

1 Krylov subspace

The order- n Krylov subspace is defined as

$$\mathcal{K}_n(H, |v_0\rangle) = \text{span} \{ |v_0\rangle, H |v_0\rangle, H^2 |v_0\rangle, \dots, H^{n-1} |v_0\rangle \} \quad (1)$$

By approximating H in this subspace, we can calculate eigenvalues and eigenvectors using Lanczos iteration. We can also calculate spectral functions and Green's functions using the kernel polynomial method.

2 Power method

Let $|v_0\rangle$ be an arbitrary vector. We define the recurrence relation

$$|\tilde{v}_n\rangle = H |v_n\rangle \quad (2)$$

$$|v_{n+1}\rangle = \frac{|\tilde{v}_n\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \tilde{v}_n | \tilde{v}_n \rangle}} \quad (3)$$

i.e., we multiply by H and normalize. If $|v_n\rangle$ converges to a vector $|v_\infty\rangle$, then we get

$$|v_\infty\rangle \propto H |v_\infty\rangle \quad (4)$$

Therefore, $|v_\infty\rangle$ is an eigenvector of H . This method usually converges on an eigenvector associated with the dominant (largest magnitude) eigenvalue since any non-zero component of the dominant eigenvector will get larger after each iteration.

3 Lanczos algorithm

Combining the power method with Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization, we can approximate H on the Krylov subspace \mathcal{K}_{N+1} after N iterations. These notes are based on The Lanczos Method - Erik Koch.

Assume H is Hermitian. Let $|v_0\rangle$ be an arbitrary normalized vector, $\langle v_0 | v_0 \rangle = 1$. We multiply $|v_0\rangle$ by H and orthogonalize the new vector $H |v_0\rangle$ to $|v_0\rangle$.

$$|\tilde{v}_1\rangle = H |v_0\rangle - |v_0\rangle \langle v_0 | H |v_0\rangle \quad (5)$$

Define

$$a_n = \langle v_n | H |v_n\rangle \quad (6)$$

$$b_n^2 = \langle \tilde{v}_n | \tilde{v}_n \rangle \quad (7)$$

Eq. (5) becomes

$$b_1 |v_1\rangle = H |v_0\rangle - a_0 |v_0\rangle \quad (8)$$

Rearranging gives

$$H |v_0\rangle = a_0 |v_0\rangle + b_1 |v_1\rangle \quad (9)$$

For the next iteration step, we multiply $|v_1\rangle$ by H and orthogonalize $H |v_1\rangle$ w.r.t. all previous vectors.

$$b_2 |v_2\rangle = |\tilde{v}_2\rangle = H |v_1\rangle - \sum_{i=0}^1 |v_i\rangle \langle v_i | H |v_1\rangle = H |v_1\rangle - a_1 |v_1\rangle - b_1 |v_0\rangle \quad (10)$$

Rearranging gives

$$H |v_1\rangle = b_1 |v_0\rangle + a_1 |v_1\rangle + b_2 |v_2\rangle \quad (11)$$

Continuing the iteration, we get

$$b_3 |v_3\rangle = |\tilde{v}_3\rangle = H |v_2\rangle - \sum_{i=0}^2 |v_i\rangle \langle v_i|H|v_2\rangle = H |v_2\rangle - a_2 |v_2\rangle - b_2 |v_1\rangle \quad (12)$$

Here, the term $|v_0\rangle \langle v_0|H|v_2\rangle$ vanishes. This can be seen from Eq. (9)

$$\langle v_2|H|v_0\rangle = a_0 \langle v_2|v_0\rangle + b_1 \langle v_2|v_1\rangle \quad (13)$$

The vectors are orthogonal by construction. Therefore, $\langle v_0|H|v_2\rangle = 0$. Rearranging gives

$$H |v_2\rangle = b_2 |v_1\rangle + a_2 |v_2\rangle + b_3 |v_3\rangle \quad (14)$$

