QuSpin: a Python Package for Dynamics and Exact Diagonalisation of Quantum Many Body Systems. Part II: bosons, fermions and higher spins

Phillip Weinberg* and Marin Bukov

Department of Physics, Boston University, 590 Commonwealth Ave., Boston, MA 02215, USA * weinbe58@bu.edu

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Abstract

We present a major update to QuSpin, SciPostPhys.2.1.003 – an open-source Python package for exact diagonalization and quantum dynamics of arbitrary boson, fermion and spin many-body systems, supporting the use of various symmetries in one dimension and (imaginary) time evolution following a user-specified driving protocol. We explain how to use the new features of QuSpin using seven detailed examples of various complexity: (i) the transverse-field Ising model and the Jordan-Wigner transformation, (ii) free particle systems: the SSH model, (iii) the many-body localised Fermi-Hubbard model, (iv) the Bose-Hubbard model in a ladder geometry, (v) nonlinear (imaginary) time evolution and the Gross-Pitaevskii equation, (vi) integrability breaking and thermalising dynamics in the spin-1 transverse-field Ising model, and (vii) Bose-Fermi mixtures. This easily accessible package can serve various purposes, including educational and cutting-edge experimental and theoretical research.

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1 Which Problems can I Study with QuSpin?

SciPost Physics

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Mac OS X/Linux

• re-label numbering of examples to match order in text.

Understanding the physics of many-body quantum condensed matter systems often involves a great deal of numerical simulations, be it to gain intuition about the complicated problem of interest, or because the latter does not admit an analytical solution which can be expressed in a closed form. This motivates the development of open-source packages [CITE], the purpose of which is to facilitate the study of condensed matter systems, without the need to understand and implement complicated numerical methods which required years to understand and fully develop. Here, we report on a major upgrade to QuSpin [1] – a Python library for exact diagonalisation (ED) and simulation of the dynamics in arbitrary quantum many-body systems.

Although ED methods are vastly outperformed by more sophisticated numerical techniques in the study of equilibrium problems [CITE], as of present date ED remains essential for most dynamical non-equilibrium problems. The reason for this often times relies on the fact that the underlying physics of these problems cannot be explained without taking into consideration the contribution from high-energy states excited during the evolution. Some prominent examples of such problems include the study of many-body localisation (MBL) [CITE], the Eigenstate Thermalisation hypothesis [CITE], quantum quench dynamics [CITE], periodically-driven systems [CITE], adiabatic and counter-diabatic state preparation, applications of Machine Learning to non-equilibrium physics [CITE], optimal control [CITE], and many more did I forget smth important?.

It is, thus, arguably useful to have a toolbox available at our disposal which allows one to quickly simulate and study these and related nonequilibrium problems. As such, QuSpin offers easy access to performing numerical simulations, which can facilitate the development and inspiration of new ideas and the discovery of novel phenomena, eliminating the cost of spending time to develop a reliable code. Besides theorists, the new version of QuSpin will hopefully

even prove valuable to experimentalists working on problems containing dynamical setups, as it can help students and researchers focus on perfecting the experiment, rather than worry about writing the supporting simulation code. Last but not least, with the computational processing power growing higher than ever before, the role played by simulations for theoretical research becomes increasingly more important too. It can, therefore, be expected that in the near future quantum simulations become an integral part of the standard physics university curriculum, and having easily accessible toolboxes, such as QuSpin, is one of the required prerequisites for this anticipated change.

2 How do I use the New Features of QuSpin?

New in QuSpin 2.0, we have added the following features and toolboxes:

• ...

Installing QuSpin is quick and efficient; just follow the steps outlined in App. A.

Before we carry on, we refer the interested reader to examples (i)-(iv) from the original QuSpin paper [1]. The examples below focus predominantly on the newly introduced features, and are thus to be considered complementary. We emphasize that, since they serve the purpose of explaining how to use QuSpin, for the sake of brevity we shall not discuss the interesting physics related to the interpretation of the results.

2.1 The Spectrum of the Transverse Field Ising Model and the Jordan-Wigner Transformation

This example shows how to

- construct fermionic hopping, p-wave pairing and on-site potential terms, and spin-1/2 interactions and transverse fields,
- implement periodic and anti-periodic boundary conditions,
- use particle conservation modulo 2, spin inversion, reflection, and translation symmetries,
- handle the default built-in particle conservation and symmetry checks,
- obtain the spectrum of a QuSpin Hamiltonian.

Physics Setup—The transverse field Ising (TFI) chain is paradigmatic in our understanding of quantum phase transitions, since it represents an exactly solvable model [CITE Sachdev]. The Hamiltonian is given my

$$H = \sum_{j=0}^{L-1} -J\sigma_{j+1}^z \sigma_j^z - h\sigma_j^x,$$
 (1)

where the nearest-neighbour (nn) spin interaction is J, h denotes the transverse field, and σ_j^{α} are the Pauli spin-1/2 matrices. We use periodic boundary conditions and label the L lattice sites $0, \ldots, L-1$ to conform with Python's convention. This model has gapped, fermionic elementary excitations, and exhibits a phase transition from an antiferromagnet to a paramagnet

at $(h/J)_c = 1$ CHECK!. The Hamiltonian possesses the following symmetries: magnetisation conservation, parity (reflection w.r.t. the centre of the chain), spin inversion, and (many-body) momentum conservation.

In one dimension, the TFI Hamiltonian can be mapped to spinless *p*-wave superconducting fermions via the Jordan-Wigner (JW) transformation[CITE Sachdev, other paper]:

$$c_i = \prod_{j < i} \sigma_j^z \sigma_i^-, \qquad c_i^{\dagger} = \prod_{j < i} \sigma_j^z \sigma_i^+, \tag{2}$$

where the fermionic operators satisfy $\{c_i, c_j^{\dagger}\} = \delta_{ij}$. The Hamiltonian is readily shown to take the form

$$H = \sum_{j=0}^{L-1} J\left(-c_j^{\dagger} c_{j+1} + c_j c_{j+1}^{\dagger}\right) + J\left(-c_j^{\dagger} c_{j+1}^{\dagger} + c_j c_{j+1}\right) + 2h\left(n_j - \frac{1}{2}\right).$$
(3)

In the fermionic representation, the spin zz-interaction maps to nn hopping and a p-wave pairing term with coupling constant J, while the transverse field translates to an on-site potential shift of magnitude h. In view of the implementation of the model using QuSpin, we have ordered the terms such that the site index is growing to the right, which comes at the cost of a few negative signs due to the fermion statistics. We emphasize that this ordering is not dictated by QuSpin, but it is merely our choice to adopt it here for the sake of consistency. The fermion Hamiltonian posses the symmetries: particle conservation modulo 2, parity and (many-body) "momentum" conservation.

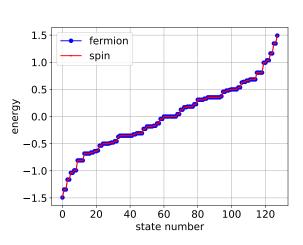
Here, we are interested in studying the spectrum of the TFI model in both the spin and fermion representations. However, if one naïvely carries out the JW transformation, and computes the spectra of Eqs. (1) and (3), one might be surprised that they do not match exactly. The reason lies in the form of the boundary condition required to make the JW mapping exact – a subtle issue often left aside in favour of discussing the interesting physics of the TFI model itself.

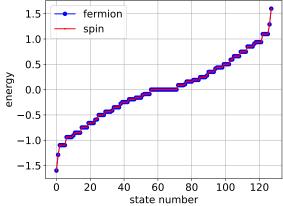
We recall that the starting is the periodic boundary condition imposed on the spin Hamiltonian in Eq. (1). Due to the symmetries of the spin Hamiltonian (1), we can define the JW transformation on every symmetry sector separately. To make the JW mapping exact, we supplement Eq. (2) with the following boundary conditions: (i) the negative spin-inversion symmetry sector maps to the fermion Hamiltonian (3) with periodic boundary conditions (PBC) and odd total number of fermions; (ii) the positive spin-inversion symmetry sector maps to the fermion Hamiltonian (3) with anti-periodic boundary conditions (APBC) and even total number of fermions. Anti-periodic boundary conditions differ from PBC by a negative sign attached to all coupling constants that cross a single, fixed lattice bond (the bond itself is arbitrary as all bonds are equal for PBC). APBC and PBC are special cases of the more general twisted boundary conditions where, instead of a negative sign, one attaches an arbitrary phase factor.

In the following, we show how to compute the spectra of the Hamiltonians in Eqs. (1) and (3) with the correct boundary conditions using QuSpin. Figure 1 shows that they match exactly in both the PBC and APBC cases discussed above.

Code Analysis—We begin by loading the QuSpin operator and basis constructors, as well as some standard Python libraries.

1 from quspin.operators import hamiltonian # Hamiltonians and operators





(b) positive spin inversion/APBC sector

(a) negative spin inversion/PBC sector

Figure 1: Comparison of the spectra of the spin and fermion representation of the transverse field Ising Hamiltonian in the spin (1) and fermion (3) representations. The degeneracy in the spectrum is due to the remaining parity and momentum conservations which could but are not taken into account (see text). The parameters are J = 1.0, $h = \sqrt{2}$, and L = 8.

```
from quspin.basis import spin_basis_1d, fermion_basis_1d # Hilbert space spin basis
import numpy as np # generic math functions
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # figure/plot library
```

First, we define the models parameters.

```
6 ##### define model parameters #####
7 L=8 # system size
8 J=1.0 # spin zz interaction
9 h=np.sqrt(2) # z magnetic field strength
```

We have to consider two cases when computing the spectrum, as discussed in the theory section above. In one case, the fermionic system has PBC and the particle number sector is odd, while the spins are constrained to the negative spin inversion symmetry sector, while in the second – the fermion model has APBC with even particle number sector, and the spin model is considered in the positive spin inversion sector. To this end, we introduce the variables $\mathbf{zblock} \in \{\pm 1\}$ and $\mathbf{PBC} \in \{\pm 1\}$, where $\mathbf{PBC} = -1$ denotes APBC. Note than the only meaningful combinations are $(\mathbf{zblock}, \mathbf{PBC}) = (-1, 1), (1, -1)$, which we loop over:

```
# loop over spin inversion symmetry block variable and boundary conditions
for zblock,PBC in zip([-1,1],[1,-1]):
```

Within this loop, the code is divided in two independent parts: first, we compute the spectrum of the TFI system, and then – that of the equivalent fermionic model. Let us discuss the spins.

```
##### define spin model
```

In QuSpin, operators are stored as sparse lists. These lists contain two parts: (i) the lattice sites on which the operator acts together with the coupling strength, which we call a site-coupling list, and (ii) the types of the operators involved, i.e. the operator-string. For example, the operator $\mathcal{O} = g \sum_{j=0}^{L-1} \sigma_j^{\mu}$ can be uniquely represented by the site-coupling list $[[g,0],[g,1],\ldots,[g,L-1]]$, and the information that it is the Pauli matrix μ . The components lists are nothing but the tuples of the field strength and the site index [g,j]. It is straightforward to generalise this to non-uniform fields $g \rightarrow g[j]$. Similarly, any two-body operator $\mathcal{O} = J_{zz} \sum_{j=0}^{L-1} \sigma_j^{\mu} \sigma_{j+1}^{\nu}$ can be fully represented by the two sites it acts on, and its coupling strength: [J,j,j+1]. We then stack up these elementary lists together into the site-coupling list: $[[J,0,1],[J,1,2],\ldots,[J,L-2,L-1],[J,L-1,0]]$.

```
# site-coupling lists (PBC for both spin inversion sectors)
h_field=[[-h,i] for i in range(L)]
J_zz=[[-J,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC
```

Notice the way we defined the periodic boundary condition for the spin-spin interaction using the modulo operator %, which effectively puts a coupling between sites L-1 and 0. We mention in passing that the above procedure generalises so one can define any multi-body local or nonlocal operator using QuSpin.

In order to specify the types of the on-site single-particle operators, we use operator strings. For instance, the transverse field operator $\mathcal{O} = g \sum_{j=0}^{L-1} \sigma_j^x$ becomes ['x',h_field], while the two-body interaction is ['zz',J_zz]. It is important to notice that the order of the letters in the operator string corresponds to the order the operators are listed in the site-coupling lists. Putting everything into one final list yields the static list for the spin model:

```
# define spin static and dynamic lists
static_spin =[["zz",J_zz],["x",h_field]] # static part of H
```

In QuSpin, the user can define both static and dynamic operators. Since this example does not contain any time evolution, we postpone the explanation of how to use dynamic lists to Sec. 2.5, and use an empty list instead.

```
dynamic_spin=[] # time-dependent part of H
```

The last step before we can construct the Hamiltonian is to build the basis for it. This is done using the basis constructors. For spin systems, we use $spin_basis_1d$ which allows to use the operator strings 'z','+','-','I', and for $spin_1/2$ additionally 'x','y'. The first and required argument is the number of sites L. Optional arguments are used to parse symmetry sectors. For instance, if we want to construct an operator in the $spin_i$ -inversion block with quantum number +1, we can conveniently do this using the flag $spin_1$ -inversion block $spin_1$ -inv

```
# construct spin basis in pos/neg spin inversion sector depending on APBC/PBC basis_spin = spin_basis_1d(L=L,zblock=zblock)
```

Having specified the static and dynamic lists, as well as the basis, building up the Hamiltonian is a one-liner, using the hamiltonian constructor. The required arguments in order of appearance are the static and dynamic lists, respectively. Optional arguments include the basis, and the precision or data type dtype. If no basis is passed, the constructor uses spin_basis_1d by default. The default data type is np.complex128.

```
# build spin Hamiltonians

H_spin=hamiltonian(static_spin,dynamic_spin,basis=basis_spin,dtype=np.float64)
```

The Hamiltonian is stored as a Scipy sparse matrix for efficiency. It can be cast to a full array for a more convenient inspection using the attribute H.toarray(). To calculate its spectrum, we use the attribute H.eigenvalsh(), which returns all eigenvalues. Other attributes for diagonalisation were discussed in Example 0, c.f. Ref. [1].

```
# calculate spin energy levels
E_spin=H_spin.eigvalsh()
```

Let us now move to the second part of the loop which defines the fermionic p-wave superconductor. We start by defining the site-coupling list for the local potential

```
##### define fermion model
# define site-coupling lists for external field
h_pot=[[2.0*h,i] for i in range(L)]
```

Let us focus on the case of periodic boundary conditions PBC=1 first.

```
if PBC==1: # periodic BC: odd particle number subspace only
```

In the fermion model, we have two types of two-body terms: hopping terms $c_i^{\dagger}c_{i+1} - c_i c_{i+1}^{\dagger}$, and pairing terms $c_i^{\dagger}c_{i+1}^{\dagger} - c_i c_{i+1}$. While QuSpin allows any ordering of the operators, for the sake of consistency we set a convention: the site indices grow to the right. To take into account the opposite signs resulting from the fermion statistics, we have to code the site-coupling lists for all four terms separately. This is analogous to the spin-spin interaction above:

```
# define site-coupling lists (including boudary couplings)

J_pm=[[-J,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC

J_mp=[[+J,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC

J_pp=[[-J,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC

J_mm=[[+J,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC
```

