

# Computation of extremal eigenvalues of large Hermitian and Hamiltonian matrices in quantum and classical physics

**E.V. Tsiper**

Naval Research Laboratory &  
George Mason University

SCS Colloquium, George Mason University  
October 27, 2005

# Quantum Mechanics: a Hermitian Eigenvalue Problem

$$\begin{array}{c} 100,000,000 \\ \boxed{\text{H}} \end{array} \psi = E \psi$$

# Quantum Mechanics: a Hermitian Eigenvalue Problem

$$\begin{matrix} & 100,000,000 \\ & \boxed{\text{H}} \\ 100,000,000 & \end{matrix} \psi = E \psi$$

$$\mathcal{H}\psi = \epsilon\psi \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{matrix} \epsilon^{(1)}, & \epsilon^{(2)}, & \dots, & \epsilon^{(M)} \\ \psi^{(1)}, & \psi^{(2)}, & \dots, & \psi^{(M)} \end{matrix}$$

## Rayleigh-Ritz Minimum Principle



$$\epsilon^{(1)} = \min_{(\psi|\psi)=1} (\psi \mathcal{H} \psi)$$

# Classical Mechanics: a Hamiltonian Eigenvalue Problem

Newton's eqs:

$$\mathcal{M}\ddot{x} = -\mathcal{K}x$$

$$\downarrow$$
$$\omega^2 \mathcal{M}x = \mathcal{K}x$$

in Hamilton form:

$$p = \omega \mathcal{M}x, \quad \mathcal{T} = \mathcal{M}^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathcal{T} \\ \mathcal{K} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ p \end{bmatrix} = \omega \begin{bmatrix} x \\ p \end{bmatrix}$$

→ normal frequencies  $\omega^{(1)}, \omega^{(2)}, \dots, \omega^{(M)}$

• all real!

## Generalized Minimum Principle

$$\omega^{(1)} = \min_{(px)=1} \frac{(p\mathcal{T}p)}{2} + \frac{(x\mathcal{K}x)}{2}$$

[E.V. Tsiper, JETP Letters 70, 11, 751 (1999)]

# Two Problems in Linear Algebra

- **Diagonalization of a Hermitian matrix**  
by unitary transformations (rotations)
- **Simultaneous diagonalization of two quadratic forms**  
by similarity transformations (rotations + rescaling):

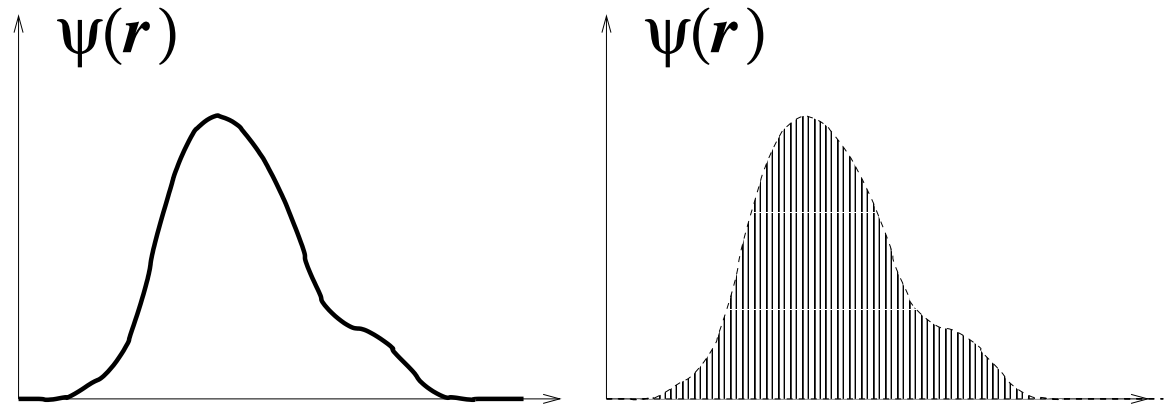
## **Recipe:**

1. Rotate the basis to diagonalize one matrix
2. Rescale coordinates to make it a unit matrix
3. Rotate space to diagonalize the other matrix  
(the unit matrix does not change)

