_1 d_z \\
b_x &= (-\omega + \varepsilon f_r) d_x - i a_1 d_y \\
b_y &= (-\omega + \varepsilon f_r) d_y + i a_1 d_x \\
b_z &= -\omega(d_z + a_1 + u_{Wz}) + \varepsilon f_r d_z. \quad (34)
\end{align}

Based on these expressions, we derive the energy spectrum around zero energy up to the first order as

\begin{align}
\omega &\approx \frac{2d_z \varepsilon f_r u_{Wz}}{c_0} \pm \sqrt{\frac{v_x^2(d_x^2 + d_y^2) + v_z^2 d_z^2}{c_0}}, \quad (35)
\end{align}

where $v_x^2 = (a_s^2 - \varepsilon f_s)c_0$, $v_z^2 = v_z^2 + 4\varepsilon f_r u_{Wz}^2$ and $c_0 = (a_1 + u_{Wz})^2 - (\varepsilon f_r + \varepsilon_s)^2$. The result clearly shows the linear dispersion for the energy near the Weyl point.

**B. Energy spectra in the presence of the complex energy independent self-energy**

In this subsection, we consider the effects of both the real and imaginary parts in the self-energy. To derive an analytical result, we assume that $\Gamma_0$ and $\Gamma_1$ are first-order small quantities and $a_1 = 0$. With these approximations, we can derive the energy dispersion close to zero energy up to the first order as

\begin{align}
\omega &\approx -i \Gamma_0 v_0 \pm \sqrt{v_1^2 d_x^2 + v_2^2 d_y^2 + (d_z - i \gamma_0)^2}} \quad (36)
\end{align}

with $v_0 = \varepsilon_s/\varepsilon f_r + \varepsilon_s$, $v_1 = \varepsilon f_s/\varepsilon f_r$ and $\gamma_0 = \varepsilon_s \Gamma_1/\varepsilon f_r$. With nonzero $\Gamma_1$, it is easy to see that a Weyl point becomes a Weyl exceptional ring determined by $d_z = 0$ and $d_x^2 + d_y^2 - \gamma_0^2 = 0$.

To analyze the effects of $a_1$, we assume that it is a first-order small quantity (so is $u_{Wz}$). We find that $a_1$ does not affect our results up to the first order. Since $a_1$ is involved in $\varepsilon_s$, one may think that some higher-order corrections from $a_1$ are included in $\varepsilon_s$.

**C. Renormalization due to the energy-dependent parts in the self-energy**

We now study the effects of the energy dependent parts in the self-energy. The self-energy can be expanded in the Taylor series up to the first order with respect to $\omega$ as

\begin{align}
\Sigma^f &\approx a_0 - i \Gamma_0 + (a_1 - i \Gamma_1) \tau_z \sigma_0 + a_0 \omega + a_1 \omega \tau_z \sigma_0, \quad (37)
\end{align}
where \(a_{0\omega}\) and \(a_{1\omega}\) are complex numbers. The inverse of the Green’s function is

\[
G^{-1} = \omega - \begin{pmatrix}
\varepsilon_f + a\tau_z + a_{0\omega}\omega + a_{z\omega}\omega\tau_z & V \\
V & H_c + \varepsilon_s
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
= \begin{pmatrix}
\omega(1 - a_{0\omega} - a_{1\omega}) - \bar{\varepsilon}_f - a & 0 & -V & 0 \\
0 & \omega(1 - a_{0\omega} + a_{1\omega}) - \bar{\varepsilon}_f + a & 0 & -V \\
-V & 0 & \omega - H_c - \varepsilon_s
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

