

Using CorrelationConnection

First, follow the instructions on README.md to install and activate the right Conda environment. Once that has been done, you can launch this Jupyter Notebook.

Load necessary libraries:

```
In [1]: import pickle
import sys
sys.path.append("./bin/")
sys.path.append(".")
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from matplotlib.lines import Line2D
```

Tell your system where it can find executables:

```
In [2]: sys.path.append("../..CorrelationConnection/bin/")
```

The line above may change depending on your working directory. The exact way it is written above works if your working directory is a subfolder of CorrelationConnection (e.g. CorrelationConnection/docs) and CorrelationConnection contains another sub-folder called bin containing the files exact_diagonalisation_code.py , exact_diagonalisation_code_sparse.py , etc.

Import some more libraries:

```
In [140... import scipy
import scipy.sparse.linalg as sprsla
from hamiltonians import NNHamiltonian
from randomizer import RandomizerHamiltonianNNRandomDelta, Randomi
from stability_analysis_class import StabilityAnalysisSparse
from tools import SijCalculator
from exact_diagonalisation_code_sparse import create_sx_sparse, cr
from math import sqrt, pi
```

Let's now get started.

To begin, we will create a Hamiltonian object for L sites with interactions up to next nearest neighbours at temperature $temp=0$. This is achieved with the class `NNHamiltonian(L, h, J_onsite, J_nn, J_nnn, temp=0)` . To keep things simple we will make the system a dimer and we will not apply a magnetic field:

In [141...

```
# 1) SET VALUES FOR INPUTS:

L=2                                     # <-- Dimer
h = [[0, 0, 0]]                        # <-- No applied field
J_onsite = np.zeros((3, 3))             # <-- No onsite interaction
J_nnn = np.zeros((3, 3))                # <-- No nnn interaction
J_nn = [[1, 0, 0], [0, 1, 0], [0, 0, 1]] # <-- Diagonal nn interaction

# 2) CREATE THE HAMILTONIAN:

HAMILTONIAN = NNHamiltonian(L, h, J_onsite, J_nn, J_nnn, temp=0)
```

NNHamiltonian(L, h, J_onsite, J_nn, J_nnn, temp=0) is one of three classes of Hamiltonians. The others can be found in bin/hamiltonians.py .

Note that the object is not just the Hamiltonian. It includes the temperature as well. The Hamiltonian itself can be extracted using `get_init_ham()` :

In [142...

```
H=HAMILTONIAN.get_init_ham()
```

The Hamiltonian `H` is not an array, it is a sparse matrix object (from `scipy.sparse`). Therefore, only the matrix elements that are non zero are stored. If we try to print `H` we will get a list of its non-zero elements:

In [143...

```
print(H)
```

```
(0, 0)      (0.5+0j)
(1, 1)      (-0.5+0j)
(1, 2)      (1+0j)
(2, 1)      (1+0j)
(2, 2)      (-0.5+0j)
(3, 3)      (0.5+0j)
```

Note the factor of "2" in the definition of the Hamiltonian.

Let us now find the ground-state energy and state vector:

In [144...

```
GROUND_STATE=SijCalculator.find_gs_sparse(H)
print("Ground state energy = ",GROUND_STATE[0],"\nGround state vec
```

```
Ground state energy = [-1.5]
Ground state vector =
[[-0.  +0.j ]
 [ 0.28-0.65j]
 [-0.28+0.65j]
 [ 0.  +0.j ]]
```

Note that we have used `np.round` to write the grounds state with only 2 decimal points for clarity.

We can also work with a dense-matrix representation:

```
In [145... H_DENSE=H.todense()
```

```
In [146... print(H_DENSE)
```

```
[[ 0.5+0.j  0. +0.j  0. +0.j  0. +0.j]
 [ 0. +0.j -0.5+0.j  1. +0.j  0. +0.j]
 [ 0. +0.j  1. +0.j -0.5+0.j  0. +0.j]
 [ 0. +0.j  0. +0.j  0. +0.j  0.5+0.j]]
```

`find_eigvals` can now be used to find all the energies:

```
In [147... ENERGIES = SijCalculator.find_eigvals(H_DENSE)
```

```
In [148... print(ENERGIES)
```

```
[ 0.5+0.j -1.5+0.j  0.5+0.j  0.5+0.j]
```

Now we can carry out the fitness landscape analysis.

In order to do this we need to set a few parameters that specify the type of fitness landscape we want to explore and how.

First, we need to set up a randomizer. There are several available, they are all in `randomizer.py`. Here we use `RandomizerStateRandomDelta` which creates random state vectors the real and imaginary parts of whose amplitudes are picked from a flat probability distribution centred on those of a given input state.

```
In [149... delta= 0.5
no_of_processes= 64
RANDOMIZER = RandomizerStateRandomDelta(HAMILTONIAN, delta, no_of_
```

Now, set up our exploration of the fitness landscape using `StabilityAnalysisSparse` from `stability_analysis_class.py`:

```
In [150... corr = ["Sxx", "Sxy", "Sxz", "Syx", "Syy", "Syz", "Szx", "Szy", "S
temp= HAMILTONIAN.temp # <-- Obtain temperature from the Hamilton
save_rhams= "False"    # <-- Do not save random Hamiltonians/stat
temp_type= "value"     # <-- Temperature given explicitly
```

```
In [151... STABILITY_ANALYSIS = StabilityAnalysisSparse(HAMILTONIAN, RANDOMIZ
```

Finally, we generate the data by using `generate_random_Sij_sparse` which is found in `stability_analysis_class.py`:

In [153...

```
no_of_samples= 5
dist, en, diffSij, diffSq, Sqs, Sij, Sqints, Sq_int=EXAMPLE=STABI
```

The output is a list of 8 objects so instead of storing it in a single variable we have directly stored it in 8 conveniently-named variables. Let us now see what each of them contains.