# Origin of Large Matrices in Quantum Mechanics

## A. Ordinary Quantum Mechanics

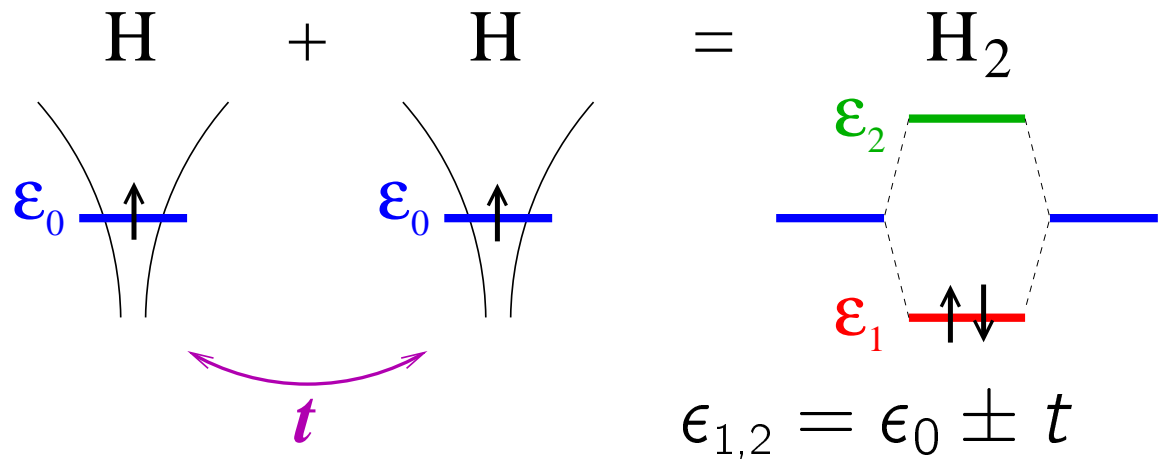
- The wave function  $\psi(r)$  is an infinite vector:



- Simplest chemical bond:

$2 \times 2$  matrix

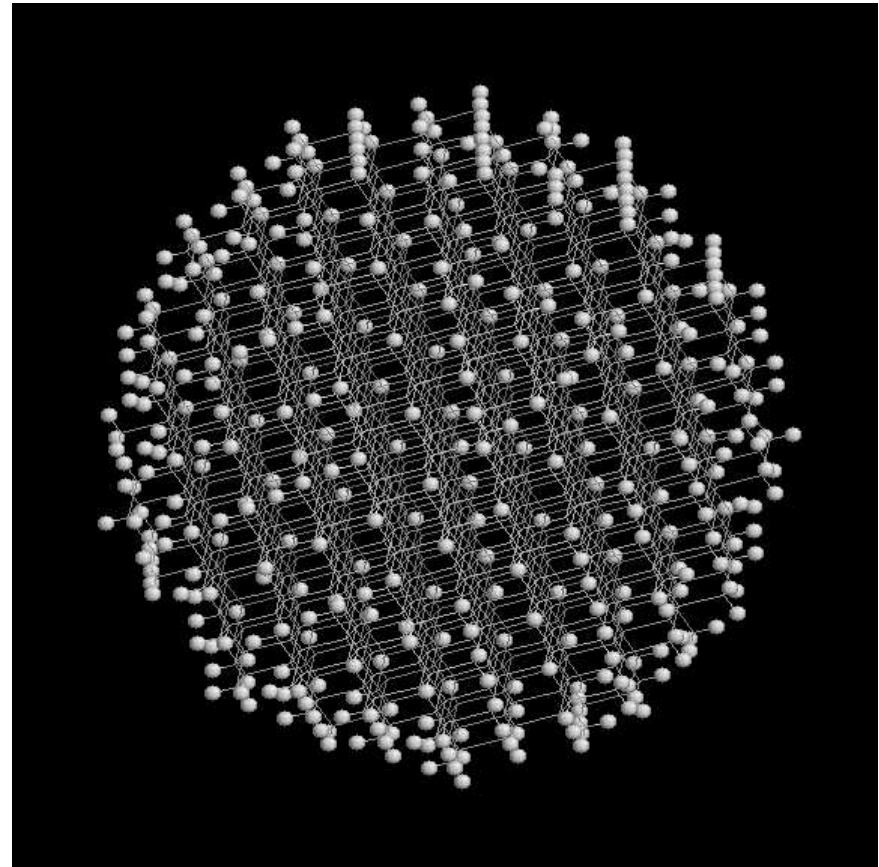
$$\mathcal{H} = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_0 & t \\ t & \epsilon_0 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Origin of Large Matrices in Quantum Mechanics

## B. Realistic electronic structure calculations

- Many states per atom:  
 $(1s + 3p + 5d) \times 2 \text{ spins} = 20$
- $10^{23}$  atoms per  $\text{cm}^3$
- A typical  $\sim 10$  nm nanocrystal contains about 50,000 atoms



# Origin of Large Matrices in Quantum Mechanics

## C. Many-body quantum mechanics

For  $N$  particles

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}) \xrightarrow{\text{becomes}} \psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N) \Rightarrow \text{matrix size } M = L^N$$

Fermion symmetry reduces it to  $N$  particles in  $L$  boxes:

$$M = \binom{L}{N} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi N(1-f)}} \left[ \frac{1}{f^f (1-f)^{(1-f)}} \right]^L,$$

$$f = N/L = \text{filling factor } (< 1)$$

— still a huge number:

$$\binom{36}{1} = 36, \quad \binom{36}{2} = \frac{36 \times 35}{2} = 630, \quad \dots \quad \binom{36}{12} = \mathbf{1,251,677,700}, \quad \dots$$

$$\dots, \binom{36}{18} = \mathbf{9,075,135,300}, \quad \dots \quad \binom{36}{34} = 630, \quad \binom{36}{35} = 36, \quad \binom{36}{36} = 1$$