To construct a fermionic operator, we make use of the basis constructor fermion_basis_1d. Once again, we pass the number of sites L. As we explained in the analysis above, we need to consider all odd particle number sectors in the case of PBC. This is done by specifying the particle number sector Nf.

```
# construct fermion basis in the odd particle number subsector
basis_fermion = fermion_basis_1d(L=L,Nf=range(1,L+1,2))
```

In the case of APBC, we first construct all two-body site-coupling lists as if the boundaries were open, and supplement the APBC links with negative coupling strength in the end:

```
elif PBC==-1: # anti-periodic BC: even particle number subspace only
39
            # define bulk site coupling lists
40
            J_pm=[[-J,i,i+1] \text{ for } i \text{ in } range(L-1)]
41
            J_mp=[[+J,i,i+1] \text{ for } i \text{ in } range(L-1)]
42
            J_pp=[[-J,i,i+1]] for i in range(L-1)]
43
            J_mm=[[+J,i,i+1] \text{ for } i \text{ in } range(L-1)]
44
            # add boundary coupling between sites (L-1,0)
45
            J_pm.append([+J,L-1,0]) # APBC
46
            J_mp.append([-J,L-1,0]) # APBC
47
            J_pp.append([+J,L-1,0]) # APBC
48
            J_mm.append([-J,L-1,0]) # APBC
```

The construction of the basis is the same, except that this time we need all even particle number sectors:

```
# construct fermion basis in the even particle number subsector
basis_fermion = fermion_basis_1d(L=L,Nf=range(0,L+1,2))
```

As before, we need to specify the type of operators that go in the fermion Hamiltonian using operator string lists. The **fermion_basis_1d** class accepts the following strings '+','-','n','I', and additionally the particle-hole symmetrised density operator 'z' = n - 1/2. The static and dynamic lists read as

```
# define fermionic static and dynamic lists
static_fermion =[["+-",J_pm],["-+",J_mp],["++",J_pp],["--",J_mm],['z',h_pot]]
dynamic_fermion=[]
```

Constructing and diagonalising the fermion Hamiltonian is the same as for the spin-1/2 system. Note that one can disable the automatic built-in checks for particle conservation check_pcon=False and all other symmetries check_symm=False if one wishes to suppress the checks.

```
# build fermionic Hamiltonian

H_fermion=hamiltonian(static_fermion,dynamic_fermion,basis=basis_fermion,

dtype=np.float64,check_pcon=False,check_symm=False)

# calculate fermionic energy levels
E_fermion=H_fermion.eigvalsh()
```

The complete code including the lines that produce Fig. 1 is available in Example Code 2.

2.2 Free Particle Systems: the Fermionic SSH Chain

This example shows how to

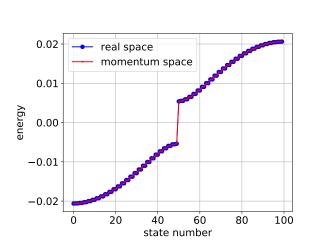
- construct free-particle Hamiltonians in real space,
- implement translation invariance with a two-site unit cell and construct the single-particle momentum-space block-diagonal Hamiltonian using the block_diag_hamiltonian function,
- compute non-equal time correlation functions,
- time evolve multiple quantum states simultaneously.

Physics Setup—The Su-Schrieffer-Heeger (SSH) model of a free-particle on a dimerised chain is widely used in one spatial dimension to introduce the concepts of edge states, topology, Berry phase, etc. The Hamiltonian is given by

$$H = \sum_{j=0}^{L-1} -(J + (-1)^j \delta J) \left(c_j c_{j+1}^\dagger - c_j^\dagger c_{j+1} \right) + \Delta (-1)^j n_j, \tag{4}$$

where $\{c_i, c_j^{\dagger}\} = \delta_{ij}$ obey fermionic commutation relations. The uniform part of the hopping matrix element is J, the bond dimerisation is defined by δJ , and Δ is the staggered potential. We work with periodic boundary conditions.

Below, we show how one can use QuSpin to study the physics of free fermions in the SSH chain. One way of doing this would be to work in the many-body (Fock space) basis, see Sec. 2.3. However, whenever the particles are non-interacting, the exponential scaling of the Hilbert space dimension with the number of lattice sites imposes an artificial limitation on the



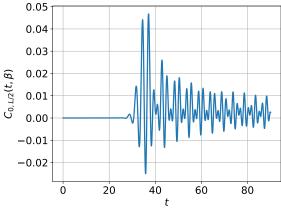


Figure 2: (a) the spectrum of the SSH Hamiltonian in real and momentum space. (b) The non-equal time correlator $C_{i=0,j=L/2}(t)$, cf. Eq. (6) as a function of time. The parameters are $\delta J/J=0.1, \ \Delta/J=0.5, \ J\beta=100.0$ and L=100.

system sizes one can do. Luckily, with no interactions present, the many-body wave functions factorise in a product of single-particle states. Hence, it is possible to study the behaviour of many free bosons and fermions by simulating the physics of a single particle, and populating the states according to bosonic or fermionic statistics, respectively.

Making use of translation invariance, a straightforward Fourier transformation to momentum space, $a_k = \sqrt{2/L} \sum_{j:\text{even}}^{L-1} \mathrm{e}^{-ikj} c_j$ and $b_k = \sqrt{2/L} \sum_{j:\text{odd}}^{L-1} \mathrm{e}^{-ikj} c_j$, casts the SSH Hamiltonian in the following form

$$H = \sum_{k \in \mathrm{BZ'}} (a_k^{\dagger}, b_k^{\dagger}) \begin{pmatrix} \Delta & -(J + \delta J)\mathrm{e}^{-ik} - (J - \delta J)\mathrm{e}^{+ik} \\ -(J + \delta J)\mathrm{e}^{+ik} - (J - \delta J)\mathrm{e}^{-ik} & -\Delta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_k \\ b_k \end{pmatrix}, \tag{5}$$

where the reduced Brillouin zone is defined as $BZ' = [-\pi/2, \pi/2)$. We thus see that the Hamiltonian reduces further to a set of independent 2×2 matrices. The spectrum of the SSH model is gapped and, thus, has two bands, see Fig. 2a.

Since we are dealing with free fermions, the ground state is the Fermi sea, $|FS\rangle$, defined by filling up the lowest band completely. We are interested in measuring the real-space non-equal time correlation function

$$C_{ij}(t) = \langle FS|n_i(t)n_j(0)|FS\rangle = \langle FS(t)|n_i(0)\underbrace{U(t,0)n_j(0)|FS\rangle}_{|nFS(t)\rangle}.$$
 (6)

To evaluate the correlator numerically, we shall use the right-hand side of this equation.

As we are studying free particles, it is enough to work with the single-particle states. For instance, the Fermi sea can be obtained as $|FS\rangle = \prod_{k \le k_F} c_k^{\dagger} |0\rangle$. Denoting the on-site density

operator by n_i , one can cast the correlator in momentum space in the following form:

$$C_{ij}(t) = \sum_{k \le k_F} \langle k | n_i(t) \hat{n}_j(0) | k \rangle. \tag{7}$$

If we want to consider finite-temperature β^{-1} , the above formula generalises to

$$C_{ij}(t,\beta) = \sum_{k \in BZ'} n_{FD}(k,\beta) \langle k | n_i(t) n_j(0) | k \rangle, \tag{8}$$

where $n_{\text{FD}}(k,\beta) = 1/(\exp(\beta E_k) + 1)$ is the Fermi-Dirac distribution at temperature β^{-1} , with E_k the SSH dispersion. Figure 2b) shows the time evolution of $C_{ij}(t,\beta)$ for two sites, separated by the maximal distance on the ring: L/2.

Code Analysis.—Let us explain how one can do all this quickly and efficiently using QuSpin. As always, we start by loading the required packages and libraries.

```
from quspin.operators import hamiltonian,exp_op # Hamiltonians and operators
from quspin.basis import fermion_basis_1d # Hilbert space fermion basis
from quspin.tools.block_tools import block_diag_hamiltonian # block diagonalisation
import numpy as np # generic math functions
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # plotting library
try: # import python 3 zip function in python 2 and pass if already using python 3
import itertools.izip as zip
except ImportError:
pass
```

After that, we define the model parameters

```
##### define model parameters ####
L=100 # system size
J=1.0 # uniform hopping contribution
deltaJ=0.1 # bond dimerisation
Delta=0.5 # staggered potential
beta=100.0 # set inverse temperature for Fermi-Dirac distribution
```

In the following, we construct the fermionic SSH Hamiltonian first in real space. We then show how one can also construct it in momentum space where, provided we use periodic boundary conditions, it appears bock-diagonal. Let us define the fermionic site-coupling lists. Once again, we emphasise that fermion systems require special care in defining the hopping terms: Eq. (4) is conveniently cast in the form where all site indices on the operators grow to the right, and all signs due to the fermion statistics are explicitly spelt out.

```
##### construct single-particle Hamiltonian ####
define site-coupling lists
hop_pm=[[-J-deltaJ*(-1)**i,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC
hop_mp=[[+J+deltaJ*(-1)**i,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC
stagg_pot=[[Delta*(-1)**i,i] for i in range(L)]
```

Defining the **static** list assigns the specific SSH operator structure. Since our problem does not possess any explicit time dependence, we leave the **dynamic** list empty.

```
1 # define static and dynamic lists
2 static=[["+-",hop_pm],["-+",hop_mp],['n',stagg_pot]]
3 dynamic=[]
```

Setting up the fermion basis with the help of the constructor fermion_basis_1d proceeds as smoothly as in Sec. 2.1. Notice a cheap trick: by specifying a total of Nf=1 fermion in the lattice, QuSpin actually allows to define single-particle models, as a special case of the more general many-body Hamiltonians. Compared to many body models, however, due to the exponentially reduced Hilbert space size, this allows us to scale up the system size L.

```
# define basis
basis=fermion_basis_1d(L,Nf=1)
```

We then build the real-valued SSH Hamiltonian in real space by passing the static and dynamic lists, as well as the basis and the data type. After that, we and diagonalise it, storing all eigenenergies and eigenstates.

```
# build real-space Hamiltonian
H=hamiltonian(static,dynamic,basis=basis,dtype=np.float64)
# diagonalise real-space Hamiltonian
E,V=H.eigh()
```

For translation invariant single-particle models, however, the user might prefer to use momentum space, where the Hamiltonian becomes block diagonal, as we showed above. This can be achieved using QuSpin's block_tools. The idea behind this tool is simple: the main purpose is to create the full Hamiltonian in block-diagonal form, where the blocks correspond to pre-defined quantum numbers. In our case, we would like to use momentum or kblock's. Note that the unit cell in the SSH model contains two sites, which we encode using the variable a=2. Thus, we can create a list of dictionaries blocks, each element of which defines a single symmetry block. If we combine all blocks, we exhaust the full Hilbert space. All other basis arguments, such as the system size, we store in the variable basis_args. We invite the interested user to check the package documentation for additional optional arguments and functionality of block_tools, cf. App. C. We mention in passing that this procedure is independent of the symmetry, and can be done using all symmetries supported by QuSpin, not only translation.

```
##### compute Fourier transform and momentum-space Hamiltonian ####
##### define basis blocks and arguments
blocks=[dict(Nf=1,kblock=i,a=2) for i in range(L//2)] # only L//2 distinct momenta
basis_args = (L,)
```

To create the block-diagonal Hamiltonian, we invoke the $block_diag_hamiltonian$ method. It takes both requires and optional arguments, and returns the transformation which block-diagonalises the Hamiltonian (in our case the Fourier transform) and the block-diagonal Hamiltonian object. Required arguments, in order of appearance, are the blocks, the static and dynamic lists, the basis constructor, $basis_args$, and the data type. Since we expect the matrix elements of the momenum-space Hamiltonian to contain the Fourier factors exp(-ik), we know to choose a complex data type. $block_diag_hamiltonian$ also accepts some optional arguments, such as the flags for disabling the automatic built-in symmetry checks. More about this function can be found in the documentation, cf. App. C.

```
# construct block-diagonal Hamiltonian
FT,Hblock = block_diag_hamiltonian(blocks,static,dynamic,fermion_basis_1d,
basis_args,np.complex128,get_proj_kwargs=dict(pcon=True))
```

We can then use all functions and methods of the **hamiltonian** class to manipulate the block-diagonal Hamiltonian, for instance the diagonalisation routines:

```
# diagonalise momentum-space Hamiltonian
Eblock, Vblock=Hblock.eigh()
```

We now proceed to calculate the correlation function from Eq. (6). To this end, we shall split the correlator according to the RHS of Eq. (6). Thus, the strategy is to evolve both the Fermi sea $|FS(t)\rangle$ and the auxiliary state $|nFS(t)\rangle$ in time, and compute the expectation value of the time-independent operator $n_i(0)$ in between the two states as a function of time. Last, keep in mind that we do not need to construct the Fermi sea as a many-body state explicitly, so we rather work with single-particle states.

The first step is to collect all momentum eigenstates into the columns of the array **psi**. We then build the operators $n_{j=0}$ and $n_{j=L/2}$ in real space.

Next, we transform these two operators to momentum space using the method rotate_by(). Setting the flag generator=False treats the Fourier transform FT as a unitary transformation, rather than a generator of a unitary transformation.

```
# transform n_j operators to momentum space
2 n_1=n_1.rotate_by(FT,generator=False)
3 n_2=n_2.rotate_by(FT,generator=False)
```

Let us proceed with the time-evolution. We first define the time vector **t** and the state **n_psi0**.

```
1 ##### evaluate nonequal time correlator <FS|n_2(t) n_1(0)|FS> #####
2 # define time vector
3 t=np.linspace(0.0,90.0,901)
4 # calcualte state acted on by n_1
5 n_psi0=n_1.dot(psi0)
```

We can perform the time evolution in two ways: (i) we calculate the time-evolution operator $\tt U$ using the $\tt exp_op$ class, and apply it to the momentum states $\tt psi0$ and $\tt n_psi0$. The $\tt exp_op$ class calculates the matrix exponential $\tt exp(aH)$ of an operator $\tt H$ multiplied by a complex number $\tt a$. One can also conveniently compute a series of matrix exponentials $\tt exp(aHt)$ for every time $\tt t$ by specifying the stating point $\tt start$, endpoint $\tt stop$ and the number of elements num which define the time array $\tt t$ via $\tt t=np.linspace(start,stop,num)$. Last, by parsing the flag $\tt iterate=True$ we create a python generator – a pre-defined object evaluated only at the time it is called, i.e. not pre-computed, which can save both time and memory.

```
# construct time-evolution operator using exp_op class (sometimes faster)
U = exp_op(Hblock,a=-1j,start=t.min(),stop=t.max(),num=len(t),iterate=True)
# evolve states
psi_t=U.dot(psi0)
n_psi_t = U.dot(n_psi0)
```

Another way of doing the time evolution, (ii), is to use the evolve() method of the hamiltonian class. The idea here is that every Hamiltonian defines a generator of time translations. This method solves the Schrödinger equation using SciPy's ODE integration routines, see App. C for more details. The required arguments, in order of appearance, are the initial state, the initial time, and the time vector. The evolve() method also supports the option to create the output as a generator using the flag iterate=True. Both ways (i) and (ii) time-evolve all momentum states psi at once.

```
# alternative method for time evolution using Hamiltonian class
#psi_t=Hblock.evolve(psi0,0.0,t,iterate=True)
#n_psi_t=Hblock.evolve(n_psi0,0.0,t,iterate=True)
```

To evaluate the correlator, we first preallocate memory by defining the empty array **correlators**, which will be filled with the correlator in every single-particle momentum mode $|k\rangle$. Using generators then allows us to loop only once over time to obtain the time-evolved states **psi_t** and **n_psi_t**. In doing so, we evaluate the expectation value $\langle FS(t)|n_i(0)|nFS(t)\rangle$ using the **matrix_ele()** method of the **hamiltonian** class. The flag **diagonal=True** makes sure only the diagonal matrix elements are calculated and returned as a one-dimensional array.

```
# preallocate variable
correlators=np.zeros(t.shape+psi0.shape[1:])
# loop over the time-evolved states
for i, (psi,n_psi) in enumerate( zip(psi_t,n_psi_t) ):
    correlators[i,:]=n_2.matrix_ele(psi,n_psi,diagonal=True).real
```

Finally, we weigh all singe-state correlators by the Fermi-Dirac distribution to obtain the finite-temperature non-equal time correlation function $C_{0,L/2}(t,\beta)$.

```
# evaluate correlator at finite temperature
n_FD=1.0/(np.exp(beta*E)+1.0)
correlator = (n_FD*correlators).sum(axis=-1)
```

The complete code including the lines that produce Fig. 2 is available in Example Code 3.

