Yu, Jimmy
https://github.com/jkyu

The Davidson Subspace Method

Summary

The Davidson method, also called "Davidson-Liu" or "Block Davidson" or some combination of those terms, is a subspace method for obtaining the smallest (or largest) eigenvalues and their associated eigenvectors for a given matrix. The need for such a method arises when it is unnecessary to solve the standard eigenvalue decomposition problem, which simultaneously yields all of the eigenvalues and eigenvectors. For instance, one may be interested in only several eigenvectors (perhaps as part of principal component analysis?), and performing the full matrix decomposition may feel unnecessary.

The Davidson method has become a ubiquitous part of electronic structure algorithms as the means by which the electronic Schrödinger equation is solved in order to obtain low-lying eigenstates of the system. The full Hamiltonian matrix for even moderately-sized molecular systems can required hundreds of gigabytes (or more!) of storage, rendering direct eigendecomposition (or even explicit computation of the Hamiltonian itself) computationally intractable under most circumstances. The Davidson method was in fact developed for this very purpose by Ernest Davidson in 1978 [1]. The following will be a brief dive into the theory behind the method.

The subspace eigenvalue problem

Suppose we have a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ for which we want the lowest eigenvalues, $\{\lambda_i\}$, and their associated eigenvectors, $\{u_i\}$. That is:

$$\mathbf{A}u_i = \lambda_i u_i \tag{1}$$

For whatever reason (computational limitations, efficiency, etc.), we would like to solve for $\{\lambda_i\}$ and $\{u_i\}$ without performing an eigendecomposition directly. We will proceed by solving the eigenvalue problem within a subspace spanned by some orthonormal basis $\{v_j\}$, which populate the columns of a matrix $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, where m is the number of vectors in the basis set $\{v_j\}$ and n is the dimension the matrix $\mathbf{A}$.

Let $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ be the projection of $\mathbf{A}$ in the subspace spanned by $\{v_i\}$. Solving for the eigenvectors of $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ yields:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}}\tilde{u}_i = \tilde{\lambda}_i \tilde{u}_i \tag{2}$$

where

$$\tilde{u}_i = \sum_j c_{ij} v_j = \mathbf{V} c_i \tag{3}$$

That is, $\tilde{u}_i$ can be expressed as a linear combination of the basis vectors $\{v_j\}$ with coefficients c_{ij}. Alternatively, this can be expressed as a matrix-vector product between the coefficient vector c_i and the matrix $\mathbf{V}$. The true eigenvector u_i is therefore approximated by $\tilde{u}_i$ obtained via eigendecomposition of $\mathbf{A}$ projected into the subspace $\mathbf{V}$.

The orthogonal residuals

What can be done with this approximation to u_i? Consider a quantity r_i defined as:

$$r_i \equiv \mathbf{A}\tilde{u}_i - \tilde{\lambda}_i\tilde{u}_i \tag{4}$$

This is some residual resulting from the approximate nature of $\tilde{u}_i$. If $\tilde{u}_i = u_i$, the residual would be exactly zero. Under the assumption that $\tilde{u}_i$ is the best possible approximation to u_i within the subspace $\mathbf{V}$, the accuracy of the approximation is limited by the subspace itself. Then components outside of $\{v_j\}$ are required in order to more accurately approximate u_i and reduce the residual r_i. In other words, the residual is orthogonal to the subspace $\mathbf{V}$:

$$r_i \equiv (\mathbf{A}\tilde{u}_i - \tilde{\lambda}_i\tilde{u}_i) \perp \{v_j\} \tag{5}$$

The main idea behind the Davidson method derives from this orthogonality condition. In order to obtain the best approximation $\tilde{u}_i$ to u_i, the residual r_i must be minimized. The Davidson method approaches this by augmenting the subspace $\mathbf{V}$ with basis vectors that were "missing" from $\{v_j\}$ and then solving the subspace eigenvalue problem again in the augmented subspace. The assumption is that this "missing" information is contained in the residual vector r_i. By iteratively solving the subspace eigenvalue problem and augmenting the subspace, $\tilde{u}_i$ eventually converges to u_i. In the worst case, this requires reaching the point where $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{A}$, i.e., where $\{v_j\}$ has expanded to the point where $\mathbf{A} \in \text{span}(\{v_j\})$. Needless to say, the worst case is worse than having directly attempted the eigendecomposition of $\mathbf{A}$.