We can repeat the process to get

$$H |v_n\rangle = b_n |v_{n-1}\rangle + a_n |v_n\rangle + b_{n+1} |v_{n+1}\rangle \quad (15)$$

This process is called tridiagonalization. After N iterations, the Hamiltonian on the $N + 1$ -dimensional Krylov subspace is

$$H_{\mathcal{K}_N(|v_0\rangle)} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle v_0|H|v_0\rangle & \dots & \langle v_0|H|v_N\rangle \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle v_N|H|v_0\rangle & \dots & \langle v_N|H|v_N\rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_0 & b_1 & & & \\ b_1 & a_1 & b_2 & & \\ & b_2 & a_2 & b_3 & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & b_{N-1} & a_{N-1} & b_N \\ & & & & b_N & a_N \end{pmatrix} \quad (16)$$

3.1 Eigensolution

Let V be the matrix with columns $|v_0\rangle, \dots, |v_N\rangle$ and T be the tridiagonal matrix. Then $H \approx VTV^\dagger$. If $T|x\rangle = \lambda|x\rangle$ ($|x\rangle$ is an eigenvector of T), then $V|x\rangle$ is the corresponding eigenvector to H with eigenvalue λ .

$$HV|x\rangle \approx VTV^\dagger V|x\rangle = VT|x\rangle = \lambda V|x\rangle \quad (17)$$

This is beneficial since T is of lower dimension than H and also, there are specialized algorithms for diagonalizing tridiagonal matrices. However, like the power method, this converges on dominant eigenvalues. To find eigenvalues near σ , we can use the shift-invert method. This method uses Lanczos iteration on the matrix $(\sigma - H)^{-1}$. The dominant eigenvalues of this matrix are near σ and the eigenvectors for $(\sigma - H)^{-1}$ are the same as H . Also, this method is numerically unstable since after many iterations, orthogonality is lost. To circumvent this, implementations will “restart” after a certain number of iterations. These methods are implemented in scipy as `scipy.sparse.linalg.eigsh`.

3.2 Green’s function

Consider

$$G(z) = \langle \psi_0 | (z - H)^{-1} | \psi_0 \rangle \quad (18)$$

By initializing the Lanczos algorithm with the vector $|\psi_0\rangle$, we get the tridiagonalization

$$z - H \approx z - T = \begin{pmatrix} z - a_0 & -b_1 & & & \\ -b_1 & z - a_1 & -b_2 & & \\ & -b_2 & z - a_2 & -b_3 & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & -b_{N-1} & z - a_{N-1} & -b_N \\ & & & & -b_N & z - a_N \end{pmatrix} \quad (19)$$

To get $G(z)$, we need to calculate $[(z - T)^{-1}]_{00}$. We can use block inversion to get the inverse

$$z - T = \begin{pmatrix} z - a_0 & -B^{(1)T} \\ -B^{(1)} & z - T^{(1)} \end{pmatrix} \quad (20)$$

$$B^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \quad z - T^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} z - a_1 & -b_2 & & & \\ -b_2 & z - a_2 & -b_3 & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & -b_{N-1} & z - a_{N-1} & -b_N \\ & & & & -b_N & z - a_N \end{pmatrix} \quad (21)$$

$$[(z - T)^{-1}]_{00} = \left(z - a_0 - B^{(1)T}(z - T^{(1)})^{-1}B^{(1)} \right)^{-1} = \left(z - a_0 - b_1^2[(z - T^{(1)})^{-1}]_{00} \right)^{-1} \quad (22)$$

The inverse $(z - T^{(1)})^{-1}$ can similarly be inverted using block matrices. Repeating the inversion, we get the continued fraction

$$G(z) = \frac{1}{z - a_0 - \frac{b_1^2}{z - a_1 - \frac{b_2^2}{z - a_2 - \dots}}} \quad (23)$$

which terminates with $-\frac{b_N^2}{z - a_N}$.

4 Kernel Polynomial Method

This section is based on Kernel Polynomial Method.