2.3 Many-Body Localization in the Fermi-Hubbard Model

This example shows how to:

- construct Hamiltonians for spinful fermions using the tensor_basis class.
- how to use ops_dict() class to construct Hamiltonians with varying parameters.
- use new basis functionality to construct simple product states
- use obs_vs_time functionality to measure observables as a function of time

A class of exciting new problems in the field of non-equalibrium physics is that of Manybody localised (MBL) models. The MBL transition is a dynamical phase transition in the eigenstates of a many-body Hamiltonian. Driven primarily by quenched disorder, the transition is distinguished by the system having ergodic eigenstates in the weak disorder limit

¹Recall that psi_t and n_psi_t contain many time-evolved states, and if one uses the default diagonal=False, all off-diagonal matrix elements will be computed as well, so the result will be a two-dimensional array

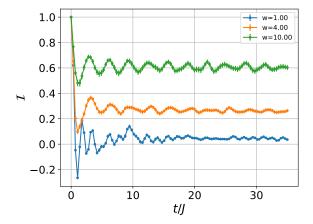


Figure 3: Sublattice imbalance I as a function of time, averaged over 100 disorder realizations for different disorder strengths. This data was taken on a chain of length L=8.

and non-ergodic eigenstates in the strong disorder limit. The MBL phase is reminiscent of integrable systems as one can construct quasi-local integrals of motion, but these integrals of motion are much more robust in the sense that they are not sensitive to small perturbations as is the case in many classes of integrable systems[CITE MBL misc].

Motivated by recent experiments in cold atomic gasses [CITE Bloch MBL I think there are a few others too] we explore MBL in the context of fermions using QuSpin. The model we will consider is the Fermi-Hubbard model with quenched random disorder which has the following Hamiltonian:

$$H = -J \sum_{i=0,\sigma}^{L-2} \left(c_{i\sigma}^{\dagger} c_{i+1,\sigma} - c_{i\sigma} c_{i+1,\sigma}^{\dagger} \right) + U \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} n_{i\uparrow} n_{i\downarrow} + \sum_{i=0,\sigma}^{L-1} V_i n_{i\sigma}$$
 (9)

where $c_{i\sigma}$ and $c_{i\sigma}^{\dagger}$ are the fermionic creation and annihilation operators on site *i* for spin σ , respectively. We will work in the sector of 1/4 filling for both up and down spins. Preparing an initial configuration of fermions of alternating spin on every other site, we will then measure the sublattice imbalance [CITE exp]:

$$I = (N_A - N_B)/N_{\text{tot}} \tag{10}$$

where A and B refer to the different sublattices of the chain and N is the particle number. Evolving the initial state under the Hamiltonian (9) we will calculate the time dependence of the imbalance which will give us information about the ergodicity of the Hamiltonian (or the lack thereof). If the Hamiltonian is ergodic then this quantity will decay to 0 in the limit $t \to \infty$ as one would expect due to thermalising dynamics, while if the Hamiltonian is MBL then some memory of its initial state will be retained, and therefore th imbalance will remain non-zero even at infinite times.

Because the Hilbert space dimension grows so quickly for this Hamiltonian with the lattice size, we will only consider the dynamics after a finite amount of time, and even with this it is a fairly long calculation to do, due to, (say which parts take longest time)

Code Analysis—Once again we start out by loading a set of libraries which we need to proceed with the simulation of MBL fermions.

```
from quspin.operators import hamiltonian,exp_op,ops_dict # operators
from quspin.basis import tensor_basis,fermion_basis_1d # Hilbert spaces
from quspin.tools.measurements import obs_vs_time # calculating dynamics
import numpy as np # general math functions
from numpy.random import uniform,choice # tools for doing random sampling
from time import time # tool for calculating computation time
```

While we already encountered most of these libraries and functions, in this example we introduce the <code>ops_dict()</code> class which defines an operator, parametrized by multiple parameters, as opposed to the Hamiltonian which is only parametrized by time. Also, since this example requires us to do many different disorder realisations, we use <code>NumPy</code>'s random number library to do random sampling. We load <code>uniform</code> to generate the uniformly distributed random potential as well as <code>choice</code> which we use to estimate the uncertainties of the disorder averages using a bootstrap re-sampling procedure which we explain below <code>below</code>, or in <code>App.?</code>. In order to time how long each realization takes, we use the <code>time</code> function from python's <code>time</code> library.

After importing all the required libraries and functions we set up the parameters for the simulation including the number of realizations **n_real**, and the physical couplings **J**, U, the number of up and down fermions, etc.

```
##### setting parameters for simulation
# simulation parameters
n_real = 100 # number of realizations
n_boot = 100 # number of bootstrap samples to calculate error
# physical parameters
L = 8 # system size
N = L//2 # number of particles
N_up = N//2 + N % 2 # number of fermions with spin up
N_down = N//2 # number of fermions with spin down
# w_list = [1.0,4.0,10.0] # disorder strength
U = 5.0 # interaction strength
# range in time to evolve system
start,stop,num=0.0,35.0,101
t = np.linspace(start,stop,num=num,endpoint=True)
```

Next we set up the basis, introducing here the **tensor_basis** constructor class. In its full-fledged generality, **tensor_basis** takes n basis objects which it then uses to construct the matrix elements in the tensor product space:

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{H}_n. \tag{11}$$

Here we consider the case of two Hilbert spaces, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$, one for fermions with spin up and one for spin-down fermions². One disadvantage of using the tensor basis is that it does not allow for the use of symmetries, beyond particle-conservation (magnetisation in the case of spin systems). we'll have to change this later when we have the ladder classes.

```
###### create the basis
# build the two bases to tensor together to spinful fermions
basis_up = fermion_basis_1d(L,Nf=N_up) # up basis
basis_down = fermion_basis_1d(L,Nf=N_down) # down basis
basis = tensor_basis(basis_up,basis_down) # spinful fermions
```

 $^{^2}$ to construct a tensor_basis object in general: t_basis = tensor_basis(basis_1,basis_2,...,basis_n)

The next step in the procedure is to set up the site-coupling and operator lists:

```
32 ##### create model
  # define site-coupling lists
34 hop_right = [[-J,i,i+1] for i in range(L-1)] # hopping to the right OBC
35 hop_left = [[J,i,i+1] for i in range(L-1)] # hopping to the left OBC
36 int_list = [[U,i,i] for i in range(L)] # onsite interaction
  # site-coupling list to create the sublattice imbalance observable
  sublat_list = [[(-1.0)**i/N,i] for i in range(0,L)]
  # create static lists
  operator_list_0 = [
40
               ["+-|", hop_left], # up hop left
41
               ["-+|", hop_right], # up hop right
42
               ["|+-", hop_left], # down hop left
43
               ["|-+", hop_right], # down hop right
44
               ["n|n", int_list], # onsite interaction
45
46
47 imbalance_list = [["n|", sublat_list],["|n", sublat_list]]
```

Notice here that the "|" character is used to separate the operators which belong to the up (left side of tensor product) and down (right side of tensor product) Hilbert spaces in basis. If no string in present the operator is assumed to be the identity 'I'. The site-coupling list, on the other hand, does not require separating the two sides of the tensor product, as it is assumed that the operator string lines up with the correct site index when the '|' character is removed.

In the last couple of lines defining model (see below), we create a python dictionary object in which we add static operator lists as values, indexed by a particular string known as the corresponding key. This dictionary, which we refer to as operator_dict, is then passed into the ops_dict() class which, for each key in operator_dict, constructs the operator listed in the site-coupling list for that key. When one wants to evaluate this operator for a particular set of parameters, one uses a second dictionary (see params_dict below give line number) with the same keys as operator_dict: the value corresponding to each key in the params_dict multiples the operator stored at that same key in operator_dict. This allows one to parametrize many-body operators in more complicated and general ways. In the present example, we define a key for the Fermi-Hubbard Hamiltonian, and then, as we need to change the disorder strength in between realisations, we also define keys for the local density operator for both up and down spins on each site. By doing this, we can then construct any disordered Hamiltonian by specify the disorder at each site, and changing its value from one realisation to another.

```
# create operator dictionary for ops_dict class
# add key for Hubbard hamiltonian
operator_dict=dict(H0=operator_list_0)
# add keys for local potential in each site
for i in range(L):
# add to dictioanry keys h0,h1,h2,...,hL with local potential operator
operator_dict["n"+str(i)] = [["n|",[[1.0,i]]],["|n",[[1.0,i]]]]
```

The ops_dict() class constructs operators in almost an identical manner as a hamiltonian() class with the exception that there is no dynamic list. Next, we construct our initial state with the fermions dispersed over the lattice on every other site. To get the index of the basis state which this initial state corresponds to, one can use the index function of the tensor_basis

class. This function takes a string or integer representing the product state for each of the Hilbert spaces and then searches to find the full product state, returning the corresponding index. We can then create an empty array <code>psi_0</code> of dimension the total Hilbert space size, and insert unity at the index corresponding to the initial state. This allows us to easily define the many-body product state used in the rest of the simulation.

```
###### setting up operators
# set up hamiltonian dictionary and observable (imbalance I)
no_checks = dict(check_pcon=False,check_symm=False,check_herm=False)
H_dict = ops_dict(operator_dict,basis=basis,**no_checks)
I = hamiltonian(imbalance_list,[],basis=basis,**no_checks)
# strings which represent the initial state
s_up = "".join("1000" for i in range(N_up))
s_down = "".join("0010" for i in range(N_down))
# basis.index accepts strings and returns the index
# which corresponds to that state in the basis list
i_0 = basis.index(s_up,s_down) # find index of product state
psi_0 = np.zeros(basis.Ns) # allocate space for state
psi_0[i_0] = 1.0 # set MB state to be the given product state
print("H-space size: {:d}, initial state: |{:s}>(x)|{:s}>".format(basis.Ns,s_up, s_down))
```

Now that the operators are all set up, we can proceed with the simulation of the dynamics. First, we define a function which, given a disorder realization of the local potential, calculates the time evolution of $\mathcal{I}(t)$. We shall guide the reader through this function step by step. The syntax for this begins as follows:

```
# define function to do dynamics for different disorder realizations.

def real(H_dict,I,psi_0,w,t,i):
    # body of function goes below
    ti = time() # start timing function for duration of reach realisation
```

The first step is to construct the Hamiltonian from the disorder list which is as simple as

```
# create a parameter list which specifies the onsite potential with disorder
params_dict=dict(H0=1)
for j in range(L):
    params_dict["n"+str(j)] = uniform(-w,w)
# using the parameters dictionary construct a hamiltonian object with those
# parameters defined in the list
H = H_dict.tohamiltonian(params_dict)
```

using the tohamiltonian() method of H_dict class, which accepts as argument the dictionary params_dict, which shares the same keys as operator_dict, but whose values are determined by the disorder list which changes from one realisation to another.

Once the Hamiltonian has been constructed we want to time-evolve the initial state with it. To this end, we use the fact that, for time-independent Hamiltonians, the time-evolution operator coincides with the matrix exponential $\exp(-itH)$. In QuSpin, a convenient way to define matrix exponentials is offered by the $\exp(-itH)$. Given an operator A, it calculates $\exp(atA)$ for any complex-valued number a. The time grid for t is specified using the optional arguments start , stop and num . If the latter are omitted, default is t=1. The $\exp(atA)$ at the times defined or, if $\operatorname{iterate=True}$ a generator for this list is returned. Here, we use $\exp(\operatorname{op})$ to create a generator list containing the time-evolved states as follows

```
# use exp_op to get the evolution operator
U = exp_op(H,a=-1j,start=t.min(),stop=t.max(),num=len(t),iterate=True)
psi_t = U.dot(psi_0) # get generator psi_t for time evolved state
```

To calculate the expectation value of the imbalance operator in time, we use the <code>obs_vs_time</code> function. Since the usage of this function was extensively discussed in Example2 and Example3 of Ref. [1], here we only mention that it accepts a (collection of) state(s) [or a generator] <code>psi_t</code>, a time vector <code>t</code>, and a dictionary <code>dict(I=I)</code>, whose values are the observables to calculate the expectation value of. The function returns a dictionary, the keys of which correspond to the keys every observable was defined under.

```
# use obs_vs_time to evaluate the dynamics
t = U.grid # extract time grid stored in U, and defined in exp_op
obs_t = obs_vs_time(psi_t,t,dict(I=I))
```

The function ends by printing the time of executing and returning the value for I as a function of time for this realization

```
# print reporting the computation time for realization
print("realization {}/{} completed in {:.2f} s".format(i+1,n_real,time()-ti))
# return observable values
return obs_t["I"]
```

Now we are all set to run the disorder realizations for the different disorder strengths which in principle can be spilt up over multiple simulations, e.g. using joblib [c.f. Example2 from Ref. [1]] but for completeness we do all of the calculations in one script.

```
###### looping over differnt disorder strengths
for w in w_list:
    I_data = np.vstack([real(H_dict,I,psi_0,w,t,i) for i in range(n_real)])
```

Last, we calculate the average and its error bars using bootstrap re-sampling (See Appendix??)

The complete code including the lines that produce Fig. 3 is available in Example Code 4.

2.4 The Bose-Hubbard Model on Translationally Invariant Ladder

This example shows how to:

- construct interacting Hamiltonians for bosonic systems.
- construct a Hamiltonian on a ladder geometry.
- use the block_ops class to evolve a state over several symmetry sectors at once.
- measure the entanglement entropy of a state on the ladder.

