

Fields institute mini-course: Lecture 5

April 18, 2018

Today

Eigensystem.

* 1D eig. vs. eigS

* 2D (3D)

- Specific observations/comments about single particle Schrodinger operator in 2D (3D)
- Subspace methods.

Electrostatics { singular sources, & doping
solution in 2D & 3D.

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In sample codes (<https://github.com/canderson6151/SP1D>) to compute the eigensystem I use eig and not eigS.

```
[eigVecTemp, eigValues] = eig(full(A));
```

Since A is represented as a sparse matrix, alternately one can use

```
[eigVecTemp, eigValues] = eigs(A);
```

I went to the trouble of creating sparse representations - so why not use eigS? I don't know how well eigS works since I've not used eigS extensively, so I use eig, a function that I've used many times. When the grid size gets large, using eig may lead to inefficiencies. Things to do

(1) investigate the use of eigS vs. eig

(2) investigate both when requesting only a small # of eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

For the eigensystem problems for 2D & 3D Schrodinger-Poisson - you will definitely want to use eigS (if you are doing it in Matlab).

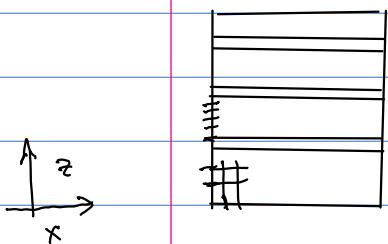
References:

* Parlett "The Symmetric Eigenvalue Problem"

* Golub and Van Loan "Matrix Computations" Chap. 8. (8.2.4)

Schrodinger - Poisson eigen system 2D (3D)

* Assume the effective mass is constant as a function of z . Domain periodic in x .

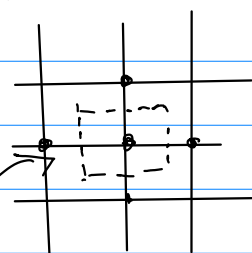


$$\left[\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \Delta + v(x) \right] \psi = \lambda \psi$$

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$$

Grid? z : semi-uniform
 x : uniform

set up discrete approximation, using finite
/ volume discretization for example.



↓
A discrete symmetric
linear operator on the
grid solves

integrate equation
over control volume and use
divergence theorem.

$$S_n: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ (matrix representation of
the operator)

$n \sim \#$ of grid points (not exactly equal because the boundary points aren't
used)

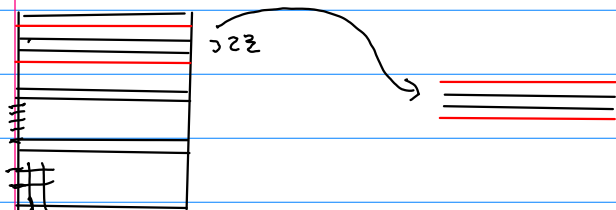
n can be large, $100 \times 100 = 10,000$

$$1000 \times 100 = 100,000$$

$$(3D) \quad 100 \times 100 \times 100 = 1M.$$

Very large eigen problems

One may be able to reduce the size of the problem by only
computing eigenfunctions in layers near the quantum wells