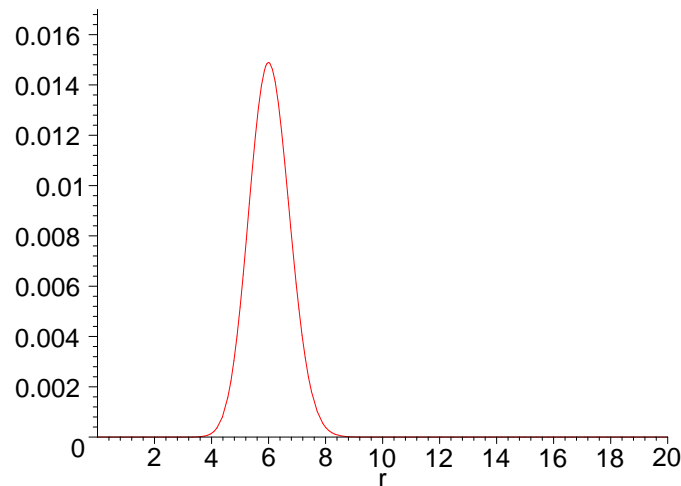
# An Example of Strongly-Correlated Quantum Many-Body System:

## 2D electron gas in strong magnetic field

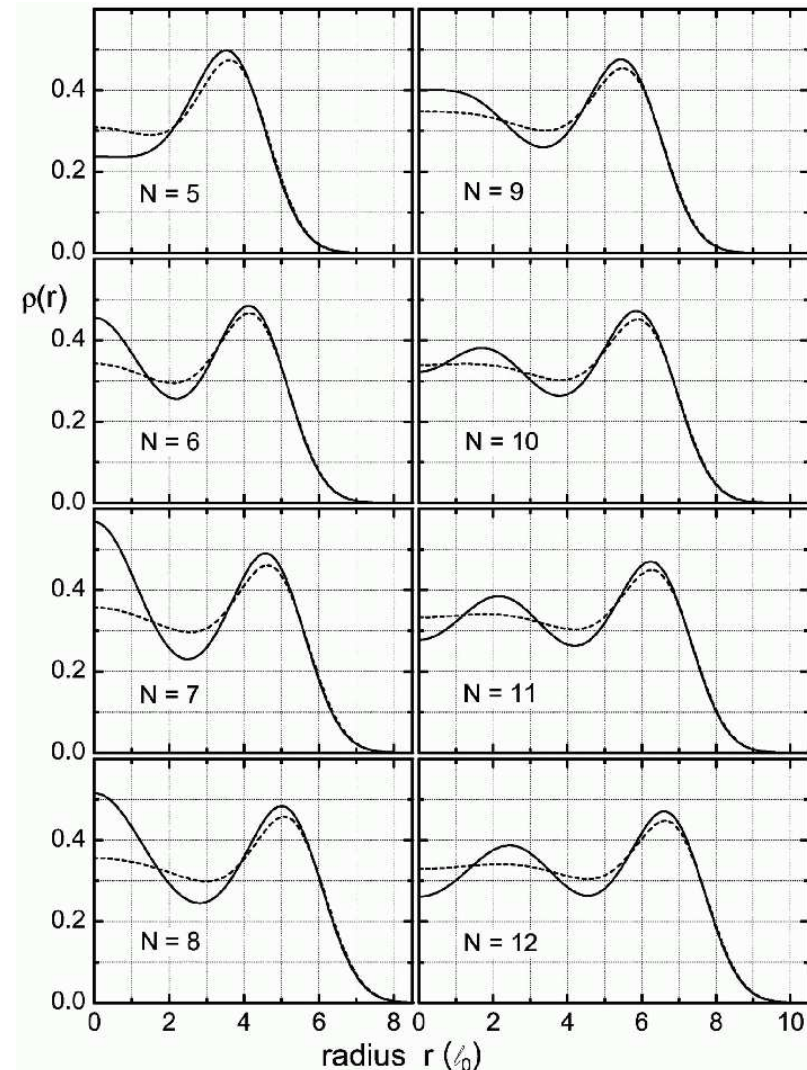
Lowest Landau Level:

$$\psi_m(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi 2^m m!}} r^m e^{im\phi} e^{-r^2/4}$$

$$m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 36, \dots$$



$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_{mnl} V_{mn}^l c_{m+l}^\dagger c_n^\dagger c_{n+l} c_m$$



[E.V. Tsiper and V.J. Goldman, Phys. Rev. B64, 165311 (2001)]