We now evaluate the determinant of the inverse of the Green’s function,

\[
\det(G^{-1}) = \frac{1}{Z_AZ_B} \begin{vmatrix}
\omega - Z_A\bar{\varepsilon}_f - Z_Aa & 0 & -\sqrt{Z_A}V & 0 \\
0 & \omega - Z_B\bar{\varepsilon}_f + Z_Ba & -\sqrt{Z_B}V & 0 \\
-\sqrt{Z_A}V & 0 & \omega - H_c - \varepsilon_s
\end{vmatrix}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{Z_AZ_B} \begin{vmatrix}
\omega - \bar{\varepsilon}_f - \bar{a}\tau_z - (V_1 + V_2\tau_z) & \omega - H_c - \varepsilon_s \\
-(V_1 + V_2\tau_z) & \omega - H_c - \varepsilon_s
\end{vmatrix}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{Z_AZ_B} \begin{vmatrix}
(\omega - \bar{\varepsilon}_f - \bar{a}\tau_z)(\omega - H_c - \varepsilon_s) - (V_1 + V_2\tau_z)^2
\end{vmatrix},
\]

where \(Z_A = 1/(1 - a_{0\omega} - a_{1\omega})\), \(Z_B = 1/(1 - a_{0\omega} + a_{1\omega})\), \(\bar{\varepsilon}_f = \bar{\varepsilon}_{f_0} - i\bar{\Gamma}_0 = [(Z_A + Z_B)\bar{\varepsilon}_f + (Z_A - Z_B)a]/2\), \(\bar{a} = \bar{a}_1 - i\bar{\Gamma}_1 = [(Z_A - Z_B)\bar{\varepsilon}_f + (Z_A + Z_B)a]/2\), \(V_1 = (\sqrt{Z_A} + \sqrt{Z_B})V/2\), \(V_2 = (\sqrt{Z_A} - \sqrt{Z_B})V/2\), \(\bar{\Gamma} = \sqrt{V_1^2 + V_2^2}\) and \(V_0 = -2V_1V_2\). The determinant can be further reduced to

\[
\det(G^{-1}) = \frac{1}{Z_AZ_B} \bigg| S'[\omega - \bar{\varepsilon}_f - \bar{a}\tau_z - V_0\tau_z - \bar{\Gamma}]S' \bigg|
\]

which is almost the same as Eq. \(20\) except a prefactor \(1/(Z_AZ_B)\) and a new term \(V_0\tau_z\), which can be obtained by replacing \(a\varepsilon_s\) with \(a\varepsilon_s + V_0\) in Eq. \(20\). We now assume that \(a_{0\omega}\) and \(a_{1\omega}\) are real. Similar to the preceding case, when \(\bar{\varepsilon}_f\) and \(\bar{a}\) are real, the existence of Weyl points at zero energy requires \(\omega = 0\) and

\[
\bar{\varepsilon}_f\varepsilon_s - \bar{\Gamma}^2 + \bar{a}u_z' = 0
\]

\[
u_x = u_y = 0
\]

\[
\bar{\varepsilon}_fu_z' + \bar{a}\varepsilon_s + V_0 = 0
\]

which leads to

\[
u_z' = u_{Wz} = -\frac{\bar{\varepsilon}_f\bar{a}_1 + V_0\bar{\varepsilon}_fr}{\bar{\varepsilon}_fr - \bar{a}_1}
\]

\[
\varepsilon_s = \frac{\bar{\varepsilon}_fr\bar{\Gamma}^2 + V_0\bar{a}_1}{\bar{\varepsilon}_fr - \bar{a}_1}.
\]

Around the Weyl point, one can also derive the energy dispersion, which is given by Eq. \(35\) with renormalized parameters and \(\varepsilon_s\) and \(u_{Wz}\) including extra terms. For clarity, we write down the dispersion explicitly,

\[
\omega \approx \frac{2d_1\bar{\varepsilon}_fru_{Wz} + \sqrt{\bar{\varepsilon}_f^2(d_z^2 + d_y^2) + \bar{\varepsilon}_f^2d_x^2}}{\bar{c}_0},
\]
expressed as \([1, 2]\) by the one-particle-irreducible diagram, as shown in Fig. 3. The self-energy up to the second-order corrections is a function of the frequency and thus can be contained in \(V = 2\) only diagonal terms of Matsubara Green’s functions of \(\sigma, j\) electrons are nonzero.