pull out quantum wells and
immediately adjacent wells

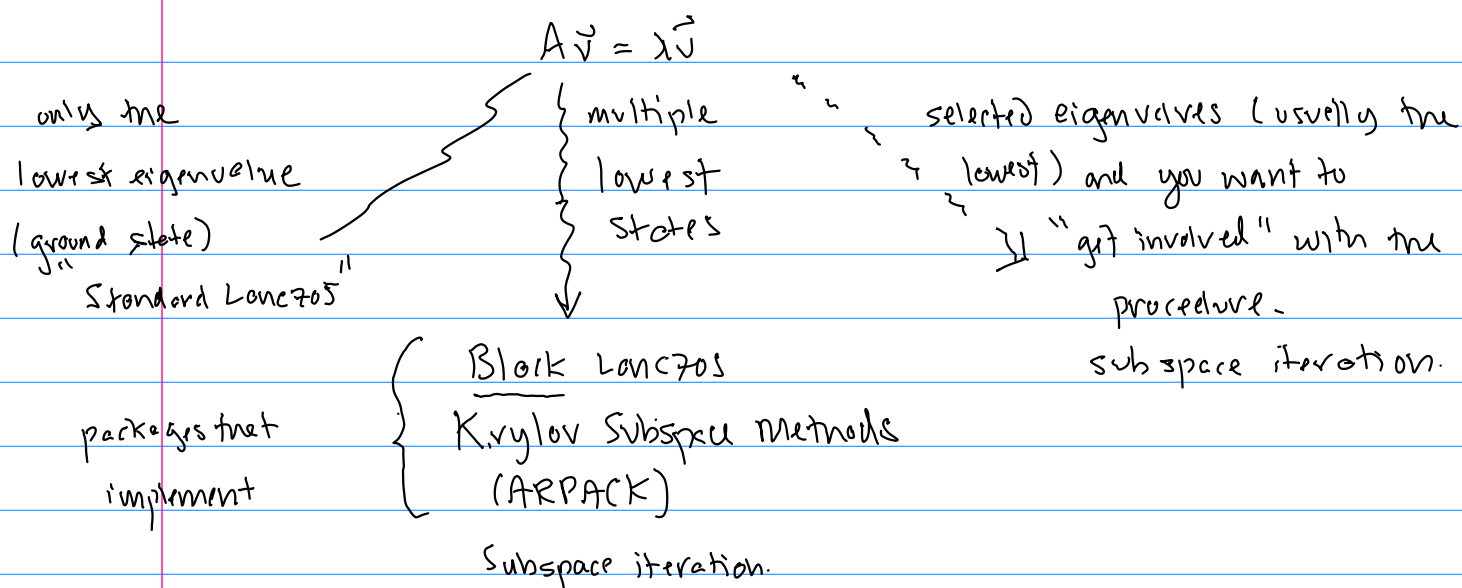
Don't use a grid where
you know the wave functions will be 0.

How do you know which wells are isolated? Use a 1D solution with, say a locally averaged potential, to get an idea of the vertical extent of the wavefunction.

Exercise for 1D code: Compare solutions of eigenproblem solved over the whole domain with solutions created locally.

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Even if you are able to localize the calculation, you still have a large (high dimensional) eigenproblem. Generally, to reduce the computation time you choose methods that only compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors you need.



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I want to spend time on just discussing the general task of solving eigenproblems, and then discuss subspace iteration.

A way to get a general idea about why the methods I mentioned work.

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Eigensystem problems associated with multi (>1) dimensional linear operators. Assume self-adjoint operators.

$$Sv = \lambda v \quad v(\vec{x}): \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

↑ multi-dimensional

differential operator

Solution techniques?

One way:

Choose a set of functions $\{q_j(\vec{x})\}_{j=1}^P$ and assume

$$v(\vec{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^P c_j q_j(\vec{x})$$

To get a set of equations, insert representation into $Sv = \lambda v$ and form inner products with q_i 's.

$$\langle q_i, S \sum_{j=1}^P c_j q_j \rangle = \langle q_i, \sum_{j=1}^P c_j q_j \rangle \quad \text{for } i=1 \dots P$$

↓

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$$\begin{pmatrix} S \\ S \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_P \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_P \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{S}_{ij} = \langle q_i, S q_j \rangle \quad \tilde{O}_{ij} = \langle q_i, q_j \rangle$$

If the $\{q_j\}$ are not orthonormal $\Rightarrow \tilde{O}_{ij}$ will not be the identity so one has a generalized eigenproblem.

If the set of vectors $\{q_j\}$ are good approximation to the desired set of eigenvalues and eigenvectors, this isn't a bad idea. If P isn't too large there are routines in LAPACK or matlab calls that can be used to solve generalized eigenproblems.

However,

(a) You need to choose/find the q_j 's. Also, you don't necessarily know which eigenvalues and eigenvectors you are approximating.

(b) You need a systematic way to choose additional q_j 's to improve accuracy.

(c) The matrix \tilde{S} is typically a dense matrix (mostly all entries are non-zero) so that the computational cost of solving the generalized eigenproblem is $O(P^3)$. When P gets large, this can be prohibitively expensive, or require that sophisticated solution procedures be developed.