# An Example of Strongly-Correlated Quantum Many-Body System:

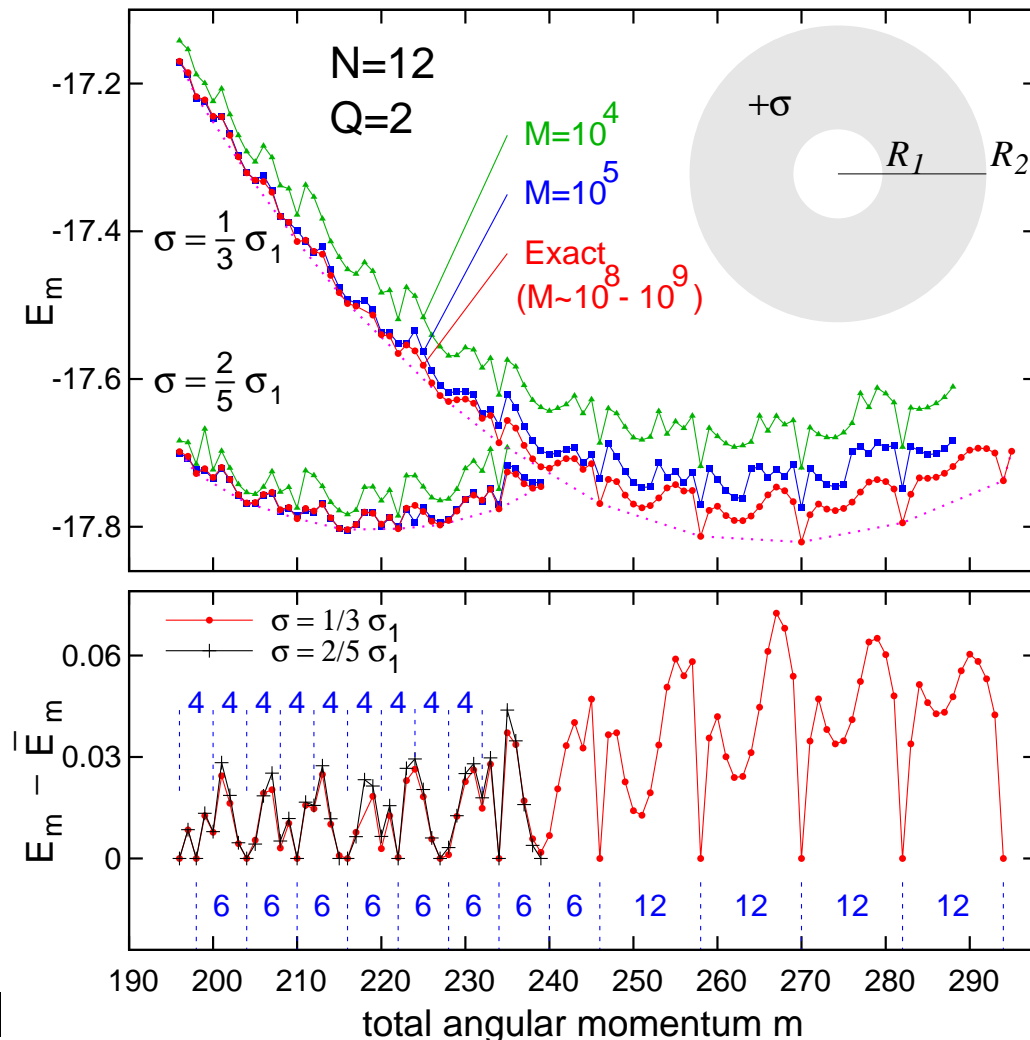
## 2D electron gas in strong magnetic field

**FQHE: Fractional Quantum Hall Effect**

**Fractionalization of elemental charge**

$$e^* = \frac{e}{3}, \quad \frac{2e}{5}, \quad \frac{3e}{7} \quad \dots?$$

[E.V. Tsiper (2005), to be published]



**How was this done ?**

# Extremal Eigenvalue of a Hermitian Matrix

## Consider Typical Computer Limitations

- **CPU** Limitations:  $3 \text{ GHz} = 3 \times 10^9 \text{ ops/second} = 10^{14} \text{ ops/hour}$   
Can be overcome by multiple parallel CPUs or by patience
- **Memory** Limitations:  $2 \text{ GBytes} = 2.5 \times 10^8 \text{ real numbers}$ .  
Typically cannot be overcome
- **Full diagonalization** (all eigenvalues and eigenvectors)  
Need to store the  $M \times M$  dense matrix  
(an answer — the set of  $M$  eigenvectors — is a dense matrix)

$$M \lesssim \sqrt{2.5 \times 10^8} = 16,300$$

- **Only the ground state**  $\epsilon^{(1)}, \psi^{(1)}$   
Suppose we do not need to store  $\mathcal{H}$  (re-compute as needed)

$$M \lesssim \frac{1}{2} (2.5 \times 10^8) \sim 100,000,000$$

# Extremal Eigenvalue of a Hermitian Matrix

## Concept: Power Method

- All bases are equivalent:

*Pretend* that we know the basis where  $\mathcal{H}$  is diagonal.