Physics Setup— In this example we use QuSpin to simulate the dynamics of the Bose-Hubbard model (BHM) on a ladder geometry. The BHM is a minimal model for interacting lattice bosons which is most often experimentally realizable in cold atom experiments [CITE]. The Hamiltonian is given by

$$H_{\text{BHM}} = -J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} \left(a_i^{\dagger} a_j + \text{h.c.} \right) + \frac{U}{2} \sum_i n_i (n_i - 1)$$
 (12)

where a_i and a_i^{\dagger} are bosonic creation and annihilation operators on site i, respectively, and $\langle ij \rangle$ denotes nearest neighbors on the ladder. We consider a half-filled ladder of length L with N=2L sites and cylindrical boundary condition i.e. a periodic boundary condition along the ladder leg direction. We are interested in the limit $U/J \gg 1$ and, therefore, we restrict the local Hilbert space to allow at most two particles per site, effectively using a total of three states per site: empty, singly and doubly occupied.

The system is initialised in a random Fock state, and then evolved with the Hamiltonian (12). Since the BHM is non-integrable, we expect that the system eventually thermalizes so that the long-time occupation becomes roughly uniform over the entire system. Besides the local density, we also measure the entanglement entropy between the two legs of the ladder.

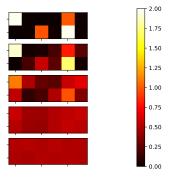
As we consider a translational invariant ladder, the Hilbert space factorizes into subspaces corresponding to the different many-body momentum blocks. This is similar to what was discussed in Sec. 2.2 for the SSH model, but slightly different as we consider translations of the many-body Fock states as opposed to the single particle states [2]. In certain cases, it happens that, even though the Hamiltonian features symmetries, the initial state does not obey them, as is the case in the present example, where the initial state is a random Fock state. Thus, in this section we project the wavefunction to the different symmetry sectors and evolve each of the projections separately under the Hamiltonian for that symmetry sector. After the evolution, each of these block wavefunctions is transformed back to the local Fock space basis, and summed up to recover the properly evolved initial state. We can then measure quantities such as the on-site density and the entanglement entropy. Figure 4 shows...

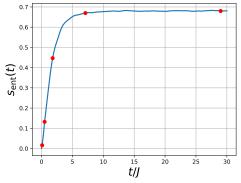
Code Analysis—Let us now show how one can simulate this system using QuSpin. Following the code structure of previous examples, we begin by loading the modules needed for the computation:

```
from __future__ import print_function, division #import python 3 functions
from quspin.operators import hamiltonian # Hamiltonians and operators
from quspin.basis import boson_basis_1d # bosonic Hilbert space
from quspin.tools.block_tools import block_ops # dynamics in symmetry blocks
import numpy as np # general math functions
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # plotting
import matplotlib.animation as animation # animating movie of dynamics
```

First, we set up the model parameters defining the length of the ladder L, the total number of sites in the chain N=2*L, as well as the filling factor for the bosons nb, and the maximum number of states per site (i.e. the local on-site Hilbert space dimension) sps. The hopping matrix elements J_{\perp} , $J_{\parallel,1}$, and $J_{\parallel,2}$ (see Fig. 1create figure showing ladder and couplings etc...) correspond to the python script variables J_perp, J_par_1, and J_par_2, respectively. The on-site interaction is denoted by U.

```
9 ##### define model parameters
10 # initial see for random number generator
```





(b) local density of bosons as a function of time. Later times appearing farther down the page.

(a) Entanglement entropy density between the two legs of the ladder as a function of time.

Figure 4: Quantities measured in the BHM: (a) the leg-to-leg entanglement entropy density and (b) the local density on each site as a function of time. The red dots on the entanglement plot shows the time points at which the snapshots of the local density are taken. The parameters are U/J=20, and L=6.

```
np.random.seed(0) # seed is 0 to produce plots from QuSpin2 paper
# setting up parameters of simulation
L = 6 # length of chain
N = 2*L # number of sites
nb = 0.5 # density of bosons
sps = 3 # number of states per site
J_par_1 = 1.0 # top side of ladder hopping
J_par_2 = 1.0 # bottom side of ladder hopping
J_perp = 0.5 # rung hopping
U = 20.0 # Hubbard interaction
```

Let us proceed to construct the Hamiltonian and the observables for the problem. For bosonic systems, we have '+','-' 'n', and 'I' as available Fock space operators to use. In order to set up the local Hubbard interaction, we first split it up in two terms: $U/2\sum_i n_i(n_i-1) = -U/2\sum_i n_i + U/2\sum_i n_i^2$. Thus, we need two coupling lists:

```
##### set up Hamiltonian and observables
# define site-coupling lists
int_list_1 = [[-0.5*U,i] for i in range(N)] # interaction $-U/2 \sum_i n_i$
int_list_2 = [[0.5*U,i,i] for i in range(N)] # interaction: $U/2 \num_i n_i^2$
```

QuSpin Example Code 1: Translationally Invariant Ladder Geometry

```
#schematic of how the ladder lattice is set up coupling parameters:
# -: J_par_1
```

We also define the hopping site-coupling list. In general, QuSpin can set up the Hamiltonian on any graph (thus, including higher-dimensions). By labelling te lattice sites conveniently, we can define the ladder geometry, as shown in Fig. 1. For the ladder geometry we are interested in, there are three types of hopping on a ladder geometry: one along each of the two legs with tunnelling matrix elements <code>J_par_1</code> and <code>J_par_1</code>, respectively, and the transverse hopping along the rungs of the ladder with strength <code>J_perp</code>. The even sites correspond to the bottom leg while the odds sites are the top leg of the ladder. Therefore, the hopping on the bottom/top leg is defined by <code>[J_par_...,i,(i+2)%N]</code>, while the rung hopping (from the top leg to the bottom leg) is defined by <code>[J_perp,i,(i+1)%N]</code>.

```
# setting up hopping lists
hop_list = [[-J_par_1,i,(i+2)%N] for i in range(0,N,2)] # PBC bottom leg
hop_list.extend([[-J_par_2,i,(i+2)%N] for i in range(1,N,2)]) # PBC top leg
hop_list.extend([[-J_perp,i,i+1] for i in range(0,N,2)]) # perp/rung hopping
hop_list_hc = [[J.conjugate(),i,j] for J,i,j in hop_list] # add h.c. terms
```

where we used the list_1.extend(list_2) method to concatenate two lists together³.

Next, we define the static and dynamic lists, which are needed to construct the Hamiltonian.

³Note that the extend function is done inplace so if one tries to do new_list=list_1.extend(list_2), new_list will be None and list_1 will have all of the elements of list_2 appended to it.

Instead of creating a hamiltonian class object in real space, we use the block_ops class to set up the Hamiltonian in a block-diagonal form in momentum space, similar to the SSH model, c.f.Sec. 2.2. In order to reduce the computational cost, the state is evolved in momentum space and projected to the Fock basis after the calculation. The purpose of block_ops is to provide a simple interface for solving the Schrödinger equation when an initial state does not obey the symmetries of the Hamiltonian it is evolved under. We have seen an example of this in Sec. 2.2 when trying to measure non-equal space-time correlation functions of local operators in a translational invariant system, while in this section we explicitly start out with a state which does not obey translation invariance. To construct the block_ops object we use the follow set of lines, explained below:

```
# create block_ops object
blocks=[dict(kblock=kblock) for kblock in range(L)] # blocks to project on to
baisis_args = (N,) # boson_basis_1d manditory arguments
basis_kwargs = dict(nb=nb,sps=sps,a=2) # boson_basis_1d optional args
get_proj_kwargs = dict(pcon=True) # set projection to full particle basis
H_block = block_ops(blocks,static,dynamic,boson_basis_1d,baisis_args,np.complex128,
basis_kwargs=basis_kwargs,get_proj_kwargs=get_proj_kwargs)
```

First, we create a list of dictionaries **blocks** which define the different symmetry sectors to project the initial state to before doing the time evolution⁴. this dict is not created until an evolution routine is called The optional arguments basis_args and basis_kwargs apply to every symmetry sector. Last, get_proj_kwargs contains the optional arguments to construct the projectors⁵. For more information about this class we refer the user to the Documentation, c.f. App. C.

Finally, we define the local density operators using the boson_basis_1d class.

Having set up the Hamiltonian, we now proceed to the time-evolution part of the problem. We begin by defining the initial random state in the Fock basis.

```
# set up initial state
10 = np.random.randint(basis.Ns) # pick random state from basis set
11 psi = np.zeros(basis.Ns,dtype=np.float64)
12 psi[i0] = 1.0
13 # print info about setup
15 state_str = "".join(str(int((basis[i0]//basis.sps**i)%basis.sps)) for i in range(N))
15 print("total H-space size: {}, initial state: |{}>".format(basis.Ns,state_str))
```

Next we define the times at which we would like to solve the Schrödinger equation. Below, we use the **exp_op** class to compute the time-evolution operator as the exponential of the Hamiltonian, see Sec. 2.3. Therefore, we consider linearly spaced time points defined by the variables **start,stop**, and **num**.

⁴block_ops will not evolve in those symmetry sectors for which the projection is 0.

⁵In this case setting **pcon=True** means that the projector takes the state *from* the symmetry reduced basis to the fixed particle number basis.

```
# setting up parameters for evolution
start,stop,num = 0,30,301 # 0.1 equally spaced points
times = np.linspace(start,stop,num)
```

To calculate the states as a function of time, we use the expm function of the block_ops class to first construct the unitary evolution operator as the matrix exponential of the time-independent Hamiltonian⁶. We define the expm function to have almost identical arguments as that of the exp_op class, but with some major exceptions. For one, because the Hamiltonian factorizes in a block-diagonal form, the evolution over each block can be done separately (e.g. just trivially loop through the blocks sequentially). In some cases, however, e.g. for single particle Hamiltonians [see Sec. 2.2], there are a lot of small blocks, and it actually makes sense to calculate the matrix exponential in block diagonal form which is achieved by setting the optional argument block_diag=True. Another optional argument, n_jobs=int, allows the user to spawn multiple python processes which do the calculations for the different blocks simultaneously for n_jobs>1. On most systems these processes will be distributed over multiple CPUs which can speed up the calculations if there are resources for this available. This also works in conjunction with the block_diag where each process creates its own block diagonal matrix for the calculation. Once all the calculations for each block are completed, the results are combined and conveniently projected back to the original local Fock basis.

```
62 # calculating the evolved states
63 n_jobs = 1 # paralelisation: increase to see if calculation runs faster!
64 psi_t = H_block.expm(psi,a=-1j,start=start,stop=stop,num=num,block_diag=False,n_jobs =n_jobs)
```

We can now use the time dependent states calculated to compute the expectation value of the local density

```
# calculating the local densities as a function of time
expt_n_t = np.vstack([n.expt_value(psi_t).real for n in n_list]).T
# reshape data for plotting
n_t = np.zeros((num,2,L))
n_t[:,0,:] = expt_n_t[:,0::2]
n_t[:,1,:] = expt_n_t[:,1::2]
```

We can also compute the entanglement entropy between the two legs of the adder. In the newer versions of QuSpin we have moved the entanglement entropy calculations to the basis classes themselves (keeping of course backwards compatible functions from older versions). The rational behind this is that this calculation is highly dependent on the type of system one is studying. Below, we show how to use the *basis* object to calculate the entanglement entropy. We note in passing that this function can also calculate the reduced density matrix and its eigenvalues for pure and mixed states. Once again we refer the reader to the Documentation to learn more about how to use this function, see App. C.

```
71 # calculating entanglement entropy
72 sub_sys_A = range(0,N,2) # bottom side of ladder
73 gen = (basis.ent_entropy(psi,sub_sys_A=sub_sys_A)["Sent_A"]/L for psi in psi_t.T[:])
74 ent_t = np.fromiter(gen,dtype=np.float64,count=num)
```

The complete code including the lines that produce Fig. 4 is available in Example Code 5.

⁶For time dependent Hamiltonians, the block_ops class contains a method called evolve, see App. C.

2.5 The Gross-Pitaevskii Equation and Nonlinear Time Evolution

This example shows how to

- simulate time-dependent nonlinear equations of motion
- use imaginary time dynamics to find a lowest energy configuration

Physics Setup—The Gross-Pitaevskii wave equation (GPE) has been shown to govern the physics of weakly-interacting bosonic systems. It constitutes the starting point for studying Bose-Einstein condensates, but can also appear in non-linear optics, and represents the natural description of Hamiltonian mechanics in the wave picture. One of its interesting features is that it can exhibits chaotic classical dynamics, a physical manifestation of the presence of a cubic non-linear term.

Here, we study the time-dependent GPE on a one-dimensional lattice:

$$i\partial_t \psi_j(t) = -J(\psi_{j-1}(t) + \psi_{j+1}(t)) + \frac{1}{2} \kappa_{\text{trap}}(t) (j-j_0)^2 \psi_j(t) + U|\psi_j(t)|^2 \psi_j(t),$$

$$\kappa_{\text{trap}}(t) = (\kappa_f - \kappa_i) t / t_{\text{ramp}} + \kappa_i$$
(13)

where J is the hopping matrix element, $\kappa_{\text{trap}}(t)$ – the harmonic trap strength which varies slowly in time over a scale t_{ramp} , and U – the mean-field interaction strength. The lattice sites are labelled by $j=0,\ldots,L-1$, and j_0 is the centre of the 1d chain. We set the lattice constant to unity, and use open boundary conditions.

Whenever U=0, the system is non-interacting and the GPE reduces to the Heisenberg EOM for the bosonic field operator $\hat{\psi}_j(t)$. Thus, for the purposes of using QuSpin to simulate the GPE, it is instructive to cast Eq. (13) in the following generic form

$$i\partial_t \vec{\psi}(t) = H_{\rm sp}(t)\vec{\psi}(t) + U\vec{\psi}^*(t) \circ \vec{\psi}(t) \circ \vec{\psi}(t), \tag{14}$$

where $[\vec{\psi}(t)]_j = \psi_j(t)$, and \circ represents the element-wise multiplication

$$\vec{\psi}(t) \circ \vec{\phi}(t) = \left(\psi_0(t)\phi_0(t), \psi_1(t)\phi_1(t), \dots, \psi_{L-1}(t)\phi_{L-1}(t)\right)^t.$$

The time-dependent single-particle Hamiltonian in real space is represented as an $L \times L$ matrix, $H_{\rm sp}(t)$, which comprises the hopping term, and the harmonic trap.