4.1 Chebyshev polynomials

The Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind are given by

$$\{T_n(x) = \cos(n \arccos(x)) : n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

which are orthogonal under the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x)g(x)}{\pi\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$$

with the orthogonality relation

$$\langle T_m, T_n \rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & m \neq n \\ 1 & m = n = 0 \\ 1/2 & m = n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

A useful property of the Chebyshev polynomials is that they can be generated using the recurrence relation

$$T_0(x) = 1$$

$$T_1(x) = x$$

$$T_{n+1}(x) = 2xT_n(x) - T_{n-1}(x)$$

The Chebyshev expansion for a function f defined on the domain $[-1, 1]$ is

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle f, T_n \rangle}{\langle T_n, T_n \rangle} T_n(x) = \alpha_0 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n T_n(x)$$

with coefficients

$$\alpha_n = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x)T_n(x)}{\pi\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$$

The denominator in the integral is troublesome so we rearrange the expansion

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi\sqrt{1-x^2}} \left(\mu_0 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu_n T_n(x) \right)$$

$$\mu_n = \int_{-1}^1 f(x)T_n(x)dx$$

4.1.1 Proof of rearrangement

Define a new inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle_1 = \int_{-1}^1 \pi\sqrt{1-x^2} f(x)g(x)dx$$

and polynomials

$$\phi_n(x) = \frac{T_n(x)}{\pi\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

These polynomials have the same orthogonality relations

$$\langle \phi_m, \phi_n \rangle_1 = \langle T_m, T_n \rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & m \neq n \\ 1 & m = n = 0 \\ 1/2 & m = n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

The expansion becomes

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle f, \phi_n \rangle_1}{\langle \phi_n, \phi_n \rangle_1} \phi_n(x) = \frac{1}{\pi\sqrt{1-x^2}} \left(\mu_0 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu_n T_n(x) \right)$$

$$\mu_n = \langle f, \phi_n \rangle_1 = \int_{-1}^1 f(x)T_n(x)dx$$

4.1.2 Rescaling

Expanding $f(x)$ with Chebyshev polynomials requires $x \in [-1, 1]$. We will expand functions of energy so the eigenvalues of the Hamiltonian should be in the interval $E_k \in [-1, 1]$. To fit the spectrum in the interval, we apply a linear transformation to the Hamiltonian and energies.

$$H' = (H - b)/a$$

$$\omega' = (\omega - b)/a$$

$$a = (E_{max} - E_{min})/(2 - \epsilon)$$

$$b = (E_{max} + E_{min})/2$$

ϵ is a small cut-off for numerical stability. All H and ω used afterwards refer to the scaled Hamiltonian and energies.

4.2 Density of states

The first basic application of Chebyshev expansion is the calculation of the density of states

$$\rho(\omega) = \sum_k \delta(\omega - E_k)$$

where E_k are the eigenvalues of the Hamiltonian matrix. The moments can be calculated by

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu_n &= \int_{-1}^1 \rho(\omega) T_n(\omega) d\omega \\
&= \sum_k T_n(E_k) \\
&= \sum_k \langle k | T_n(H) | k \rangle \\
&= \text{Tr}(T_n(H))
\end{aligned}$$

4.3 Local density of states

The retarded Green's function in terms of eigenvectors is

$$G^R(\omega) = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \sum_k \frac{|k\rangle \langle k|}{\omega + i\delta - E_k}$$

The local density of states is

$$\begin{aligned}
\rho_i(\omega) &= -\frac{1}{\pi} \text{Im} G_{ii}^R(\omega) \\
&= \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} -\frac{1}{\pi} \sum_k \text{Im} \frac{\langle i | k \rangle \langle k | i \rangle}{\omega + i\delta - E_k} \\
&= \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_k |\langle i | k \rangle|^2 \frac{\delta}{(\omega - E_k)^2 + \delta^2} \\
&= \sum_k |\langle i | k \rangle|^2 \delta(\omega - E_k)
\end{aligned}$$