The Davidson algorithm

Now with some intuition behind the method, we can proceed to a description of the algorithm and a representation of the method in quantities that are amenable to code. From equations (3) and (5), we obtain the following relationship due to orthogonality:

$$r_i^*\mathbf{V} = (\mathbf{A}\tilde{u}_i - \tilde{\lambda}_i\tilde{u}_i)^*\mathbf{V} = 0 \tag{6}$$

$$\implies \tilde{u}_i^*\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{V} - \tilde{\lambda}_i\tilde{u}_i^*\mathbf{V} = 0 \tag{7}$$

$$\implies \tilde{u}_i^*\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{V} = \tilde{\lambda}_i\tilde{u}_i^*\mathbf{V} \tag{8}$$

$$\implies (\mathbf{V}c_i)^*\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{V} = \tilde{\lambda}_i(\mathbf{V}c_i)^*\mathbf{V} \tag{9}$$

$$\implies c_i^*\mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{V} = \tilde{\lambda}_i c_i^*\mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{V} \tag{10}$$

$$\implies c_i^*\mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{V} = \tilde{\lambda}_i c_i^* \tag{11}$$

$$\implies \mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}c_i = \tilde{\lambda}_i c_i \tag{12}$$

where equation (11) follows from the orthonormality of $\mathbf{V}$, i.e., $\mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$, and equation (12) results from take the complex conjugate of both sides of equation (11). Notice that equation (12) is the subspace eigenvalue problem solved at each step of the iterative Davidson process, as $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}$ is exactly the projection of $\mathbf{A}$ into the subspace $\mathbf{V}$. Rewriting this more compactly yields:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}}c_i = \tilde{\lambda}_i c_i \tag{13}$$

Diagonalizing $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ yields c_i and $\tilde{\lambda}_i$, and $\tilde{u}_i$ can be obtained from equation (3). The residual r_i can then be computed as:

$$r_i = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}c_i - \tilde{\lambda}_i\mathbf{V}c_i \tag{14}$$

r_i can then be appended to $\mathbf{V}$ and the next iteration can proceed with a more complete subspace. Once $r_i \approx 0$ according to some error metric (l_2 error being a simple one), $\mathbf{V}$ essentially includes all basis vectors of $\mathbf{A}$ necessary to fully describe the eigenvector u_i.

A few considerations before writing down the recipe for the Davidson algorithm:

- It is often desirable to work with an orthonormal basis set at each step. This can be done by orthonormalizing the subspace basis set $\{v_j\}$ after it is expanded. A QR decomposition or an explicit Gram-Schmidt procedure can easily achieve this. However, it has recently been reported that orthogonalization without normalization may accelerate convergence via a "balancing" process [2].

- A subspace for the initial projection of $\mathbf{A}$ is required. The basis vectors that comprise this set are often termed "trial vectors." For diagonally dominant spatially sparse matrices, the unit basis vectors may be an appropriate choice. For some applications, a more more physically motivated choice may make sense, e.g., a Davidson method implemented for configuration interaction may employ unit vectors ordered according to Koopman energies. Proper selection of trial vectors can have an impact on the rate of convergence.

- Often in electronic structure codes, the Hamiltonian matrix is not explicitly computed and stored. Instead of projecting the Hamiltonian into the subspace, the matrix-vector product $\sigma = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}\tilde{\mathbf{u}}$ is formed directly in the subspace.

- Additionally, a variety of preconditioning techniques may accelerate the convergence and improve the stability of the Davidson iterations.

Without further delay, the Davidson algorithm can be summarized as follows:

Algorithm 1 Davidson-Liu algorithm for obtaining extreme eigenvalues and their corresponding eigenvectors

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1: **procedure** Davidson-Liu($\mathbf{A}$, n_{evecs}, convergence_threshold)
2:      Form orthonormal set of trial vectors $\{v_j\}$ for the initial subspace $\mathbf{V}$
3:      **while** $\max(\{\text{norm}(r_i)\}) <$ convergence_threshold **do**
4:          Orthonormalize the subspace basis vectors
5:          Project A into the subspace: $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{V}$
6:          Solve the subspace eigenvalue problem: $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}c_i = \tilde{\lambda}_i c_i$
7:          Compute the set of residuals $\{r_i\}$ for each desired eigenvector: $r_i = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}c_i - \tilde{\lambda}_i\mathbf{V}c_i$
8:          Append the set of residuals $\{r_i\}$ to the subspace basis $\{v_j\}$
9:      **end while**
10: **end procedure**

References

[1] Ernest R. Davidson. *Matrix Eigenvector Methods*, pages 95–113. Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht, 1983.

[2] Robert M. Parrish, Edward G. Hohenstein, and Todd J. Martnez. balancing the block davidsonliu algorithm. *Journal of Chemical Theory and Computation*, 12(7):3003–3007, 2016. PMID: 27253494.