In the presence of the imaginary parts in \(\bar{\varepsilon}_f\) and \(\bar{\alpha}_0\), if \(\bar{\Gamma}_0, \bar{\Gamma}_1\) \(\bar{a}_0\omega\) and \(\bar{a}_{1}\omega\) are first-order small quantities (so is \(u_{\bar{W}_z}\)), the dispersion is also given by Eq. \([30]\) with renormalized parameters, that is,

\[
\omega \approx -i\bar{\Gamma}_0\bar{v}_0 \pm \sqrt{\bar{v}_0^2 [d_x^2 + d_y^2 + (d_z - i\bar{\gamma}_0)^2]}
\]

with \(\bar{v}_0 = \bar{\varepsilon}_f / (\bar{\varepsilon}_f + \varepsilon_s)\) \(\bar{v}_1 = \bar{\varepsilon}_f / (\bar{\varepsilon}_f + \varepsilon_s)\) and \(\bar{\gamma}_0 = \varepsilon_s \bar{\Gamma}_1 / \bar{\varepsilon}_f\).

S-3. THE PERTURBATION THEORY

In this section, we compute the self-energy using the second-order perturbation theory. For the interactions in the form of \(U\bar{n}_{i,\uparrow}\bar{n}_{i,\downarrow}\), the f-electron Matsubara Green’s function up to the second-order corrections can be described by the one-particle-irreducible diagram, as shown in Fig. 3. The self-energy up to the second-order corrections is expressed as \([1, 2]\)

\[
\Sigma_{\sigma,j}(i\omega_n) = -U^2 T^2 \sum_{\omega_{\bar{x},\bar{y}}} G_{\sigma,j}(i\omega_n) G_{\bar{\sigma},\bar{j}}(i\omega_{\bar{x}}) G_{\bar{\sigma},\bar{j}}(i\omega_{\bar{y}}) G_{\sigma,j}(i\omega_n + i\omega_{\bar{x}} - i\omega_{\bar{y}}),
\]

where \(i\omega_n\) is the Matsubara frequency, \(\sigma = \uparrow, \downarrow\) is the spin index, \(j = A, B\) is the sublattice index, \(T\) is the temperature and \(G_{\sigma,j}(i\omega_n)\) is the corresponding f-electron Matsubara Green’s function. With time-reversal symmetry, Matsubara Green’s functions of spin up and down have the same form and we thus drop the spin index. The blue dashed line in Fig. 3 represents the interaction term connecting four Matsubara Green’s functions of \(f\) electrons. For any order of perturbation, one can show with the method of the equation of motion \([2, 3]\), the self-energy must connect with Matsubara Green’s functions of \(f\) electrons from the same sublattices. It indicates, for the matrix form of self-energy, only diagonal terms of \(f\) electrons are nonzero.

![Fig. 3. Diagrammatic expansion for the f-electron Matsubara Green's function.](image)

The first-order self-energy term can be understood as the Hartree part of the electron’s self-energy and is not a function of the frequency and thus can be contained in \(\varepsilon_f\). By performing the sum over the Matsubara frequency, the

![Fig. 4. (a) The density of states for the f electrons at sublattices A and B without interactions as a function of the energy \(\omega\). (b) The numerically computed self-energy based on Eq. \([55]\) at the temperature \(T = 1/6\). Here, \(t = 0.5, m = 1.2, \lambda = 0.6, V = 2, U = 2, \varepsilon_f = 1.125\) and \(\varepsilon_s = -4\).](image)
TABLE I. List of Taylor coefficients for the self-energy at different temperatures evaluated by Eq. (55). Here $t = 0.5$, $m = 1.2$, $\lambda = 0.6$, $V = 2$, $U = 2$, $\varepsilon_f = 1.125$, and $\varepsilon_s = -4$.