(d) It's a generalized eigenvalue problem, and the perturbation theory and error estimation are more complicated than for standard eigenvalue problems

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Even with such concerns, it is a not so uncommon technique used to determine eigenfunctions and eigenvalues.

What else can be done? Instead of using analytic functions, use functions represented on a grid. This choice has more consequences besides expanding the number of degrees of freedom used to represent the eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

Suppose you can approximate S by a symmetric operator on a grid?

$$V(x) \sim \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \vec{v} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad S v \approx S_n \vec{v}$$

So, one approximates the eigensystem problem by $S \vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}$ & $S_n \vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}$.

How to solve $S_n \vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}$?

In matrix form

$$S_n \vec{v} \rightarrow A \vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v} \quad A : \begin{pmatrix} \# \text{ grid} \\ \text{points} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} \# \text{ grid} \\ \text{points} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} 2D \\ \Rightarrow 160 \times 160 \\ \Rightarrow 10,000 \times \\ 10,000 \end{array}$$

$\Rightarrow A$ large (but sparse)

How to reduce the size of the matrix we need to work with?

Use the same idea as in the continuous operator case.

Choose set of $\{\vec{q}_j\}_{j=1}^P$ of grid functions, assume $\vec{v} = \sum_{j=1}^P c_j \vec{q}_j$
plug in and obtain

$$\underbrace{A}_{\sim} \vec{c} = \lambda \underbrace{C}_{\sim} \vec{c} \quad A_{i,j} = \langle \vec{q}_i, \vec{q}_j \rangle_n \quad C_{i,j} = \langle \vec{q}_i, \vec{q}_j \rangle_n$$

A generalized eigenproblem.

!!!
 \Rightarrow But, it's easy to orthonormalize a set of grid functions
(modified gram-schmidt, QR decomposition, etc.)

Therefore given $\{\vec{q}_j\}_{j=1}^P \rightsquigarrow$ make them orthonormal $\{\vec{q}_j\}_{j=1}^P$
and we therefore can always obtain a standard
eigenproblem $\hat{A} \vec{c} = \lambda \vec{c}$

There are good, and very accurate methods for finding eigenvectors of small to medium size dense matrices.

What about choosing the \vec{y}_j 's? This is where subspace iteration comes (or Krylov subspace, or vectors in Lanczos method ...)

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### Subspace iteration.

General subspace iteration with a fixed size subspace.  $A: n \times n$  symmetric.

- Choose  $r$  = dimension of a subspace

-  $n \times r$   $Q_0$  s.t.  $Q_0^T Q_0 = I$ .  $Q_0 = [\vec{q}_0 \dots \vec{q}_r]$  ( $S_r = \text{span}\{\vec{q}_j\}_{j=1}^r$ )

"Enrichment"

For  $k=1, 2, 3 \dots$

$$Z_k = F(A) Q_{k-1}$$

$F(A) = A$ : <sup>Normal</sup> orthogonal or simultaneous iteration

"Orthonormalization"

$$\tilde{Q}_k R_k = Z_k$$

$F(A) = A^{-1}$ : Inverse Subspace iteration

"Diagonalization"

$$\tilde{Q}_k^T A \tilde{Q}_k \tilde{C} = \tilde{\Theta} \tilde{C}$$

$F(A) = p(A)$ :  $p, q$  polynomials

$$\underbrace{\tilde{u}_i^k = \tilde{Q}_k \tilde{C}_i}_{\text{approx. eigenvectors}} \quad \underbrace{\lambda_i^k = \tilde{\Theta}_i}_{\text{approx. eigenvalues}}$$

$$F(A) = q^{-1}(A) p(A)$$

"Update"

$$Q_k = U_k = [\tilde{u}_1^k \tilde{u}_2^k \dots \tilde{u}_r^k]$$

check for convergence.

The design goal for  $F$  is to pick a function that enriches the subspace with components of the eigenvectors you want.

What eigenvectors and eigenvalues do the approximations converge to?