`dist` contains the distances of the random states to the ground state of the reference Hamiltonian:

In [154...

```
dist
```

Out[154...

```
[0.0016824121457618135,
 0.00029454398505979196,
 0.016930044619712148,
 0.03324221366399849,
 0.12442835046299772]
```

`en` contains the corresponding ground state energies:

In [155...

```
print(en)
```

```
[array([0.00336482+0.j]), array([0.00058909+0.j]), array([0.033860
09+0.j]), array([0.06648443-1.11022302e-16j]), array([0.2488567+0.
j])]
```

`diffSij` contains the distances between real-space correlators:

In [156...

```
diffSij
```

Out[156...

```
[0.002278734315252842,
 0.0009534602108327649,
 0.00722863916203547,
 0.010129137420771941,
 0.019596890536841664]
```

`Sqs` contains the reciprocal space expressions of all the random correlators, computed on a 100×100 grid in \mathbf{q} -space. To be more explicit, let

$$\rho_{i,j}^{\alpha,\beta} [\psi_n^{\text{rand}}] \equiv \langle \psi_n^{\text{rand}} | S_i^\alpha S_j^\beta | \psi_n^{\text{rand}} \rangle$$

represent the correlator between the component α of the spin at site i and the component β of the spin at site j ($\alpha, \beta = x, y, z; i, j = 0, 1, \dots, L-1$). We define the reciprocal of this quantity as

$$\tilde{\rho}^{\alpha,\beta} [\psi_n^{\text{rand}}] (\mathbf{q}) \equiv \sum_{i,j=0}^{L-1} e^{i\mathbf{q} \cdot (\mathbf{R}_i - \mathbf{R}_j)} \rho_{i,j}^{\alpha,\beta} [\psi_n^{\text{rand}}]$$

Note that this is not the same as a Fourier transform, as the quantity $\rho_{i,j}^{\alpha,\beta} [\psi_n^{\text{rand}}]$ does not depend only on $\mathbf{R}_i - \mathbf{R}_j$ but in general depends on \mathbf{R}_i and \mathbf{R}_j

independently. Indeed, this will be the case for a magnetic molecule sitting somewhere in space, since the structure is not periodic in this case. For the same reason, the vector \mathbf{q} is not restricted to a discretised lattice. It represents the momentum transferred between the sample and the neutron, which can vary continuously. In the code we discretise the values of the two-dimensional vector $\mathbf{q} = (q_x, q_y)$ by allowing 100 values of q_x and 100 values of q_y , each uniformly distributed between -2π and $+2\pi$ (giving 10000 values of the wave vector \mathbf{q} in total).

TO DO: Generalise this, it should be possible to change how fine the \mathbf{q} -grid is and also to extend the \mathbf{q} values further out e.g. to 3π or focus on a smaller part of \mathbf{q} -space, e.g. if we are looking at a big molecule there will be lots of detail at small \mathbf{q} .

The structure of `Sqs` is best illustrated through a couple of examples. For instance, in our case,

```
Sqs[3]["Sxy"][23][76]
```

contains the value of $\tilde{\rho}^{x,y}[\psi_3^{\text{rand}}](\mathbf{q})$ at a wave vector \mathbf{q} given by the coordinates (23, 76) on our discretised reciprocal grid:

In [167...

```
print(Sqs[3]["Sxy"][23][76])
```

```
(-0.005867325933629966-0.0045669562629151j)
```

Similarly

```
Sqs[2]["Syy"][10][35]
```

contains the value of $\tilde{\rho}^{y,y}[\psi_2^{\text{rand}}](\mathbf{q})$ at a wave vector \mathbf{q} given by the coordinates (10, 35):

In [168...

```
print(Sqs[2]["Syy"][10][35])
```

```
(0.18493480478284136+0j)
```

Note that the xy correlator is a complex number, while the yy correlator is real.

This makes sense: $\tilde{\rho}^{x,y}[\psi_3^{\text{rand}}]$ is not the expectation value of a Hermitian operator, and in general the sum over i and j will have terms of the form

$$\langle S_i^\alpha S_j^\beta \rangle e^{i \cdot (\mathbf{R}_i - \mathbf{R}_j)} + \langle S_i^\beta S_j^\alpha \rangle e^{-i \cdot (\mathbf{R}_i - \mathbf{R}_j)}$$

The two expectation values are both real but in general they are different, and therefore the imaginary parts of the two exponentials do not cancel. For $\alpha = \beta$, they do.

`Sijs` contains the values of real-space correlators, for instance `Sijs[3]`

`['Sxz'][0][1]` is the value of the xz correlator between the 1st site and the 2nd site in the 3rd random state, $\langle \psi_s^{\text{rand}} | S_n^x S_i^z | \psi_s^{\text{rand}} \rangle$:

```
In [170... Sijs[3]['Sxz'][0][1]
```

```
Out[170... (-0.031917074874466+0j)
```

Similarly, `Sqints` and `Sq_int`:

```
In [193... print("Dimensions of Sqints:",len(Sqints),len(Sqints[0]),len(Sqint
```

Dimensions of Sqints: 5 100 100

```
In [190... Sqints[4][99][99]
```

```
Out[190... 0.4767306353738547
```

```
In [194... Sq_int
```

```
Out[194... [0.00020491065213567046,
8.032773536748678e-06,
0.060670416995147844,
0.26579703465365156,
1.1449728311755316]
```