The moments are

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu_n &= \int_{-1}^1 \rho_i(\omega) T_n(\omega) d\omega \\
&= \sum_k |\langle i | k \rangle|^2 T_n(E_k) \\
&= \sum_k \langle i | T_n(H) | k \rangle \langle k | i \rangle \\
&= \langle i | T_n(H) | i \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

4.4 Spectral function

The spectral function is

$$\begin{aligned}
A(\omega) &= -\frac{G^R(\omega) - G^A(\omega)}{2\pi i} \\
&= -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \sum_k |k\rangle \langle k| \left(\frac{1}{\omega + i\delta - E_k} - \frac{1}{\omega - i\delta - E_k} \right) \\
&= \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \sum_k |k\rangle \langle k| \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\delta}{(\omega - E_k)^2 + \delta^2} \\
&= \sum_k |k\rangle \langle k| \delta(\omega - E_k)
\end{aligned}$$

For a matrix element $A_{ij}(\omega)$, the moments are

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu_n &= \int_{-1}^1 A_{ij}(\omega) T_n(\omega) d\omega \\
&= \sum_k \langle i|k \rangle \langle k|j \rangle T_n(E_k) \\
&= \sum_k \langle i|T_n(H)|k \rangle \langle k|j \rangle \\
&= \langle i|T_n(H)|j \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

4.5 Lesser Green's function

The lesser Green's function in thermal equilibrium is

$$G_{ij}^<(\omega) = 2\pi i n_F(\omega) A_{ij}(\omega)$$

4.5.1 Mean-field equation

The expectation value is an integral over energy of the lesser Green's function given by

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle c_j^\dagger c_i \rangle &= \int_{-1}^1 \frac{d\omega}{2\pi i} G_{ij}^<(\omega) \\
&= \int_{-1}^1 d\omega n_F(\omega) A_{ij}(\omega)
\end{aligned}$$

4.5.2 Current

The current is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
I_{ij} &= \frac{-2e}{\hbar} \int \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} \text{Re}[t_{ji} G_{ij}^<(\omega)] \\
&= \frac{2e}{\hbar} \int d\omega n_F(\omega) \text{Im}[t_{ji} A_{ij}(\omega)]
\end{aligned}$$

4.5.3 Superconducting order parameter

An example of solving the mean-field equation is for the the superconducting order parameter Δ_{ij}

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta_{ij} &= -V \langle c_i^\dagger c_j^\dagger \rangle = -V \int_{-1}^1 \frac{d\omega}{2\pi i} F_{ij}^<(\omega) \\
&= -V \int_{-1}^1 d\omega n_F(\omega) A_{ij}^{12}(\omega)
\end{aligned}$$

where A^{12} is the spectral function of the Bogoliubov-de-Gennes Hamiltonian in the anomalous block.

4.6 Calculating moments

Usually, H is a sparse matrix. In general, $T_n(H)$ is not a sparse matrix, but $T_n(H)$ usually acts on a vector. Instead, we can store the vector $|\alpha_n\rangle = T_n(H) |\alpha\rangle$.

4.6.1 $\mu_n = \langle \beta | T_n(H) | \alpha \rangle$

Starting from the state $|\alpha\rangle$, we can iteratively construct states $|\alpha_n\rangle = T_n(H) |\alpha\rangle$ using the recurrence relations

$$\begin{aligned} |\alpha_0\rangle &= |\alpha\rangle \\ |\alpha_1\rangle &= H |\alpha\rangle \\ |\alpha_{n+1}\rangle &= 2H |\alpha_n\rangle - |\alpha_{n-1}\rangle \\ \mu_n &= \langle \beta | \alpha_n \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Note that for a single starting vector α , the expansion coefficients can be calculated for many different β .