$F(A) = A$  ?  $\vec{u}_i$ ; corresponding to  $\lambda_i$  for which  $|\lambda_i|$  is largest.

$F(A) = A^{-1}$  ?  $\vec{u}_i$ ; corresponding to  $\lambda_i$  for which  $\frac{1}{|\lambda_i|}$  are largest

$F(A) = P(A)$  ?  $\vec{u}_i$ ; corresponding to  $\lambda_i$  for which  $|p(\lambda_i)|$  are largest.

$F(A) = \frac{p(A)}{q(A)}$  :  $\vec{u}_i$ ; corresponding to  $\lambda_i$  for which  $\frac{|p(\lambda_i)|}{|q(\lambda_i)|}$  are largest.

To find eigenvalues of smallest magnitude, one can use  $F(A) = A^{-1}$ .

Q: Isn't it expensive? Requires  $A^{-1}$ . If you have an efficient method for solving  $A\vec{z} = \vec{q}$  ( $\vec{z} = A^{-1}\vec{q}$ ) then this may be an acceptable procedure.

or

What's going on in the "enrichment" step? If  $\vec{v}_i, \lambda_i$  are the eigenvectors of  $A$  then given  $\vec{w} = \sum_j \beta_j \vec{v}_j$

$$A\vec{w} = \sum_j \lambda_j \beta_j \vec{v}_j \quad \beta_j' = \lambda_j \beta_j \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{components of large} \\ \text{eigenvalues get boosted} \\ \text{relative to smaller} \\ \text{eigenvalues} \end{array} \right)$$

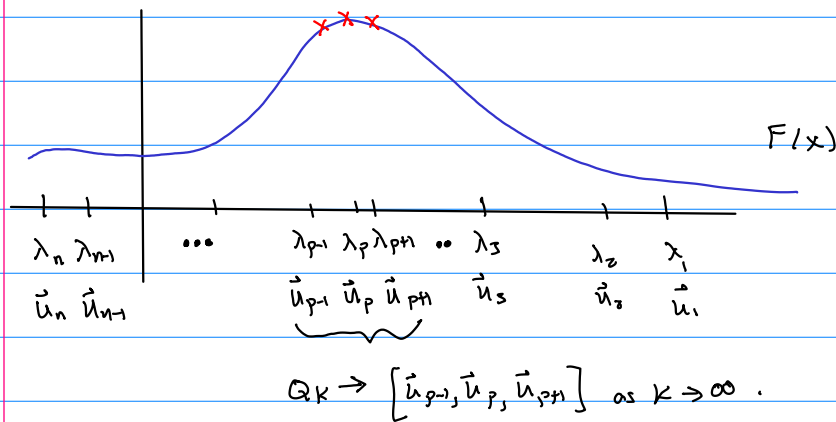
$$A^{-1}\vec{w} = \sum_j \frac{1}{\lambda_j} \beta_j \vec{v}_j \quad \beta_j' = \frac{1}{\lambda_j} \beta_j \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{components of smallest} \\ \text{eigenvalues get boosted} \\ \text{relative to larger} \\ \text{eigenvalues} \end{array} \right)$$

$$\frac{p(A)}{q(A)}\vec{w} = \sum_j \frac{p(\lambda_j)}{q(\lambda_j)} \beta_j \vec{v}_j$$

$\left( \begin{array}{l} \text{components where} \\ p(\lambda_j)/q(\lambda_j) \text{ is largest} \\ \text{get boosted.} \end{array} \right)$



Suppose one applies the procedure with  $r=3$  and where  $F(x)$  has the following form.