An arbitrary vector

$$\psi = c_1 \psi^{(1)} + c_2 \psi^{(2)} + \dots + c_M \psi^{(M)}$$

$$\mathcal{H}\psi = \epsilon^{(1)} c_1 \psi^{(1)} + \epsilon^{(2)} c_2 \psi^{(2)} + \dots + \epsilon^{(M)} c_M \psi^{(M)}$$

Upon doing

$$\mathcal{H}^k \psi = \mathcal{H}\mathcal{H}\mathcal{H}\mathcal{H}\mathcal{H}\dots\psi$$

all components of  $\psi$  die away exponentially with  $k$  except the one with the largest  $|\epsilon^{(i)}|$ , either  $\epsilon^{(1)}$  or  $\epsilon^{(M)}$ .

- We can choose  $\epsilon^{(1)}$  or  $\epsilon^{(M)}$  by shifting the matrix  $\mathcal{H} \pm \lambda$ .
- Convergence is usually slow: the exponent is  $1 - \epsilon^{(2)}/\epsilon^{(1)}$ .

# Extremal Eigenvalue of a Hermitian Matrix

## Krylov Subspace

- $\mathcal{H}\psi$  is “closer” to  $\psi^{(1)}$  than  $\psi$  for an arbitrary  $\psi$ .  
But only “slightly.”  
 $\Rightarrow \psi$  turns towards  $\psi^{(1)}$  upon action of  $\mathcal{H}$ .  
 $\Downarrow$
- Try to extrapolate: draw a plane through  $\psi$  and  $\mathcal{H}\psi$ ;  
find the best approximation to  $\psi^{(1)}$  in that plane.  
“Best” is in terms of  $\min(\psi\mathcal{H}\psi)$
- Generalize: build a subspace of  $\psi, \mathcal{H}\psi, \mathcal{H}^2\psi, \dots, \mathcal{H}^k\psi$ ;  
find the best approximation to  $\psi^{(1)}$  in this *Krylov subspace*.

**= Lanczos method**

Krylov subspace is an “almost invariant” subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

# Extremal Eigenvalue of a Hermitian Matrix

## Lanczos Recursion

- $\psi, \mathcal{H}\psi, \mathcal{H}^2\psi, \dots, \mathcal{H}^k\psi$  are not orthogonal  
In fact, they are strongly linear-dependent
- Remarkable discovery [C. Lanczos, 1950]:  
A recursion builds an orthonormal basis in the Krylov subspace

$$\psi_{i+1} = \frac{1}{\beta_{i+1}}(\mathcal{H}\psi_i - \alpha_i\psi_i - \beta_i\psi_{i-1})$$

$\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$  are chosen to orthogonalize  $\psi_{i+1}$  to **two previous vectors**.

- Miraculously,  $\psi_{i+1}$  is orthogonal to **all**  $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots$ :  $(\psi_i\psi_j) = \delta_{ij}$   
Moreover,  $\mathcal{H}$  is **tridiagonal** in the new basis:

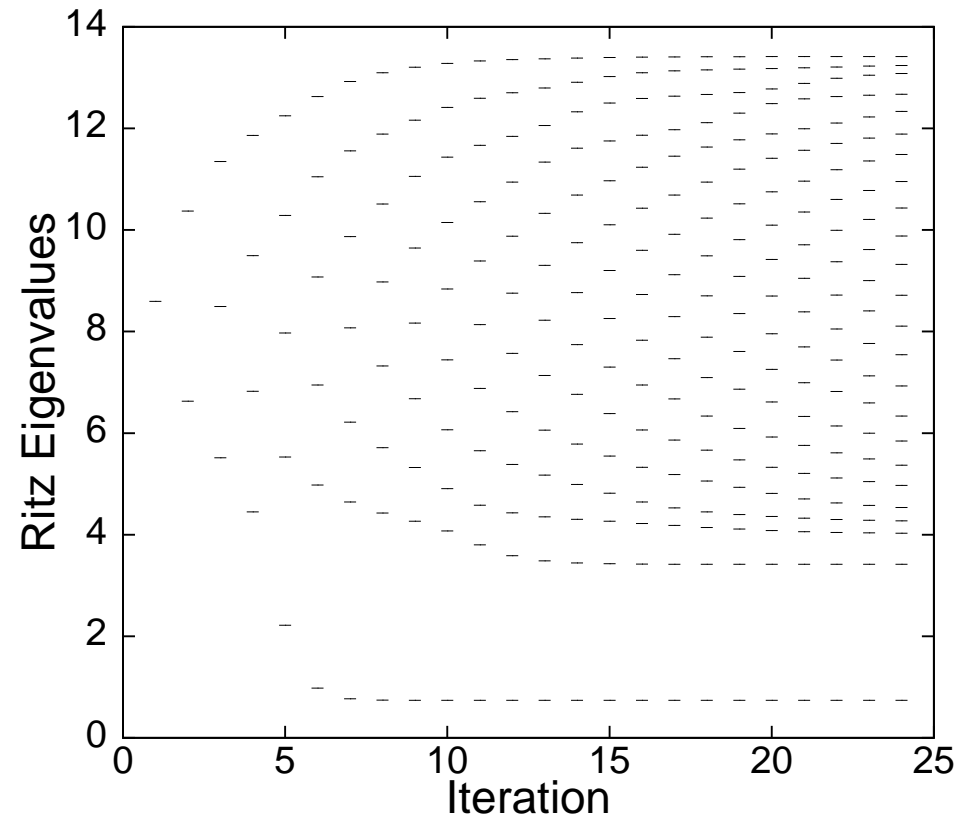
$$(\psi_i\mathcal{H}\psi_i) = \alpha_i \quad (\psi_i\mathcal{H}\psi_{i-1}) = \beta_i \quad (\psi_i\mathcal{H}\psi_j) = 0 \text{ otherwise.}$$