We want to initiate the time-evolution of the system at t=0 in its lowest energy state. To this end, we can define a 'ground state' for the GPE equation, in terms of the configuration which minimises the energy of the system:

$$\vec{\psi}_{GS} = \inf_{\vec{\psi}} \left(\vec{\psi}^t H_{sp}(0) \vec{\psi} + \frac{U}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{L-1} |\psi_j|^4 \right),$$

$$= \inf_{\psi_j} \left(-J \sum_{j=0}^{L-2} (\psi_{j+1}^* \psi_j + \text{c.c.}) + \frac{1}{2} \kappa_{trap}(0) \sum_{j=0}^{L-1} (j-j_0)^2 |\psi_j|^2 + \frac{U}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{L-1} |\psi_j|^4 \right). (15)$$

One way to find the configuration $\vec{\psi}_{GS}$, is to solve the GPE in imaginary time $(it \to \tau)$, which induces exponential decay in all modes of the system, which singles out the lowest-energy state

in the longer run. In doing so, we keep the norm of the solution fixed:

$$\partial_{\tau}\vec{\varphi}(\tau) = -\left[H_{\rm sp}(0)\vec{\varphi}(\tau) + U\vec{\varphi}^*(\tau) \circ \vec{\varphi}(\tau) \circ \vec{\varphi}(\tau)\right], \qquad ||\vec{\varphi}(\tau)|| = \text{const.},$$

$$\vec{\psi}_{\rm GS} = \lim_{\tau \to \infty} \vec{\varphi}(\tau)$$
(16)

Once we have the initial state $\vec{\psi}_{\text{GS}}$, we evolve it according to the time-dependent GPE, Eq. (13), and track down the time evolution of the condensate density $\rho_j(t) = |\psi_j(t)|^2$. Fig. ??? shows the result.

Code Analysis—In the following, we demonstrate how one can code the above physics using QuSpin. As usual, we begin by loading the necessary packages:

```
from quspin.operators import hamiltonian # Hamiltonians and operators
from quspin.basis import boson_basis_1d # Hilbert space boson basis
from quspin.tools.measurements import evolve # nonlinear evolution
import numpy as np # generic math functions
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # plot library
```

Next, we define the model parameters. We distinguish between static parameters and dynamic parameters – those involved in the time-dependent trap widening.

```
7 ##### define model parameters #####
8 L=300 # system size
9 # calculate centre of chain
  if L%2==0:
      j0 = L//2-0.5 # centre of chain
11
12 else:
      j0 = L//2 # centre of chain
14 sites=np.arange(L)-j0
15 # static parameters
16 J=1.0 # hopping
17 U=1.0 # Bose-Hubbard interaction strength
  # dynamic parameters
19 kappa_trap_i=0.001 # initial chemical potential
20 kappa_trap_f=0.0001 # final chemical potential
21 t_ramp=40.0/J # set total ramp time
```

In order to do time evolution, we code up the trap widening protocol from Eq. (13) in the function ramp. Since we want to make use of QuSpin's time-dependent operator features, the first argument must be the time t, followed by all protocol parameters. These same parameters are then explicitly stored in the variable ramp_args.

```
# ramp protocol

def ramp(t,kappa_trap_i,kappa_trap_f,t_ramp):
    return (kappa_trap_f - kappa_trap_i)*t/t_ramp + kappa_trap_i

# ramp protocol parameters
ramp_args=[kappa_trap_i,kappa_trap_f,t_ramp]
```

With this, we are ready to construct the single-particle Hamiltonian $H_{\rm sp}(t)$. The first step is to define the site-coupling lists, and the static and dynamic lists. Note that the dynamic list, which defines the harmonic potential in the single-particle Hamiltonian, contains four elements: apart from the operator string and the corresponding site-coupling list, the third and fourth elements are the time-dependent function **ramp** and its argument list **ramp_args**, and this order is crucial.

```
##### construct single-particle Hamiltonian #####

# define site-coupling lists
hopping=[[-J,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L-1)]

trap=[[0.5*(i-j0)**2,i] for i in range(L)]

define static and dynamic lists

static=[["+-",hopping],["-+",hopping]]

dynamic=[['n',trap,ramp,ramp_args]]
```

To create the single-particle Hamiltonian, we choose to use the bosonic basis constructor boson_basis_1d specifying the number sector to Nb=1 boson for the entire lattice, and a local Hilbert space of sps=2 states per site (empty and filled).

```
# define basis
basis = boson_basis_1d(L,Nb=1,sps=2)
```

Then we call the hamiltonian constructor to build the single-particle matrix. We can obtain the single-particle ground state without fully diagonalising this matrix, by using the sparse diagonalisation attribute Hsp.eigsh(). The eigsh() routine accepts the optional flags k=1 and 'which'='SA' which restrict the routine to find the first eigenstate starting from the bottom of the spectrum, i.e. the ground state.

```
# build Hamiltonian

Hsp=hamiltonian(static,dynamic,basis=basis,dtype=np.float64)

E,V=Hsp.eigsh(time=0.0,k=1,which='SA')
```

Having set up the Hsmiltonian, the next step in the simulation is to compute the ground state of the GPE using imaginary time evolution from Eq. (16). To this end, we first define the function $\mathsf{GPE_imag_time}$ which evaluate the RHS. It is required that the first argument for this function is (imaginary) time tau , followed by the state phi . All other arguments, such as the single-particle Hamiltonian and the interaction strength are listed last. Note that we evaluate the time-dependent Hamiltonian at $\mathsf{time=0}$, since we are interested in finding the GPE GS for the initial trap coniguration κ_i . Similar to before, we store these optional arguments in a list which we call $\mathsf{GPE_params}$.

```
##### imaginary-time evolution to compute GS of GPE #####

def GPE_imag_time(tau,phi,Hsp,U):
    """

This function solves the real-valued GPE in imaginary time:
    $$ -\dot\phi(\tau) = Hsp(t=0)\phi(\tau) + U |\phi(\tau)|^2 \phi(\tau) $$

"""

return -( Hsp.dot(phi,time=0) + U*np.abs(phi)**2*phi )

# define ODE parameters

GPE_params = (Hsp,U)
```

Any initial value problem requires us to pick an initial state. In the case of imaginary evolution, this state can often be arbitrary, but needs to possess the same symmetries as the true GPE ground state. Here, we choose the ground state of the single-particle Hamiltonian for an initial state, and normalise it to one particle per site. We also define the imaginary time vector tau. This array has to contain sufficiently long times so that we make sure we end up in the long imaginary time limit $\tau \to \infty$, as required by Eq. (16). Since imaginary time evolution is not unitary, QuSpin will be normalising the vector every τ -step. Thus, one also needs to make sure these steps are small enough to avoid convergence problems with the ODE solver.

```
50 # define initial state to flow to GS from
```

```
phi0=V[:,0]*np.sqrt(L) # initial state normalised to 1 particle per site
define imaginary time vector
tau=np.linspace(0.0,35.0,71)
```

Performing imaginary time evolution is done using the evolve() method of the measurements tool. This function accepts an initial state phi0, initial time tau[0], and a time vector tau and solves any user-defined ODE, here GPE_imag_time. The parameters of the ODE are passed using the keyword argument f_params=GPE_params. To ensure the normalisation of the state at each τ -step we use the flag imag_time=True. Real-valued output can be specified by real=True. Last, we request evolve() to create a generator object using the keyword argument iterate=True. Many of the keyword arguments of evolve() are the same as in the H.evolve() method of the hamiltonian class: for instance, one can choose a specific SciPy solver and its arguments, or the solver's absolute and relative tolerance. We refer the interested reader to the documentation, cf. App. C.

```
# evolve state in imaginary time
psi_tau = evolve(phi0,tau[0],tau,GPE_imag_time,f_params=GPE_params,
imag_time=True,real=True,iterate=True)
```

Looping over the generator **phi_tau** we have access to the solution, which we display in a form of a movie:

```
75 # display state evolution
76 for i,psi0 in enumerate(psi_tau):
77
      # compute energy
      E_GS=(Hsp.matrix_ele(psi0,psi0,time=0) + 0.5*U*np.sum(np.abs(psi0)**4)).real
78
      # plot wave function
79
      plt.plot(sites, abs(phi0)**2, color='r', marker='s', alpha=0.2,
80
                                             label='$|\\phi_j(0)|^2$')
81
      plt.plot(sites, abs(psi0)**2, color='b', marker='o',
82
                                    label='$|\\phi_j(\\tau)|^2$')
83
      plt.xlabel('$\\mathrm{lattice\\ sites}$', fontsize=14)
84
      plt.title('$J\tau=\%0.2f,\ E_\mathrm{GS}(\tau)=\%0.4fJ$'\%(tau[i],E_GS)
85
                                                                      , fontsize=14)
86
      plt.ylim([-0.01, max(abs(phi0)**2)+0.01])
87
      plt.legend(fontsize=14)
88
      plt.draw() # draw frame
89
      plt.pause(0.005) # pause frame
90
      plt.clf() # clear figure
91
92 plt.close()
```

Last, we use our GPE ground state, to time-evolve it in real time according to the trap widening protocol ramp, hard-coded into the single-particle Hamiltonian. We proceed analogously – first we define the real-time GPE and the time vector. In defining the GPE function, we split the ODE into a time-independent static part and a time-dependent dynamic part. The single-particle Hamiltonian for the former is accessed using the hamiltonian attribute Hsp.static which returns a SciPy sparse array. We can then manually add the non-linear cubic mean-field interaction term. In order to access the time-dependent part of the Hamiltonian, and evaluate it, we loop over the dynamic list Hsp.dynamic, which is a list consisting of the corresponding operator Hd together with the time-dependent function f which multiplies it, and its arguments f_args. In the very end, we multiply the final output vector by the Schrödinger -i, which ensures the unitarity of real-time evolution.

```
77 ##### real-time evolution of GPE #####
  def GPE(time,psi):
79
      This function solves the complex-valued time-dependent GPE:
80
      \ i\dot\psi(t) = Hsp(t)\psi(t) + U |\psi(t)|^2 \psi(t) $$
81
82
      # solve static part of GPE
83
      psi_dot = Hsp.static.dot(psi) + U*np.abs(psi)**2*psi
84
      # solve dynamic part of GPE
85
      for Hd, f, f_args in Hsp.dynamic:
86
           psi_dot += f(time,*f_args)*Hd.dot(psi)
87
      return -1j*psi_dot
88
  # define real time vector
90 t=np.linspace(0.0,t_ramp,101)
```

To perform the real-time evolution explicitly we once again use the evolve() function. This time, however, since the solution of the GPE is anticipated to be complex-valued, and because we do not do imaginary time, we do not need to pass the flags real and imag_time. Instead, we decided to show the flags for the relative and absolute tolerance of the solver.

```
# time-evolve state according to GPE
psi_t = evolve(psi0,t[0],t,GPE,iterate=True,atol=1E-12,rtol=1E-12)
```

Finally, we can enjoy the movie displaying real-time evolution

```
94 # display state evolution
   for i,psi in enumerate(psi_t):
       # compute energy
96
       E=(Hsp.matrix_ele(psi,psi,time=t[i]) + 0.5*U*np.sum(np.abs(psi)**4)).real
97
       # compute trap
98
       kappa_trap=ramp(t[i],kappa_trap_i,kappa_trap_f,t_ramp)*(sites)**2
       # plot wave function
100
       plt.plot(sites, abs(psi0)**2, color='r', marker='s', alpha=0.2
101
                                     ,label='$|\\psi_{\\mathrm{GS},j}|^2$')
102
       plt.plot(sites, abs(psi)**2, color='b',marker='o',label='$|\\psi_j(t)|^2$')
103
       plt.plot(sites, kappa_trap,'--',color='g',label='$\\mathrm{trap}$')
104
       plt.ylim([-0.01, max(abs(psi0)**2)+0.01])
105
       plt.xlabel('$\\mathrm{lattice\\ sites}$', fontsize=14)
106
       plt.title('\$Jt=\%0.2f,\ E(t)-E_\mathrm{GS}=\%0.4fJ\$'\%(t[i],E-E_GS),fontsize=14)
107
       plt.legend(loc='upper right', fontsize=14)
108
       plt.draw() # draw frame
109
       plt.pause(0.00005) # pause frame
110
       plt.clf() # clear figure
111
112 plt.close()
```

The complete code including the lines that produce Fig. ?? is available in Example Code 6.

2.6 Integrability Breaking and Thermalising Dynamics in the Spin-1 Transverse-Field Ising Model

This example shows how to:

- construct Hamiltonians for Higher spin operators.
- find ground state of a Hamiltonian

• use obs_vs_time function with costume user defined generator to calculate the expectation value of operators as a function of time.

• use the new functionality of the basis class to calculate the entanglement entropy for higher spin.

Physics Setup— In the previous section we introduced the TFI model and showed how one can solve the problem using the Jordan-Wigner transformation. This transformation allows one to get an exact analytic solution to the Hamiltonian (when the system obeys translational invariance). The fact that this solution exists in deeply connected to the notion of Integrability which has implications of how the system responds to a periodic modulation [CITE]. For non-integrable system when periodic driving, energy is no longer conserved and so generically one would expect that the system will heat up to infinite temperature, while in an integrable system, even though energy is not conserved, there are an extensive number of other static conserved quantities which may be conserved under the drive. If this is the case, then the system will not heat up at long times, but instead reach some steady state. By simply taking the transverse field ising model and promoting the spin-1/2 operators to spin-1, there is no longer a simple mapping to a quadratic Hamiltonian and therefore the model is no longer integrable. Here we will show this explicitly by driving the two different systems and checking it they heat or not. To do this we will define two Hamiltonians

$$H_{zz} = -\sum_{i=0}^{L-1} S_i^z S_{i+1}^z, \qquad H_x = -\sum_{i=0}^{L-1} S_i^x$$
(17)

and evolve the ferromagnetic ground state of H_{zz} with the following piecewise periodic Hamiltonian:

$$H(t) = H_{zz} - \Omega \operatorname{sgn}(\cos(\Omega t)) H_x \tag{18}$$

where Ω is the driving frequency and T is the period. As the Hamiltonian obeys translation, parity and spin-inversion symmetries we will use this to speed up the evolution by working in the symmetry sector which contains the ground state.

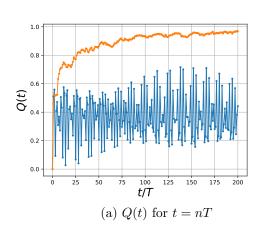
In order to measure the difference in heating between spin-1 and spin-1/2 we measure the expectation value of H_{zz} as a function of time. This operator has a symmetric spectrum and so following ref. [CITE heading papers] we define Q:

$$Q(t) = \left\langle \psi(t) \left| \frac{2(H_{zz} - E_{\min})}{E_{\max} - E_{\min}} \right| \psi(t) \right\rangle = \left\langle \psi(t) \left| \frac{H_{zz} - E_{\min}}{-E_{\min}} \right| \psi(t) \right\rangle$$
(19)

where the last equality comes from the symmetry of the spectrum: $E_{\text{max}} = -E_{\text{min}}$. This quantity is defined such that an infinite temperature state has Q = 1. Another measure of heating we will use is the entanglement entropy density

$$s_{\text{ent}}(t) = -\frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \operatorname{tr}_{\mathbf{A}} \left[\rho_{\mathbf{A}}(t) \log \rho_{\mathbf{A}}(t) \right], \qquad \rho_{\mathbf{A}}(t) = \operatorname{tr}_{\mathbf{A}^{c}} |\psi(t)\rangle \langle \psi(t)|$$
 (20)

of subsystem A, defined to contain the left half of the chain and |A| = L/2. We denoted the reduced density matrix of subsystem A by ρ_A , and A^c is the complement of A. Code Analysis—...