| $T$ | $\text{Re}(a_{0A})$ | $\text{Re}(a_{1A})$ | $\text{Im}(a_{0A})$ | $\text{Re}(a_{0B})$ | $\text{Re}(a_{1B})$ | $\text{Im}(a_{0B})$ | $\Gamma_1$ |
|-----|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------|
| 1/30 | -0.1921 | -0.5401 | -0.0012 | -0.0350 | -0.2381 | -1.76 $\times 10^{-4}$ | 5.32 $\times 10^{-4}$ |
| 1/28 | -0.1932 | -0.5423 | -0.0016 | -0.0353 | -0.2391 | -2.44 $\times 10^{-4}$ | 6.63 $\times 10^{-4}$ |
| 1/26 | -0.1944 | -0.5451 | -0.0020 | -0.0357 | -0.2404 | -3.48 $\times 10^{-4}$ | 8.19 $\times 10^{-4}$ |
| 1/24 | -0.1960 | -0.5486 | -0.0025 | -0.0362 | -0.2422 | -5.11 $\times 10^{-4}$ | 0.0010 |
| 1/22 | -0.1980 | -0.5530 | -0.0033 | -0.0367 | -0.2447 | -7.65 $\times 10^{-4}$ | 0.0013 |
| 1/20 | -0.2004 | -0.5588 | -0.0045 | -0.0372 | -0.2484 | -9.012 | 0.0016 |
| 1/18 | -0.2033 | -0.5662 | -0.0062 | -0.0377 | -0.2537 | -0.0018 | 0.0022 |
| 1/16 | -0.2067 | -0.5753 | -0.0092 | -0.0379 | -0.2615 | -0.0030 | 0.0031 |
| 1/14 | -0.2107 | -0.5860 | -0.0147 | -0.0377 | -0.2731 | -0.0049 | 0.0049 |
| 1/12 | -0.2149 | -0.5963 | -0.0252 | -0.0364 | -0.2899 | -0.0084 | 0.0084 |
| 1/10 | -0.2190 | -0.6009 | -0.0457 | -0.0333 | -0.3137 | -0.0148 | 0.0155 |
| 1/8  | -0.2222 | -0.5881 | -0.0864 | -0.0274 | -0.3443 | -0.0266 | 0.0299 |
| 1/6  | -0.2229 | -0.5415 | -0.1640 | -0.0179 | -0.3756 | -0.0496 | 0.0572 |

The second-order self-energy can be reduced to \[\Sigma_j(\omega) = -U^2 \int \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d\omega_1 d\omega_2 d\omega_3 \rho_j^f(\omega_1) \rho_j^f(\omega_2) \rho_j^f(\omega_3) \frac{n_F(\omega_1)n_F(\omega_2)n_F(-\omega_3)}{\omega - \omega_1 - \omega_2 + \omega_3 + i0^+} \]

where $n_F = 1/(e^{\omega/T} + 1)$ is the Fermi-Dirac distribution function, and $\rho_j^f(\omega) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \text{Im}G_j^f(\omega + i0^+)$ is the f-electron density of states at the sublattice $j$ in the absence of interactions.

Figure 4(a) shows the density of states of the f-electron $\rho_{A/B}^f(\omega)$ with $t = 0.5$, $m = 1.2$, $\lambda = 0.6$, $V = 2$, $U = 2$, $\varepsilon_f = 1.125$ and $\varepsilon_s = -4$, which is used to compute the self-energy. The densities of states vanish at the energy close to the zero energy, indicating the existence of Weyl points there. Figure 4(b) displays the numerically calculated second-order self-energy based on Eq. (55) at the temperature $T = 1/6$. One can observe that the self-energy exhibits oscillations, which result from the van Hove singularities in the density of states. In addition, the amplitude of the self-energy at the sublattice $A$ is much larger than that at the sublattice $B$ due to the more compact $\rho_j^f(\omega)$.

We calculate the self-energies at different temperatures and perform the Taylor expansion with respect to $\omega$ near the zero energy, \n
\[
\Sigma^f(\omega) \approx a_0 - i\Gamma_0 + (a_1 - i\Gamma_1)\tau_z + a_0^\omega + a_1^\omega \omega \tau_z
\]

and

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
a_{0A} + a_1^A \omega \\
0
\end{pmatrix}
\]
FIG. 5. Plots of Taylor coefficients for the self-energy at different temperatures using the data listed in Table I. Here, \( t = 0.5, m = 1.2, \lambda = 0.6, V = 2, U = 2, \varepsilon_f = 1.125 \) and \( \varepsilon_s = -4 \).

FIG. 6. (a) The spectral function \( \rho(\omega, k) \) with respect to \( \omega \) and \( k_x \) with \( k_y = 0 \) and \( k_z = 2\pi \). The real and imaginary parts of the corresponding energy spectrum for the second and third bands of the effective Hamiltonian are plotted in (b) and (c), respectively. (d) The spectral function \( \rho(\omega, k) \) with respect to \( \omega \) and \( k_x \) with \( k_y = -0.675 \) and \( k_y = 0 \) with the real and imaginary parts of the corresponding energy spectrum plotted in (e) and (f), respectively. In (d) and (e), two vertical lines refer to the positions where the real part of the energy spectrum begins to split. Here, \( t = 0.5, m = 1.2, \lambda = 0.6, V = 2, U = 2, \varepsilon_f = 1.125, \varepsilon_s = -4 \), and \( T = 1/6 \).