$\implies$  All we need to find  $\min(\psi\mathcal{H}\psi)$ .

# Extremal Eigenvalue of a Hermitian Matrix

## Typical Lanczos Convergence

- Start with an arbitrary  $\psi_1$
- At every step  $k$  we have a  $k \times k$  tridiagonal matrix  $(\psi_i \mathcal{H} \psi_j)$ .
- Extremal eigenvalues of  $(\psi_i \mathcal{H} \psi_j)$  give best *variational* approximation to  $\epsilon^{(1)}$  and  $\epsilon^{(M)}$ .
- Corresponding eigenvectors of length  $k$  are the expansion coefficients for  $\psi_{\text{approx}}$  in terms of  $\psi_i$
- Convergence is usually exponential
- Worst-case convergence: number of iterations  $\sim \sqrt{M}$  (very rare)  
Usually need 50 — 200 iterations to get all 14 digits.





# Lowest Eigenvalue of a Hamiltonian Matrix

## Generalized Variational Procedure

Apply the same idea:

1. Build Krylov subspace of  $\mathcal{L}$ :  $\xi, \mathcal{L}\xi, \mathcal{L}^2\xi, \dots, \mathcal{L}^k\xi$ :

$$\mathcal{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathcal{T} \\ \mathcal{K} & 0 \end{bmatrix}; \quad \xi = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ p \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathcal{L}\xi = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{T}p \\ \mathcal{K}x \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathcal{L}^2\xi = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{T}\mathcal{K}x \\ \mathcal{K}\mathcal{T}p \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

2. Find the **best** approximation to  $\omega^{(1)}, \xi^{(1)}$  within this subspace using the **minimum principle**

$$\min_{(px)=1} \frac{(p\mathcal{T}p)}{2} + \frac{(x\mathcal{K}x)}{2}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{leads to}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \tilde{\mathcal{T}} \\ \tilde{\mathcal{K}} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} = \tilde{\omega} \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix}$$

$\tilde{\omega}$  gives a *variational* approximation to  $\omega^{(1)}$ , and

$c$  and  $d$  are the expansion coefficients for  $x^{(1)}$  and  $p^{(1)}$

in terms of  $x_i$  and  $p_i$ , respectively

# Lowest Eigenvalue of a Hamiltonian Matrix

## Generalized Lanczos Recursion

The following recursion

$$\begin{aligned}x_{i+1} &= \frac{1}{\beta_{i+1}}(\mathcal{T}p_i - \alpha_i x_i - \beta_i x_{i-1}) \\p_{i+1} &= \frac{1}{\delta_{i+1}}(\mathcal{K}x_i - \gamma_i p_i - \delta_i p_{i-1})\end{aligned}$$