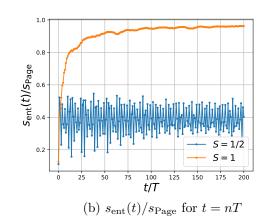


Figure 5: Comparing the dynamics of Q(t) (a) and $s_{\rm ent}(t)$ (b) for S=1 (orange) and S=1/2 (blue) at stroboscopic times (t=nT). For S=1 and S=1/2 we take L=11 and 18 respectively as to make sure the many-body Hilbert spaces have roughly the same number of state. $s_{\rm ent}$ is normalized by the Page entropy per site[CITE Page]. Note that for both systems $\Omega=4$.

```
1 from __future__ import print_function, division
2 import numpy as np
g from quspin.operators import ops_dict,hamiltonian,exp_op
4 from quspin.basis import spin_basis_1d
5 from quspin.tools.measurements import obs_vs_time
6 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
7 import sys, os
8 # user defined generator
9 # generates stroboscopic dynamics
10 def evolve_gen(psi0,nT,*U_list):
       yield psi0
11
       for i in range(nT): # loop over number of periods
12
           for U in U_list: # loop over unitaries
13
               psi0 = U.dot(psi0)
14
15
           yield psi0
16 # frequency and period for driving.
17 \text{ omega} = 2
T = 2*np.pi/omega
19 nT = 200 # number of periods to evolve to.
20 times = np.arange(0,nT+1,1)*T
L_1 = 18 \# length of chain for spin 1/2
22 L_2 = 11 # length of chain for spin 1
23 ##### setting up basis #####
24 basis_1 = spin_basis_1d(L_1,S="1/2",kblock=0,pblock=1,zblock=1) # spin 1/2 basis
25 basis_2 = spin_basis_1d(L_2,S="1" ,kblock=0,pblock=1,zblock=1) # spin 1 basis
26 # print information about the basis
27 print("S = {S:3s}, L = {L:2d}, Size of H-space: {Ns:d}".format(S="1/2",L=L_1,Ns=
      basis_1.Ns))
28 print("S = {S:3s}, L = {L:2d}, Size of H-space: {Ns:d}".format(S="1"
      basis_2.Ns))
29 # setting up coupling lists
30 Jzz_1 = [[-1.0,i,(i+1)%L_1] for i in range(L_1)]
31 \text{ hx}_1 = [[-1.0, i] \text{ for } i \text{ in } range(L_1)]
32 \text{ Jzz}_2 = [[-1.0,i,(i+1)\%L_2] \text{ for } i \text{ in range}(L_2)]
33 hx_2 = [[-1.0,i] \text{ for } i \text{ in range}(L_2)]
34 # dictioanry to turn off checks
no_checks = dict(check_symm=False,check_herm=False)
36 # setting up hamiltonians
37 Hzz_1 = hamiltonian([["zz", Jzz_1]],[],basis=basis_1,dtype=np.float64)
38 Hx_1 = hamiltonian([["+",hx_1],["-",hx_1]],[],basis=basis_1,dtype=np.float64)
39 Hzz_2 = hamiltonian([["zz",Jzz_2]],[],basis=basis_2,dtype=np.float64,**no_checks)
\label{eq:hx2} \textbf{Hx2} = \texttt{hamiltonian}([["+",hx_2],["-",hx_2]],[],\texttt{basis=basis\_2,dtype=np.float64,**})
      no_checks)
41 # calculating bandwidth for non-driven hamiltonian
[E_1_min], psi_1 = Hzz_1.eigsh(k=1, which="SA")
43 [E_2_min], psi_2 = Hzz_2.eigsh(k=1, which="SA")
44 # setting up initial states
45 \text{ psi0}_1 = \text{psi}_1.\text{ravel}()
46 psi0_2 = psi_2.ravel()
47 # creating generators of time evolution
48 U1_1 = \exp_{p}(Hzz_1+omega*Hx_1,a=-1j*T/4)
49 U2_1 = \exp_{p}(Hzz_1-omega*Hx_1,a=-1j*T/2)
50 U1_2 = \exp_{op}(Hzz_2+omega*Hx_2,a=-1j*T/4)
```

```
U2_2 = exp_op(Hzz_2-omega*Hx_2,a=-1j*T/2)

# get generator objects to get time dependent states

psi_1_t = evolve_gen(psi0_1,nT,U1_1,U2_1,U1_1)

psi_2_t = evolve_gen(psi0_2,nT,U1_2,U2_2,U1_2)

# measure energy as a function of time
```

The complete code including the lines that produce Fig. ?? is available in Example Code ??.

2.7 Bose-Fermi Mixtures

This is to show the tensor basis once we get the ladders

3 New Horizons for QuSpin

- 2D lattices
- single-particle Hamiltonian class
- Liouville dynamics

We would much appreciate it if the users could report bugs using the issues forum in the QuSpin online repository.

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A Installation Guide in a Few Steps

QuSpin is currently only being supported for Python 2.7 and Python 3.5 and so one must make sure to install this version of Python. We recommend the use of the free package manager Anaconda which installs Python and manages its packages. For a lighter installation, one can use miniconda.

A.1 Mac OS X/Linux

To install Anaconda/miniconda all one has to do is execute the installation script with administrative privilege. To do this, open up the terminal and go to the folder containing the downloaded installation file and execute the following command:

\$ sudo bash <installation_file>

You will be prompted to enter your password. Follow the prompts of the installation. We recommend that you allow the installer to prepend the installation directory to your PATH variable which will make sure this installation of Python will be called when executing a Python script in the terminal. If this is not done then you will have to do this manually in your bash profile file:

```
$ export PATH="path_to/anaconda/bin:$PATH"
```

<u>Installing via Anaconda.</u>—Once you have Anaconda/miniconda installed, all you have to do to install QuSpin is to execute the following command into the terminal:

```
$ conda install -c weinbe58 quspin
```

If asked to install new packages just say 'yes'. To keep the code up-to-date, just run this command regularly.

<u>Installing Manually.</u>—Installing the package manually is not recommended unless the above method failed. Note that you must have the Python packages NumPy, SciPy, and Joblib installed before installing QuSpin. Once all the prerequisite packages are installed, one can download the source code from github and then extract the code to whichever directory one desires. Open the terminal and go to the top level directory of the source code and execute:

```
$ python setup.py install --record install_file.txt
```

This will compile the source code and copy it to the installation directory of Python recording the installation location to <code>install_file.txt</code>. To update the code, you must first completely remove the current version installed and then install the new code. The <code>install_file.txt</code> can be used to remove the package by running:

```
$ cat install_file.txt | xargs rm -rf.
```

A.2 Windows

To install Anaconda/miniconda on Windows, download the installer and execute it to install the program. Once Anaconda/miniconda is installed open the conda terminal and do one of the following to install the package:

<u>Installing via Anaconda.</u>—Once you have Anaconda/miniconda installed all you have to do to install QuSpin is to execute the following command into the terminal:

```
> conda install -c weinbe58 quspin
```

If asked to install new packages just say 'yes'. To update the code just run this command regularly.

<u>Installing Manually.</u>—Installing the package manually is not recommended unless the above method failed. Note that you must have NumPy, SciPy, and Joblib installed before installing QuSpin. Once all the prerequisite packages are installed, one can download the source code from github and then extract the code to whichever directory one desires. Open the terminal and go to the top level directory of the source code and then execute:

```
> python setup.py install --record install_file.txt
```

This will compile the source code and copy it to the installation directory of Python and record the installation location to **install_file.txt**. To update the code you must first completely remove the current version installed and then install the new code.

B Basic Use of Command Line to Run Python

In this appendix we will review how to use the command line for Windows and OS X/Linux to navigate your computer's folders/directories and run the Python scripts.

B.1 Mac OS X/Linux

Some basic commands:

• change directory:

```
$ cd < path_to_directory >
```

• list files in current directory:

\$ 1s

list files in another directory:

```
$ ls < path_to_directory >
```

• make new directory:

```
$ mkdir <path>/< directory_name >
```

• copy file:

```
$ cp < path >/< file_name > < new_path >/< new_file_name >
```

• move file or change file name:

```
$ mv < path >/< file_name > < new_path >/< new_file_name >
```

• remove file:

```
$ rm < path_to_file >/< file_name >
```

Unix also has an auto complete feature if one hits the TAB key. It will complete a word or stop when it matches more than one file/folder name. The current directory is denoted by "." and the directory above is "..". Now, to execute a Python script all one has to do is open your terminal and navigate to the directory which contains the python script. To execute the script just use the following command:

```
$ python script.py
```

It's that simple!

B.2 Windows

Some basic commands:

• change directory:

```
> cd < path_to_directory >
```

• list files in current directory:

```
> dir
```

list files in another directory:

```
> dir < path_to_directory >
```

• make new directory:

```
> mkdir <path>\< directory_name >
```

• copy file:

```
> copy < path >\< file_name > < new_path >\< new_file_name >
```

• move file or change file name:

```
> move < path >\< file_name > < new_path >\< new_file_name >
```

• remove file:

```
> erase < path >\< file_name >
```

Windows also has a auto complete feature using the TAB key but instead of stopping when there multiple files/folders with the same name, it will complete it with the first file alphabetically. The current directory is denoted by "." and the directory above is "..".

B.3 Execute Python Script (any operating system)

To execute a Python script all one has to do is open up a terminal and navigate to the directory which contains the Python script. Python can be recognised by the extension .py. To execute the script just use the following command:

python script.py

It's that simple!

C Package Documentation

In QuSpin quantum many-body operators are represented as matrices. The computation of these matrices are done through custom code written in Cython. Cython is an optimizing static compiler which takes code written in a syntax similar to Python, and compiles it into a highly efficient C/C++ shared library. These libraries are then easily interfaced with Python, but can run orders of magnitude faster than pure Python code [3]. The matrices are stored in a sparse matrix format using the sparse matrix library of SciPy [4]. This allows QuSpin to easily interface with mature Python packages, such as NumPy, SciPy, any many others. These packages provide reliable state-of-the-art tools for scientific computation as well as support from the Python community to regularly improve and update them [5, 6, 7, 4]. Moreover, we have included specific functionality in QuSpin which uses NumPy and SciPy to do many desired calculations common to ED studies, while making sure the user only has to call a few NumPy or SciPy functions directly. The complete up-to-date documentation for the package is available online under:

https://github.com/weinbe58/QuSpin/#quspin

D Complete Example Codes

In this appendix, we give the complete python scripts for the dix examples discussed in Sec. 2. In case the reader has trouble with the TAB spaces when copying from the code environments below, the scripts can be downloaded from github at:

```
https://github.com/weinbe58/QuSpin/tree/master/examples
```

QuSpin Example Code 2: The Spectrum of the Transverse Field Ising Model and the Jordan-Wigner Transformation

```
1 from quspin.operators import hamiltonian # Hamiltonians and operators
2 from quspin.basis import spin_basis_1d, fermion_basis_1d # Hilbert space spin basis
3 import numpy as np # generic math functions
4 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # figure/plot library
6 ##### define model parameters #####
7 L=8 # system size
8 J=1.0 # spin zz interaction
9 h=np.sqrt(2) # z magnetic field strength
10 #
11 # loop over spin inversion symmetry block variable and boundary conditions
  for zblock,PBC in zip([-1,1],[1,-1]):
13
      ##### define spin model
14
      # site-coupling lists (PBC for both spin inversion sectors)
15
      h_field=[[-h,i] for i in range(L)]
16
      J_zz=[[-J,i,(i+1)%L]] for i in range(L)] # PBC
17
      # define spin static and dynamic lists
18
      static_spin =[["zz",J_zz],["x",h_field]] # static part of H
19
      dynamic_spin=[] # time-dependent part of H
20
      # construct spin basis in pos/neg spin inversion sector depending on APBC/PBC
21
22
      basis_spin = spin_basis_1d(L=L,zblock=zblock)
      # build spin Hamiltonians
23
      H_spin=hamiltonian(static_spin,dynamic_spin,basis=basis_spin,dtype=np.float64)
24
      # calculate spin energy levels
25
      E_spin=H_spin.eigvalsh()
26
27
      ##### define fermion model
28
      # define site-coupling lists for external field
29
      h_{pot}=[[2.0*h,i] \text{ for } i \text{ in } range(L)]
30
      if PBC==1: # periodic BC: odd particle number subspace only
31
          # define site-coupling lists (including boudary couplings)
32
          J_pm=[[-J,i,(i+1)%L]] for i in range(L)] # PBC
33
          J_mp=[[+J,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC
34
          J_pp=[[-J,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC
35
          J_mm=[[+J,i,(i+1)%L]] for i in range(L)] # PBC
36
          # construct fermion basis in the odd particle number subsector
37
          basis_fermion = fermion_basis_1d(L=L,Nf=range(1,L+1,2))
38
      elif PBC==-1: # anti-periodic BC: even particle number subspace only
39
          # define bulk site coupling lists
40
          J_pm=[[-J,i,i+1] \text{ for } i \text{ in } range(L-1)]
41
          J_mp=[[+J,i,i+1]] for i in range(L-1)]
42
```

```
J_pp=[[-J,i,i+1] for i in range(L-1)]
43
          J_mm=[[+J,i,i+1]] for i in range(L-1)]
44
          # add boundary coupling between sites (L-1,0)
45
          J_pm.append([+J,L-1,0]) # APBC
46
          J_mp.append([-J,L-1,0]) # APBC
47
          J_pp.append([+J,L-1,0]) # APBC
48
          J_mm.append([-J,L-1,0]) # APBC
49
          # construct fermion basis in the even particle number subsector
50
          basis_fermion = fermion_basis_1d(L=L,Nf=range(0,L+1,2))
51
      # define fermionic static and dynamic lists
52
      static_fermion =[["+-",J_pm],["-+",J_mp],["++",J_pp],["--",J_mm],['z',h_pot]]
53
      dynamic_fermion=[]
54
      # build fermionic Hamiltonian
55
      H_fermion=hamiltonian(static_fermion,dynamic_fermion,basis=basis_fermion,
56
                                dtype=np.float64,check_pcon=False,check_symm=False)
57
      # calculate fermionic energy levels
58
      E_fermion=H_fermion.eigvalsh()
59
60
      ##### plot spectra
61
      plt.plot(np.arange(H_fermion.Ns),E_fermion/L,marker='o'
62
                                        ,color='b',label='fermion')
63
      plt.plot(np.arange(H_spin.Ns),E_spin/L,marker='x'
64
                                        , color='r', markersize=2, label='spin')
65
      plt.xlabel('state number', fontsize=16)
66
      plt.ylabel('energy', fontsize=16)
67
      plt.xticks(fontsize=16)
68
      plt.yticks(fontsize=16)
69
      plt.legend(fontsize=16)
70
      plt.grid()
71
      plt.tight_layout()
72
73
      plt.show()
```