4.6.2 $\mu_n = \text{Tr}(AT_n(H))$

We can use a stochastic method to estimate the trace.

$$\text{Tr}(AT_n(H)) \approx \frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=0}^{R-1} \langle r | AT_n(H) | r \rangle$$

where $|r\rangle$ is a random vector, R is the number of random vectors, and the relative error is of the order $O(1/\sqrt{RD})$. The i -th component $\langle i | r \rangle = \xi_i$ can be Gaussian distributed or have a uniform random phase.

$$\xi_i = x \quad \text{or} \quad \xi_i = e^{i\phi}$$

where $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a gaussian distributed random number and $\phi \in [0, 2\pi)$ is a uniformly distributed random number. Then, we use the procedure for $\mu_n = \langle \beta | T_n(H) | \alpha \rangle$ for each random vector $|r\rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \beta_r | &= \langle r | A \\ |\alpha_{rn}\rangle &= T_n(H) |r\rangle \\ \mu_n &= \frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=0}^{R-1} \langle \beta_r | \alpha_{rn} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

4.6.3 $|\beta\rangle = |\alpha\rangle$

The recurrence relation can be simplified even further to

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{2n} &= 2 \langle \alpha_n | \alpha_n \rangle - \mu_0 \\ \mu_{2n+1} &= 2 \langle \alpha_{n+1} | \alpha_n \rangle - \mu_1 \end{aligned}$$

4.7 Kernel

The Chebyshev expansion is exact for an infinite number of moments. However, we must approximate the expansion given a finite number of N moments μ_n . Truncating the series leads to Gibbs oscillations near points where the function $f(x)$ is not continuously differentiable. To damp these oscillations, we modify the expansion coefficients $\bar{\mu}_n = g_n \mu_n$.

4.7.1 Jackson kernel

$$g_n = \frac{(N - n + 1) \cos \frac{\pi n}{N+1} + \sin \frac{\pi n}{N+1} \cot \frac{\pi}{N+1}}{N + 1}$$

which is related to a Gaussian

$$\delta(x) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

4.7.2 Lorentz kernel

$$g_n = \frac{\sinh(\epsilon(N-n))}{\sinh(\epsilon N)}$$

which is related to a Lorentzian

$$\delta(x) \approx \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\epsilon}{x^2 + \epsilon^2}$$

For both of these kernels, a strictly positive function remains positive and delta functions are approximated using a Gaussian or Lorentzian. For most applications, the Jackson kernel converges best, but for approximating Green's functions the Lorentz kernel is best.

4.8 Discrete cosine transform

For a set $\{x_m\}$ of M points, the Chebyshev expansion is

$$f(x_m) = \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_m^2}} \left(\bar{\mu}_0 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \bar{\mu}_n T_n(x_m) \right)$$

By making a special choice for our data points x_m ,

$$x_m = \cos \frac{\pi(m+1/2)}{M} \quad \text{with} \quad m = 0, \dots, M-1$$

we have $T_n(x_m) = \cos(n \arccos(x_m)) = \cos \frac{\pi n(m+1/2)}{M}$. We then obtain

$$\gamma_m = \pi \sqrt{1-x_m^2} f(x_m) = \bar{\mu}_0 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \bar{\mu}_n \cos \frac{\pi n(m+1/2)}{M}$$

which can be efficiently calculated using a fast discrete cosine transform found in many FFT packages. After discrete cosine transform of the moments, the approximated function at the data points $\{x_m\}$ are

$$f(x_m) = \frac{\gamma_m}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_m^2}}$$

4.9 Chebyshev-Gauss quadrature

In numerical analysis, Chebyshev-Gauss quadrature is a method of approximating integrals as

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \approx \frac{\pi}{M} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} f(x_m) \quad \text{with} \quad x_m = \cos \frac{\pi(m+1/2)}{M}$$

The special choice of data points $\{x_m\}$ from the discrete cosine transform corresponds to the abscissas of Chebyshev-Gauss quadrature. Hence, integrals of the form $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)g(x)dx$ become simple averages.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-1}^1 f(x)g(x)dx &= \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\sqrt{1-x^2}f(x)g(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \\ &\approx \frac{\pi}{M} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sqrt{1-x_m^2} f(x_m)g(x_m) \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \gamma_m g(x_m) \end{aligned}$$