retains all the nice properties of the Hermitian Lanczos recursion and yields

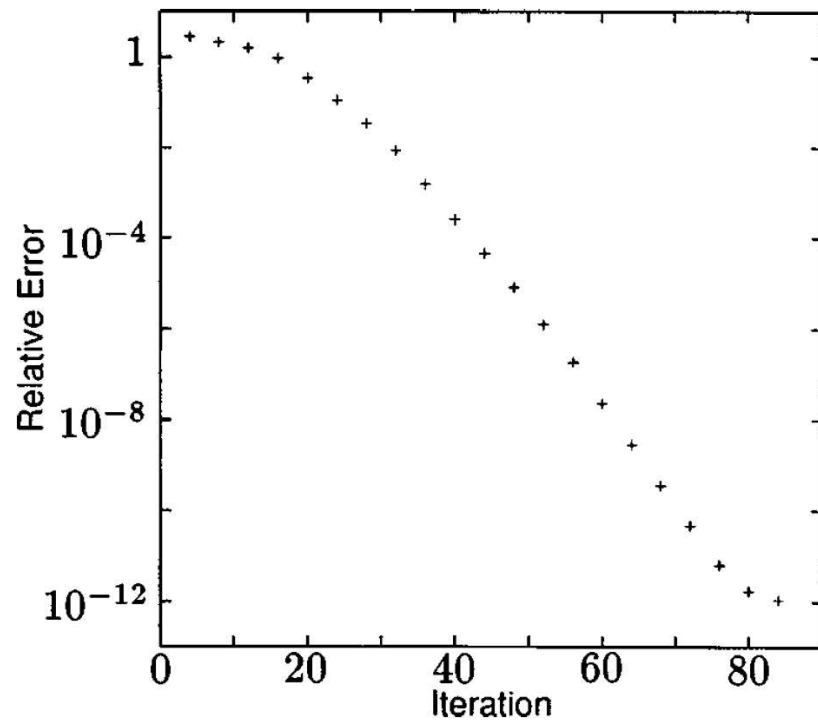
- A globally bi-orthogonal basis  $\{x_i, p_i\}$   $(x_i p_j) = \delta_{ij}$
- Both matrices  $\tilde{\mathcal{T}}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{K}}$

$$\begin{aligned}(p_i \mathcal{T} p_i) &= \alpha_i, & (p_i \mathcal{T} p_{i-1}) &= \beta_i & (p_i \mathcal{T} p_j) &= (x_i \mathcal{K} x_j) = \\(x_i \mathcal{K} x_i) &= \gamma_i, & (x_i \mathcal{K} x_{i-1}) &= \delta_i & &= 0 \text{ otherwise.}\end{aligned}$$

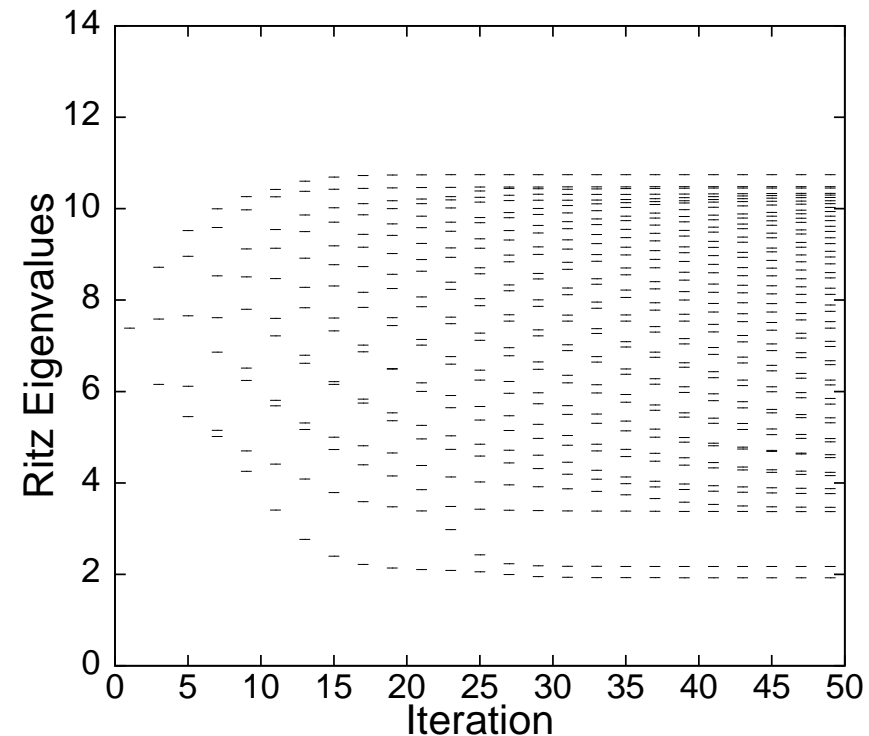
# Lowest Eigenvalue of a Hamiltonian Matrix

## Typical Generalized Lanczos Convergence

- Behavior very similar to the Hermitian case:



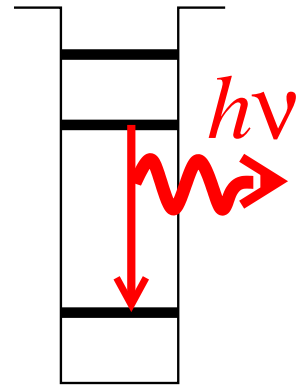
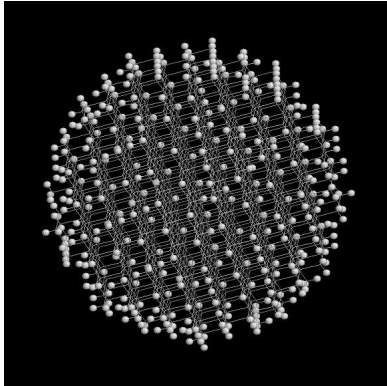
$200,000 \times 200,000$   
random test matrix



smaller test matrix

**Why are we interested in this ?**

# Excitations of a Quantum System as Classical Oscillations of $\psi$



Consider a system driven out of equilibrium. Excitation energies

$$\Omega_{21} = \epsilon^{(2)} - \epsilon^{(1)} \text{ etc.}$$

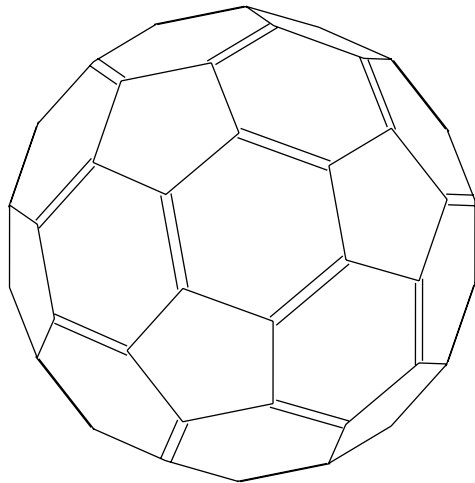
are resonance frequencies for the evolution of the wave function  $\psi(t)$  about the ground-state equilibrium  $\psi^{(1)}$

## Time Dependent quantum methods

- TDHF = Time-Dependent Hartree-Fock
- TDDFT = Time-Dependent Density Functional Theory etc.  
target  $\Omega_{i1}$  directly by solving *equations of motion for  $\psi(t)$* .
- These equations of motion are technically classical Hamiltonian equation for small oscillations with **many** degrees of freedom.

# Excitations of a Quantum System as Classical Oscillations of $\psi$

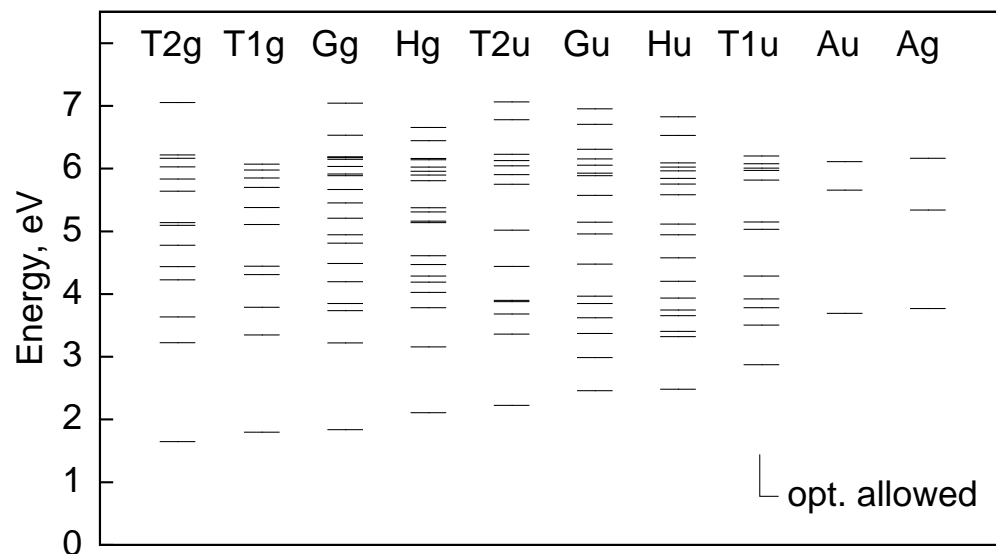
## Proof of Concept: Excitation spectrum of $C_{60}$



$$N_e = 240$$

TDHF:

$$M = 28,800$$



Absorption	TDHF
Experiment	Calculation
$\hbar\Omega$ , eV	$\hbar\Omega$ , eV
3.04	2.874 (5%)
3.30	3.505 (6%)
3.78	3.782 (0%)
4.06	3.924 (3%)
4.35	4.287 (1%)
4.84	5.031 (4%)
5.46	5.150 (6%)
5.88	5.816 (1%)
	6.008
	6.078
6.36	6.202 (2%)

# Conclusions

- Full diagonalization of a matrix is limited to  
 $\sim 16,600 \times 16,000$
- **Lanczos recursion** allows to find the ground state and a few lowest-energy excited states of large Hermitian matrices up to  
 $\sim 10^8 \times 10^8$
- Lanczos method can be extended to the problem of **small classical oscillations** in Hamiltonian form with large number of degrees of freedom
- The latter problem appears in **time-dependent quantum qnsatze** that target directly the excitation energies of quantum system.