QuSpin Example Code 3: Free Particle Systems: the Fermionic SSH Chain

```
1 from quspin.operators import hamiltonian,exp_op # Hamiltonians and operators
2 from quspin.basis import fermion_basis_1d # Hilbert space fermion basis
3 from quspin.tools.block_tools import block_diag_hamiltonian # block diagonalisation
4 import numpy as np # generic math functions
5 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # plotting library
6 try: # import python 3 zip function in python 2 and pass if already using python 3
      import itertools.izip as zip
  except ImportError:
      pass
10 ##### define model parameters #####
11 L=100 # system size
12 J=1.0 # uniform hopping contribution
13 deltaJ=0.1 # bond dimerisation
14 Delta=0.5 # staggered potential
15 beta=100.0 # set inverse temperature for Fermi-Dirac distribution
16 ##### construct single-particle Hamiltonian #####
17 # define site-coupling lists
18 hop_pm=[[-J-deltaJ*(-1)**i,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC
19 hop_mp=[[+J+deltaJ*(-1)**i,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L)] # PBC
20 stagg_pot=[[Delta*(-1)**i,i] for i in range(L)]
21 # define static and dynamic lists
22 static=[["+-",hop_pm],["-+",hop_mp],['n',stagg_pot]]
23 dynamic=[]
24 # define basis
25 basis=fermion_basis_1d(L,Nf=1)
26 # build real-space Hamiltonian
27 H=hamiltonian(static,dynamic,basis=basis,dtype=np.float64)
28 # diagonalise real-space Hamiltonian
29 E, V=H.eigh()
30 ##### compute Fourier transform and momentum-space Hamiltonian #####
31 # define basis blocks and arguments
32 blocks=[dict(Nf=1,kblock=i,a=2) for i in range(L//2)] # only L//2 distinct momenta
33 \text{ basis\_args} = (L,)
34 # construct block-diagonal Hamiltonian
35 FT, Hblock = block_diag_hamiltonian(blocks, static, dynamic, fermion_basis_1d,
                           basis_args,np.complex128,get_proj_kwargs=dict(pcon=True))
37 # diagonalise momentum-space Hamiltonian
38 Eblock, Vblock=Hblock.eigh()
39 ##### prepare the density observables and initial states #####
40 # grab single-particle states and treat them as initial states
41 psi0=Vblock
42 # construct operator n_1 = n_{j=0}
43 n_1_static=[['n',[[1.0,0]]]]
44 n_1=hamiltonian(n_1_static,[],basis=basis,dtype=np.float64,
                   check_herm=False,check_pcon=False)
_{46} # construct operator n_2 = n_{j=L/2}
47 n_2_static=[['n',[[1.0,L//2]]]]
48 n_2=hamiltonian(n_2_static,[],basis=basis,dtype=np.float64,
                   check_herm=False,check_pcon=False)
50 # transform n_j operators to momentum space
51 n_1=n_1.rotate_by(FT,generator=False)
```

```
52 n_2=n_2.rotate_by(FT,generator=False)
53 #### evaluate nonequal time correlator \langle FS|n_2(t) n_1(0)|FS\rangle ####
54 # define time vector
55 t=np.linspace(0.0,90.0,901)
56 # calcualte state acted on by n_1
57 n_psi0=n_1.dot(psi0)
58 # construct time-evolution operator using exp_op class (sometimes faster)
59 U = exp_op(Hblock,a=-1j,start=t.min(),stop=t.max(),num=len(t),iterate=True)
60 # evolve states
61 psi_t=U.dot(psi0)
62 n_psi_t = U.dot(n_psi0)
63 # alternative method for time evolution using Hamiltonian class
#psi_t=Hblock.evolve(psi0,0.0,t,iterate=True)
65 #n_psi_t=Hblock.evolve(n_psi0,0.0,t,iterate=True)
66 # preallocate variable
67 correlators=np.zeros(t.shape+psi0.shape[1:])
68 # loop over the time-evolved states
69 for i, (psi,n_psi) in enumerate( zip(psi_t,n_psi_t) ):
      correlators[i,:]=n_2.matrix_ele(psi,n_psi,diagonal=True).real
70
71 # evaluate correlator at finite temperature
n_{FD}=1.0/(np.exp(beta*E)+1.0)
73 correlator = (n_FD*correlators).sum(axis=-1)
74 #### plot spectra
75 plt.plot(np.arange(H.Ns),E/L,
                       marker='o',color='b',label='real space')
77 plt.plot(np.arange(Hblock.Ns),Eblock/L,
                       marker='x',color='r',markersize=2,label='momentum space')
79 plt.xlabel('state number', fontsize=16)
80 plt.ylabel('energy', fontsize=16)
81 plt.xticks(fontsize=16)
82 plt.yticks(fontsize=16)
83 plt.legend(fontsize=16)
84 plt.grid()
85 plt.tight_layout()
86 plt.show()
87 ##### plot correlator
88 plt.plot(t,correlator,linewidth=2)
89 plt.xlabel('$t$',fontsize=16)
90 plt.ylabel('$C_{0,L/2}(t,\\beta)$',fontsize=16)
91 plt.xticks(fontsize=16)
92 plt.yticks(fontsize=16)
93 plt.grid()
94 plt.tight_layout()
95 plt.show()
```

QuSpin Example Code 4: Many-Body Localisation in the Fermi-Hubbard Model

```
1 from __future__ import print_function, division
2 from quspin.operators import hamiltonian,exp_op,ops_dict # operators
3 from quspin.basis import tensor_basis, fermion_basis_1d # Hilbert spaces
4 from quspin.tools.measurements import obs_vs_time # calculating dynamics
5 import numpy as np # general math functions
6 from numpy.random import uniform, choice # tools for doing random sampling
7 from time import time # tool for calculating computation time
8 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # plotting
10 ##### setting parameters for simulation
# simulation parameters
n_real = 100 # number of realizations
13 n_boot = 100 # number of bootstrap samples to calculate error
14 # physical parameters
_{15} L = 8 # system size
16 N = L//2 \# number of particles
_{17} N_up = N//2 + N % 2 # number of fermions with spin up
18 N_{down} = N//2 \# number of fermions with spin down
19 w_{list} = [1.0, 4.0, 10.0] # disorder strength
20 J = 1.0 # hopping strength
21 U = 5.0 # interaction strength
22 # range in time to evolve system
23 start, stop, num=0.0, 35.0, 101
t = np.linspace(start,stop,num=num,endpoint=True)
25 #
26 ###### create the basis
27 # build the two bases to tensor together to spinful fermions
28 basis_up = fermion_basis_1d(L,Nf=N_up) # up basis
29 basis_down = fermion_basis_1d(L,Nf=N_down) # down basis
30 basis = tensor_basis(basis_up,basis_down) # spinful fermions
31 #
32 ##### create model
33 # define site-coupling lists
34 hop_right = [[-J,i,i+1] for i in range(L-1)] # hopping to the right OBC
35 hop_left = [[J,i,i+1] for i in range(L-1)] # hopping to the left OBC
36 int_list = [[U,i,i] for i in range(L)] # onsite interaction
37 # site-coupling list to create the sublattice imbalance observable
sublat_list = [[(-1.0)**i/N,i] for i in range(0,L)]
39 # create static lists
40 operator_list_0 = [
               ["+-|", hop_left], # up hop left
41
               ["-+|", hop_right], # up hop right
42
               ["|+-", hop_left], # down hop left
43
               ["|-+", hop_right], # down hop right
44
              ["n|n", int_list], # onsite interaction
45
46
47 imbalance_list = [["n|",sublat_list],["|n",sublat_list]]
48 # create operator dictionary for ops_dict class
49 # add key for Hubbard hamiltonian
50 operator_dict=dict(H0=operator_list_0)
51 # add keys for local potential in each site
```

```
52 for i in range(L):
       # add to dictioanry keys h0,h1,h2,...,hL with local potential operator
       operator_dict["n"+str(i)] = [["n|",[[1.0,i]]],["|n",[[1.0,i]]]]
54
55 #
56 ##### setting up operators
57 # set up hamiltonian dictionary and observable (imbalance I)
58 no_checks = dict(check_pcon=False,check_symm=False,check_herm=False)
59 H_dict = ops_dict(operator_dict,basis=basis,**no_checks)
60 I = hamiltonian(imbalance_list,[],basis=basis,**no_checks)
61 # strings which represent the initial state
62 s_up = "".join("1000" for i in range(N_up))
s_down = "".join("0010" for i in range(N_down))
64 # basis.index accepts strings and returns the index
65 # which corresponds to that state in the basis list
66 i_0 = basis.index(s_up,s_down) # find index of product state
67 psi_0 = np.zeros(basis.Ns) # allocate space for state
68 psi_0[i_0] = 1.0 # set MB state to be the given product state
69 print("H-space size: {:d}, initial state: |{:s}>(x)|{:s}>".format(basis.Ns,s_up,
       s_down))
70 #
71 # define function to do dynamics for different disorder realizations.
  def real(H_dict,I,psi_0,w,t,i):
       # body of function goes below
73
       ti = time() # start timing function for duration of reach realisation
74
       # create a parameter list which specifies the onsite potential with disorder
75
       params_dict=dict(H0=1)
76
       for j in range(L):
77
           params_dict["n"+str(j)] = uniform(-w,w)
78
       # using the parameters dictionary construct a hamiltonian object with those
79
       # parameters defined in the list
       H = H_dict.tohamiltonian(params_dict)
81
       # use exp_op to get the evolution operator
       U = exp_op(H,a=-1j,start=t.<mark>min</mark>(),stop=t.<mark>max(</mark>),num=<mark>len</mark>(t),iterate=True)
83
       psi_t = U.dot(psi_0) # get generator psi_t for time evolved state
84
       # use obs_vs_time to evaluate the dynamics
85
86
       t = U.grid # extract time grid stored in U, and defined in exp_op
       obs_t = obs_vs_time(psi_t,t,dict(I=I))
87
       # print reporting the computation time for realization
88
       print("realization {}/{} completed in {:.2f} s".format(i+1,n_real,time()-ti))
89
       # return observable values
90
       return obs_t["I"]
91
92 #
93 ##### looping over differnt disorder strengths
  for w in w_list:
94
       I_data = np.vstack([real(H_dict,I,psi_0,w,t,i) for i in range(n_real)])
95
       ##### averaging and error estimation
96
       I_avg = I_data.mean(axis=0) # get mean value of I for all time points
       # generate bootstrap samples
98
       bootstrap_gen = (I_data[choice(n_real,size=n_real)].mean(axis=0) for i in range(
       n_boot))
       # generate the fluctuations about the mean of I
100
       sq_fluc_gen = ((bootstrap-I_avg)**2 for bootstrap in bootstrap_gen)
101
       I_error = np.sqrt(sum(sq_fluc_gen)/n_boot)
102
```

```
##### plotting results
plt.errorbar(t,I_avg,I_error,marker=".",label="w={:.2f}".format(w))

# configuring plots
plt.xlabel("$t/J$",fontsize=18)

plt.ylabel("$\mathcal{I}$",fontsize=18)

plt.grid(True)

plt.tick_params(labelsize=16)

plt.legend(loc=0)

plt.tight_layout()

plt.savefig('fermion_MBL.pdf', bbox_inches='tight')

plt.show()
```

QuSpin Example Code 5: The Bose-Hubbard Model on Translationally Invariant Ladder

```
1 from __future__ import print_function, division #import python 3 functions
<sup>2</sup> from quspin.operators import hamiltonian # Hamiltonians and operators
3 from quspin.basis import boson_basis_1d # bosonic Hilbert space
4 from quspin.tools.block_tools import block_ops # dynamics in symmetry blocks
5 import numpy as np # general math functions
6 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # plotting
7 import matplotlib.animation as animation # animating movie of dynamics
9 ##### define model parameters
10 # initial see for random number generator
11 np.random.seed(0) # seed is 0 to produce plots from QuSpin2 paper
12 # setting up parameters of simulation
_{13} L = 6 # length of chain
14 N = 2*L \# number of sites
nb = 0.5 # density of bosons
sps = 3 # number of states per site
17 J_par_1 = 1.0 # top side of ladder hopping
18 J_par_2 = 1.0 # bottom side of ladder hopping
19 J_perp = 0.5 # rung hopping
20 U = 20.0 # Hubbard interaction
22 ##### set up Hamiltonian and observables
23 # define site-coupling lists
24 int_list_1 = [[-0.5*U,i] for i in range(N)] # interaction -U/2 \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} n_i
int_list_2 = [[0.5*U,i,i]] for i in range(N)] # interaction: U/2 \neq i
26 # setting up hopping lists
27 hop_list = [[-J_par_1,i,(i+2)\%N]] for i in range(0,N,2)] # PBC bottom leg
28 hop_list.extend([[-J_par_2,i,(i+2)%N] for i in range(1,N,2)]) # PBC top leg
29 hop_list.extend([[-J_perp,i,i+1] for i in range(0,N,2)]) # perp/rung hopping
30 hop_list_hc = [[J.conjugate(),i,j] for J,i,j in hop_list] # add h.c. terms
31 # set up static and dynamic lists
32 static = [
               ["+-",hop_list], # hopping
33
               ["-+",hop_list_hc], # hopping h.c.
34
               ["nn",int_list_2], # U n_i^2
35
               ["n",int_list_1] # -U n_i
36
          1
38 dynamic = [] # no dynamic operators
39 # create block_ops object
40 blocks=[dict(kblock=kblock) for kblock in range(L)] # blocks to project on to
41 baisis_args = (N,) # boson_basis_1d manditory arguments
42 basis_kwargs = dict(nb=nb,sps=sps,a=2) # boson_basis_1d optional args
43 get_proj_kwargs = dict(pcon=True) # set projection to full particle basis
44 H_block = block_ops(blocks,static,dynamic,boson_basis_1d,baisis_args,np.complex128,
                       basis_kwargs=basis_kwargs,get_proj_kwargs=get_proj_kwargs)
46 # setting up basis for local fock basis
47 basis = boson_basis_1d(N,nb=nb,sps=sps)
48 # setting up observables
49 no_checks = dict(check_herm=False,check_symm=False,check_pcon=False)
50 n_list = [hamiltonian([["n",[[1.0,i]]]],[],basis=basis,dtype=np.float64,**no_checks)
       for i in range(N)]
```

```
51 ##### do time evolution
52 # set up initial state
53 i0 = np.random.randint(basis.Ns) # pick random state from basis set
psi = np.zeros(basis.Ns,dtype=np.float64)
psi[i0] = 1.0
56 # print info about setup
57 state_str = "".join(str(int((basis[i0]//basis.sps**i)%basis.sps)) for i in range(N))
58 print("total H-space size: {}, initial state: |{}>".format(basis.Ns,state_str))
59 # setting up parameters for evolution
start, stop, num = 0,30,301 # 0.1 equally spaced points
61 times = np.linspace(start,stop,num)
62 # calculating the evolved states
63 n_jobs = 1 # paralelisation: increase to see if calculation runs faster!
64 psi_t = H_block.expm(psi,a=-1j,start=start,stop=stop,num=num,block_diag=False,n_jobs
      =n_jobs)
65 # calculating the local densities as a function of time
66 expt_n_t = np.vstack([n.expt_value(psi_t).real for n in n_list]).T
67 # reshape data for plotting
n_t = np.zeros((num, 2, L))
n_t[:,0,:] = expt_n_t[:,0::2]
70 n_t[:,1,:] = expt_n_t[:,1::2]
71 # calculating entanglement entropy
r2 sub_sys_A = range(0,N,2) # bottom side of ladder
73 gen = (basis.ent_entropy(psi,sub_sys_A=sub_sys_A)["Sent_A"]/L for psi in psi_t.T[:])
r4 ent_t = np.fromiter(gen,dtype=np.float64,count=num)
75 # plotting static figures
76
fig, ax = plt.subplots(nrows=5,ncols=1)
78 im=[]
79 im_ind = []
  for i,t in enumerate(np.logspace(-1,np.log10(stop-1),5,base=10)):
       j = times.searchsorted(t)
       im_ind.append(j)
82
       im.append(ax[i].imshow(n_t[j],cmap="hot",vmax=n_t.max(),vmin=0))
       ax[i].tick_params(labelbottom=False,labelleft=False)
84
s_5 cax = fig.add_axes([0.85, 0.1, 0.03, 0.8])
86 fig.colorbar(im[2],cax)
87 plt.savefig("boson_density.pdf")
88 plt.figure()
89 plt.plot(times,ent_t,lw=2)
90 plt.plot(times[im_ind],ent_t[im_ind],marker="0",linestyle="",color="red")
91 plt.xlabel("$t/J$",fontsize=20)
92 plt.ylabel("$s_\mathrm{ent}(t)$", fontsize=20)
93 plt.grid()
94 plt.savefig("boson_entropy.pdf")
95 plt.show()
97 # setting up two plots to animate side by side
98 fig, (ax1,ax2) = plt.subplots(1,2)
99 fig.set_size_inches(10, 5)
ax1.set_xlabel(r"$t/J$", fontsize=18)
ax1.set_ylabel(r"$s_\mathrm{ent}$", fontsize=18)
102 ax1.grid()
```

```
103 line1, = ax1.plot(times, ent_t, lw=2)
104 line1.set_data([],[])
im = ax2.matshow(n_t[0],cmap="hot")
106 fig.colorbar(im)
   def run(i): # function to update frame
107
       # set new data for plots
108
       line1.set_data(times[:i],ent_t[:i])
109
       im.set_data(n_t[i])
110
       return im, line1
111
ani = animation.FuncAnimation(fig, run, range(num),interval=50)
113 plt.show()
114 #
115
116 #schematic of how the ladder lattice is set up coupling parameters:
117 # -: J_par_1
118 # ^: J_par_2
119 # |: J_perp
120
   ^ 1 ^ 3 ^ 5 ^ 7 ^ 9 ^
121
     122
123
   - 0 - 2 - 4 - 6 - 8 -
124 #
125 # translations (i -> i+2):
126 #
   ^ 9 ^ 1 ^ 3 ^ 5 ^ 7 ^
127
     128
    - 8 - 0 - 2 - 4 - 6 -
129
130 #
131 # if J_par_1=J_par_2, one can use regular chain parity (i -> N - i):
132
   - 8 - 6 - 4 - 2 - 0 -
133
134
    - 9 - 7 - 5 - 3 - 1 -
135
137 # combination of two ladder parity operators!
```