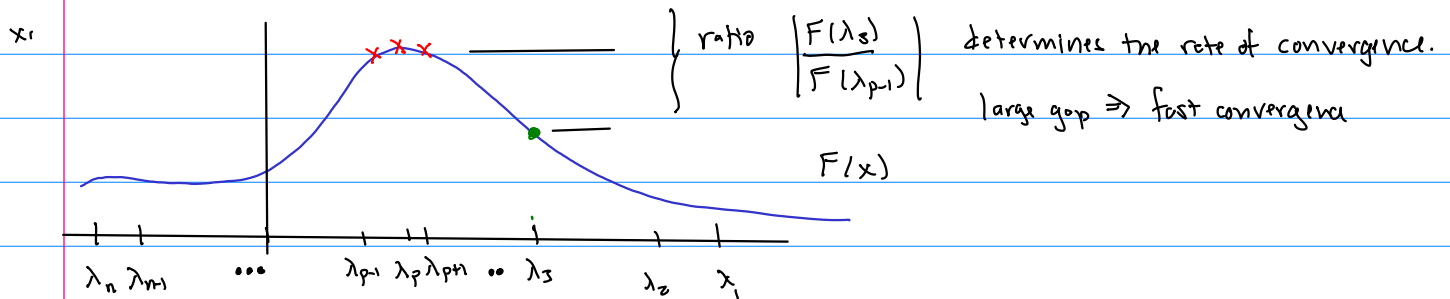
The subspace the method will converge to will be the eigenvectors  $\vec{u}_{p-1}, \vec{u}_p, \vec{u}_{p+1}$  since  $|F(\lambda_{p-1})|, |F(\lambda_p)|, |F(\lambda_{p+1})|$  are the largest.

∴ the eigenvalues of  $Q_k^T A Q_k$  will converge to  $\lambda_{p-1}, \lambda_p, \lambda_{p+1}$ .

Results in § 8.2.1 for orthogonal iteration applied to  $F(A)$  imply that when using a subspace of size  $r$  the rate of convergence of the subspace  $Q_k$  is proportional to

$$\left| \frac{F(\tilde{\lambda}^*)}{F(\tilde{\lambda})} \right|^k \quad \tilde{\lambda} = \arg \min_{\lambda_j \notin D} |F(\lambda_j)| \quad \lambda^* = \arg \max_{\lambda_j \notin D} |F(\lambda_j)|$$

where  $D = r$  eigenvalues corresponding to the largest values of  $F(\lambda_j)$ .



Want to find eigenvalues + eigenvector in a given range?

Idea: Choose  $p(x)/q(x)$  so that  $|p(x)/q(x)|$  is largest when  $x =$  desired  $\lambda_j$ 's.

Standard examples.

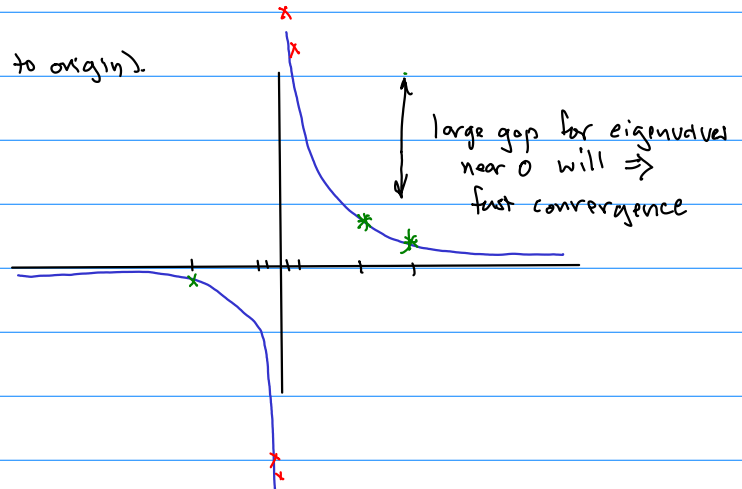
- Eigenvalues of smallest moduls (closest to origin).

Use  $F(A) = A^{-1}$  ( $p(x)/q(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ )

convergence rate:

$$\left| \frac{1}{\lambda_{n-r}} \right| / \left| \frac{1}{\lambda_{n-(r-1)}} \right| = \left| \frac{\lambda_{n-(r-1)}}{\lambda_{n-r}} \right|^k$$

"Inverse Subspace Iteration."