S-4. THE SPECTRAL FUNCTIONS WITH RESPECT TO THE ENERGY

In the main text, we have shown the spectral functions with respect to the energy at three fixed points in momentum space. Here, we analyze the features of the spectral functions as functions of both \( \omega \) and \( k \). We consider two cases: One is along the \( k_x \) line with \( k_y = 0 \) and \( k_z = 2\pi \) which crosses the Fermi tube, and the other is along the \( k_z \) line with \( k_x = -0.675 \) and \( k_y = 0 \) which is along the Fermi tube. In Fig. 6 we plot the spectral functions at the temperature \( T = 1/6 \), which are numerically calculated by the second-order perturbation theory. In the former case [see Fig. 6(a)], there appear two bright lines crossing zero energy corresponding to two exceptional points, which agree well with the blue branch in the energy spectrum (the poles of the Green’s function) shown in Fig. 6(b). One may wonder why the other red branch disappears in the spectral function. To interpret the phenomenon, we plot the imaginary parts of the energy spectrum in Fig. 6(c), illustrating that the red branch has larger absolute values of the imaginary parts. With larger imaginary values, the spectral functions are broader so that this branch is invisible compared to the blue one with smaller imaginary values. In the latter case, the spectral function exhibits a bright region around \( \omega = 0 \) which extends along \( k_z \) near \( k_z = 2\pi \), corresponding to the zero energy part in the energy dispersion [see Fig. 6(e)]. The energy spectrum then splits into two branches as \( k_z \) deviates from the flat region, which can also be observed in
the spectral function. For the splitting parts, the peak becomes wider and weaker since the corresponding imaginary parts of the energy spectra are larger [see Fig. 6(f)]. Note that while the positions in the spectral function where the splitting happens are slightly different from those in the energy spectrum, they are closely related. Also note that the imaginary parts of the two branches do not touch because the chosen momenta do not cross exceptional rings due to the fact that the Fermi surface slightly deviates a cylinder shape and takes a shape of a barrel.

S-5. OTHER DATA ANALYSIS ABOUT THE DMFT CALCULATION

To confirm the reliability of our DMFT calculations, we use the existing scripts to compute the Mott transition with the increase of the interaction strength $U$ at different temperatures. The phase transition can be identified by the imaginary parts of the Matsubara Green’s function $G(i\omega_n)$ and the quasiparticle weights $Z$. A significant decline in the $|\text{Im}G(i\omega_n)|$ near $\omega_0 = \pi T$ is observed in Fig. 7(a-d), which is one of the characteristics when the Mott transition happens. We point out that there is a site-selective Mott-insulating behavior between $A$ and $B$ sites [4]. While electrons on sublattice $A$ enter into the Mott-insulating phase (e.g., $U > 4$), electrons on sublattice $B$ are still in the metallic phase. The distinct behavior arises from the breaking of inversion symmetry, which is also crucial for the emergence of different quasiparticle lifetimes on different sublattices. The Mott transition can also be identified by quasiparticle weights $Z$, which can be calculated approximately at low temperatures by

$$Z \approx \left[ 1 - \frac{\text{Im}\Sigma(i\omega_0)}{\omega_0} \right]^{-1}.$$  

(58)

The results of $Z$ are shown in Fig. 7(e-h). We see that with the increase of $U$, $Z$ on sublattice $A$ decreases toward zero, signalling a transition from a metallic phase to the Mott-insulating phase. Compared with the quasiparticle weights on sublattice $A$, the decline of the weights on sublattice $B$ with the interaction is slower and smoother, which agrees well with the result of the Matsubara Green’s function.

**FIG. 7.** (a-d) Imaginary parts of the Matsubara Green’s function and (e-h) quasiparticle weights for $f$ electrons on sublattice $A$ or $B$ with respect to the interaction $U$ at $T = 1/8$ or $T = 1/11$.

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