QuSpin Example Code 6: The Gross-Pitaevskii Equation and Nonlinear Time Evolution

```
1 from quspin.operators import hamiltonian # Hamiltonians and operators
2 from quspin.basis import boson_basis_1d # Hilbert space boson basis
3 from quspin.tools.measurements import evolve # nonlinear evolution
4 import numpy as np # generic math functions
5 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # plot library
7 ##### define model parameters #####
8 L=300 # system size
9 # calculate centre of chain
10 if L%2==0:
      j0 = L//2-0.5 # centre of chain
11
12 else:
      j0 = L//2 # centre of chain
14 sites=np.arange(L)-j0
15 # static parameters
16 J=1.0 # hopping
17 U=1.0 # Bose-Hubbard interaction strength
18 # dynamic parameters
19 kappa_trap_i=0.001 # initial chemical potential
20 kappa_trap_f=0.0001 # final chemical potential
21 t_ramp=40.0/J # set total ramp time
22 # ramp protocol
23 def ramp(t,kappa_trap_i,kappa_trap_f,t_ramp):
      return (kappa_trap_f - kappa_trap_i)*t/t_ramp + kappa_trap_i
25 # ramp protocol parameters
26 ramp_args=[kappa_trap_i,kappa_trap_f,t_ramp]
27 #
28 ##### construct single-particle Hamiltonian #####
29 # define site-coupling lists
30 hopping=[[-J,i,(i+1)%L] for i in range(L-1)]
31 trap=[[0.5*(i-j0)**2,i] for i in range(L)]
32 # define static and dynamic lists
static=[["+-",hopping],["-+",hopping]]
34 dynamic=[['n',trap,ramp,ramp_args]]
35 # define basis
36 basis = boson_basis_1d(L,Nb=1,sps=2)
37 # build Hamiltonian
38 Hsp=hamiltonian(static,dynamic,basis=basis,dtype=np.float64)
39 E,V=Hsp.eigsh(time=0.0,k=1,which='SA')
40 #
41 #### imaginary-time evolution to compute GS of GPE ####
42 def GPE_imag_time(tau,phi,Hsp,U):
43
      This function solves the real-valued GPE in imaginary time:
44
      $$ -\dot\phi(\tau) = Hsp(t=0)\phi(\tau) + U |\phi(\tau)|^2 \phi(\tau) $$
45
46
      return -( Hsp.dot(phi,time=0) + U*np.abs(phi)**2*phi )
47
48 # define ODE parameters
49 GPE_params = (Hsp,U)
50 # define initial state to flow to GS from
51 phi0=V[:,0]*np.sqrt(L) # initial state normalised to 1 particle per site
```

```
52 # define imaginary time vector
 tau=np.linspace(0.0,35.0,71)
 54 # evolve state in imaginary time
 psi_tau = evolve(phi0,tau[0],tau,GPE_imag_time,f_params=GPE_params,
                                                                                                imag_time=True,real=True,iterate=True)
 56
 57 #
        # display state evolution
        for i,psi0 in enumerate(psi_tau):
 59
                     # compute energy
 60
                     E_GS=(Hsp.matrix_ele(psi0,psi0,time=0) + 0.5*U*np.sum(np.abs(psi0)**4)).real
 61
                     # plot wave function
  62
                     plt.plot(sites, abs(phi0)**2, color='r', marker='s', alpha=0.2,
 63
 64
                                                                                                                                      label='$|\\phi_j(0)|^2$')
                     plt.plot(sites, abs(psi0)**2, color='b',marker='o',
 65
                                                                                                             label='$|\\phi_j(\\tau)|^2$' )
  66
                     plt.xlabel('$\\mathrm{lattice\\ sites}$', fontsize=14)
 67
                     plt.title('$J\\tau=%0.2f,\\ E_\\mathrm{GS}(\\tau)=%0.4fJ$'%(tau[i],E_GS)
 68
                                                                                                                                                                                                                  , fontsize=14)
 69
                     plt.ylim([-0.01, max(abs(phi0)**2)+0.01])
 70
                     plt.legend(fontsize=14)
 71
                     plt.draw() # draw frame
 72
                     plt.pause(0.005) # pause frame
 73
                     plt.clf() # clear figure
 74
 75 plt.close()
 76
        ##### real-time evolution of GPE #####
        def GPE(time,psi):
 78
 79
                     This function solves the complex-valued time-dependent GPE:
 80
                     \int \int \int \int dt \cdot \int
 81
 82
                     # solve static part of GPE
  83
                     psi_dot = Hsp.static.dot(psi) + U*np.abs(psi)**2*psi
 84
                     # solve dynamic part of GPE
 85
                     for Hd,f,f_args in Hsp.dynamic:
 86
 87
                                  psi_dot += f(time,*f_args)*Hd.dot(psi)
                     return -1j*psi_dot
 88
 89 # define real time vector
 90 t=np.linspace(0.0,t_ramp,101)
 91 # time-evolve state according to GPE
 92 psi_t = evolve(psi0,t[0],t,GPE,iterate=True,atol=1E-12,rtol=1E-12)
 93 #
 94 # display state evolution
 95 for i,psi in enumerate(psi_t):
                     # compute energy
                     E=(Hsp.matrix_ele(psi,psi,time=t[i]) + 0.5*U*np.sum(np.abs(psi)**4) ).real
 97
                     # compute trap
                     kappa_trap=ramp(t[i],kappa_trap_i,kappa_trap_f,t_ramp)*(sites)**2
 99
                     # plot wave function
100
                     plt.plot(sites, abs(psi0)**2, color='r', marker='s', alpha=0.2
101
                                                                                                             ,label='$|\\psi_{\\mathrm{GS},j}|^2$')
102
                     plt.plot(sites, abs(psi)**2, color='b',marker='o',label='$|\\psi_j(t)|^2$')
103
                     plt.plot(sites, kappa_trap,'--',color='g',label='$\\mathrm{trap}$')
104
```

```
plt.ylim([-0.01,max(abs(psi0)**2)+0.01])
plt.xlabel('$\\mathrm{lattice\\ sites}$',fontsize=14)
plt.title('$]t=%0.2f,\\ E(t)-E_\\mathrm{GS}=%0.4f]$'%(t[i],E-E_GS),fontsize=14)
plt.legend(loc='upper right',fontsize=14)
plt.draw() # draw frame
plt.pause(0.00005) # pause frame
plt.clf() # clear figure
plt.close()
```

QuSpin Example Code 7: Integrability Breaking and Thermalising Dynamics in the Spin-1 Transverse-Field Ising Model

```
1 from __future__ import print_function, division
2 import numpy as np
g from quspin.operators import ops_dict,hamiltonian,exp_op
4 from quspin.basis import spin_basis_1d
5 from quspin.tools.measurements import obs_vs_time
6 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
7 import sys, os
8 # user defined generator
9 # generates stroboscopic dynamics
  def evolve_gen(psi0,nT,*U_list):
      yield psi0
11
12
       for i in range(nT): # loop over number of periods
           for U in U_list: # loop over unitaries
13
               psi0 = U.dot(psi0)
14
           yield psi0
15
16 # frequency and period for driving.
17 \text{ omega} = 2
T = 2*np.pi/omega
19 nT = 200 # number of periods to evolve to.
20 times = np.arange(0,nT+1,1)*T
_{21} L_1 = 18 # length of chain for spin 1/2
22 L_2 = 11 # length of chain for spin 1
23 ##### setting up basis #####
24 basis_1 = spin_basis_1d(L_1,S="1/2",kblock=0,pblock=1,zblock=1) # spin 1/2 basis
25 basis_2 = spin_basis_1d(L_2,S="1" ,kblock=0,pblock=1,zblock=1) # spin 1 basis
26 # print information about the basis
27 print("S = {S:3s}, L = {L:2d}, Size of H-space: {Ns:d}".format(S="1/2",L=L_1,Ns=
      basis_1.Ns))
28 print("S = {S:3s}, L = {L:2d}, Size of H-space: {Ns:d}".format(S="1" ,L=L_2,Ns=
      basis_2.Ns))
29 # setting up coupling lists
30 Jzz_1 = [[-1.0,i,(i+1)\%L_1]] for i in range(L_1)]
31 \text{ hx}_1 = [[-1.0,i] \text{ for } i \text{ in range}(L_1)]
Jzz_2 = [[-1.0,i,(i+1)\%L_2] \text{ for } i \text{ in range}(L_2)]
33 hx_2 = [[-1.0,i] \text{ for } i \text{ in } range(L_2)]
34 # dictioanry to turn off checks
no_checks = dict(check_symm=False,check_herm=False)
36 # setting up hamiltonians
37 Hzz_1 = hamiltonian([["zz",Jzz_1]],[],basis=basis_1,dtype=np.float64)
38 Hx_1 = hamiltonian([["+",hx_1],["-",hx_1]],[],basis=basis_1,dtype=np.float64)
39 Hzz_2 = hamiltonian([["zz",Jzz_2]],[],basis=basis_2,dtype=np.float64,**no_checks)
40 Hx_2 = hamiltonian([["+",hx_2],["-",hx_2]],[],basis=basis_2,dtype=np.float64,**
      no_checks)
41 # calculating bandwidth for non-driven hamiltonian
[E_1_min], psi_1 = Hzz_1.eigsh(k=1, which="SA")
43 [E_2_min], psi_2 = Hzz_2.eigsh(k=1,which="SA")
44 # setting up initial states
45 psi0_1 = psi_1.ravel()
46 \text{ psi0}_2 = \text{psi}_2.\text{ravel}()
```

47 # creating generators of time evolution

```
48 U1_1 = \exp_{p}(Hzz_1+omega*Hx_1,a=-1j*T/4)
49 U2_1 = \exp_{op}(Hzz_1-omega*Hx_1,a=-1j*T/2)
50 U1_2 = \exp_{p}(Hzz_2+omega*Hx_2,a=-1j*T/4)
U2_2 = \exp_{p}(Hzz_2-omega*Hx_2,a=-1j*T/2)
52 # get generator objects to get time dependent states
53 psi_1_t = evolve_gen(psi0_1,nT,U1_1,U2_1,U1_1)
54 psi_2_t = evolve_gen(psi0_2,nT,U1_2,U2_2,U1_2)
55 # measure energy as a function of time
56 Obs_1_t = obs_vs_time(psi_1_t,times,dict(E=Hzz_1),return_state=True)
57 Obs_2_t = obs_vs_time(psi_2_t,times, dict(E=Hzz_2),return_state=True)
58 # calculate page entropy density
s_p_1 = np.log(2)-2.0**(-L_1//2-L_1)/(2*(L_1//2))
s_p_2 = np.log(3)-3.0**(-L_2//2-L_2)/(2*(L_2//2))
61 # calculating the entanglement entropy density
62 Sent_time_1 = basis_1.ent_entropy(0bs_1_t["psi_t"],sub_sys_A=range(L_1//2))["Sent_A"
      ]/(L_1//2)
63 Sent_time_2 = basis_2.ent_entropy(0bs_2_t["psi_t"],sub_sys_A=range(L_2//2))["Sent_A"
      ]/(L_2//2)
64 #plotting results
65 plt.plot(times/T,(Obs_1_t["E"]-E_1_min)/(-E_1_min),marker='.',markersize=5,label="$S
66 plt.plot(times/T,(Obs_2_t["E"]-E_2_min)/(-E_2_min),marker='.',markersize=5,label="$S
      =1$")
67 plt.grid()
68 plt.ylabel("$Q(t)$",fontsize=20)
69 plt.xlabel("$t/T$", fontsize=20)
70 plt.savefig("TFIM_Q.pdf")
71 plt.figure()
72 plt.plot(times/T, Sent_time_1/s_p_1, marker='.', markersize=5, label="$S=1/2$")
plt.plot(times/T,Sent_time_2/s_p_2,marker='.',markersize=5,label="$S=1$")
74 plt.grid()
75 plt.ylabel("$s_{\mathrm{ent}}(t)/s_\mathrm{Page}$", fontsize=20)
76 plt.xlabel("$t/T$", fontsize=20)
77 plt.legend(loc=0, fontsize=16)
78 plt.savefig("TFIM_S.pdf")
79 plt.show()
```

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