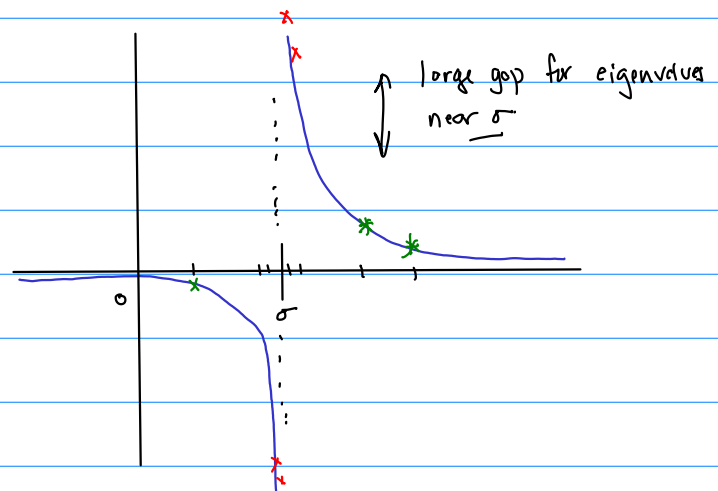
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- Eigenvalues close to a value  $\sigma$ .

$$F(A) = (A - \sigma)^{-1}$$

$\rightarrow$  One can get very rapid convergence for eigenvalues near  $\sigma$ .

"Inverse subspace iteration with shift".



This is fine, but one has to be able to apply  $A^{-1}$  or  $(A - \sigma)^{-1}$ .

\* If  $A$  is large then this  $\Rightarrow$  need to be able to solve rapidly large linear systems.

\* Generally you pick  $\sigma$  near the eigenvalues of interest.

Unfortunately  $\Rightarrow A - \sigma$  is nearly (or is) singular  $\Rightarrow$  complications in applying  $(A - \sigma)^{-1}$ .

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Some ways around the complications:

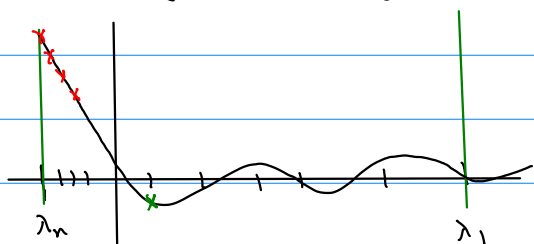
(1) If it's acceptable to use Gaussian Elimination with partial pivoting, then solving  $(A - \sigma)u = f$ , even when  $A - \sigma$  is nearly singular is "ok".

I'll demonstrate this. Justification given in Parlett, or, work out what happens when GE with partial pivoting is applied to a small singular system.

(2) Don't use  $A^{-1}$  or  $(A - \sigma)^{-1}$ ; avoid inverses by using a  $p(x)$  st.  $|p(x)|$  is large when  $x = \lambda_j$ 's of interest.

Example:

Algebraically smallest eigenvalues?

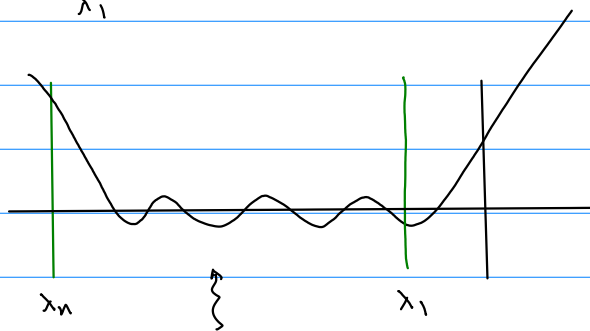


Choose  $p(x)$  so  $|p(\lambda_j)|$  largest for  $j = n, n-1, \dots, n-r+1$

Idea?

Chebyshev polynomial.

$C_k(x)$



Choose degree and scale so polynomial

"Rayleigh-Chebyshev method"

has this form.

- Origin of the idea due to Lanczos, extended to subspaces & added adaptivity.

✗

Generally, if you are going to construct good  $p(x)$ 's you need to have estimates of the spectral range  $[\lambda_n, \lambda_1]$  - Fortunately Lanczos's method is particularly good at this.

For details on this see the reference:

C.R. Anderson, "A Rayleigh-Chebyshev procedure for finding the smallest eigenvalues and associated eigenvectors of large sparse Hermitian matrices", J. Comput. Phys. 229, 7477-7487, (2010).