Quantum Monte-Carlo Studies of Generalized Many-body Systems

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- 2 Live Demo
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$$\widehat{\mathbf{P}}(au)\ket{\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}} = \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_0) au)\ket{\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}}$$

$$\begin{split} \widehat{\mathbf{P}}(\tau) |\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}\rangle &= \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_0)\tau) |\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}\rangle \\ &= \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_0)\tau) \sum_k C_k |\Psi_k\rangle \end{split}$$

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where $\Delta E_k > 0$ and $C_k = \langle \Psi_k | \Psi_T \rangle$.

$$\lim_{\tau \to \infty} \langle \mathbf{r} | \, \widehat{\mathbf{P}}(\tau) \, | \Psi_{\mathcal{T}} \rangle = \langle \Psi_0 | \Psi_{\mathcal{T}} \rangle \, \Psi_0(\mathbf{r}). \tag{1}$$

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Solution: Introduce a *trial energy* $E_T(\tau)$. Will work as long as the trial energy drops below E_1 at a certain stage (and stays there).

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In order to relate the projection process to a *Markov chain* Monte-Carlo process, τ needs to be split into sequential steps $\delta \tau$.

This is achieved by using the following property of the projection operator

$$\widehat{\mathbf{P}}(\tau + \delta \tau) = \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_T(\tau + \delta \tau))(\tau + \delta \tau))$$

$$= \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_T(\tau + \delta \tau))\delta \tau)$$

$$\times \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_T(\tau + \delta \tau))\tau)$$

$$\simeq \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_T(\tau + \delta \tau))\delta \tau)\widehat{\mathbf{P}}(\tau),$$

where the relation is approximate due to E_T not being constant.

$$\Phi(\mathbf{r}, \tau + \delta \tau) = \langle \mathbf{r} | \Phi(\tau + \delta \tau) \rangle$$
$$= \langle \mathbf{r} | \widehat{\mathbf{P}}(\tau + \delta \tau) | \Psi_{\tau} \rangle$$

$$\begin{split} \Phi(\mathbf{r}, \tau + \delta \tau) &= \langle \mathbf{r} | \Phi(\tau + \delta \tau) \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{r} | \, \widehat{\mathbf{P}}(\tau + \delta \tau) | \Psi_T \rangle \\ &\simeq \langle \mathbf{r} | \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_T) \delta \tau) \widehat{\mathbf{P}}(\tau) | \Psi_T \rangle \end{split}$$

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where $\langle \mathbf{r} | \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_T)\delta\tau) | \mathbf{r}' \rangle \equiv G(\mathbf{r}', \mathbf{r}; \delta\tau)$ is a *Green's* function interpreted as the transition probability between \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{r}' .

Idea: In order to relate the Green's function to well known Markov processes, the exponential is split

$$\exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{H}} - E_T)\delta\tau) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2\delta\tau - (\widehat{\mathbf{V}} - E_T)\delta\tau\right)$$
$$= \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2\delta\tau\right) \exp(-(\widehat{\mathbf{V}} - E_T)\delta\tau)$$
$$+ \mathcal{O}(\delta\tau^2),$$

where the kinetic part describes a diffusion process with diffusion constant $D=\frac{1}{2}$, and the potential part describes a weighting (linear in position space). This is referred to as the *short time approximation*.

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Solution: By evolving $f(\mathbf{r}, \tau) = \Phi(\mathbf{r}, \tau) \Psi_T(\mathbf{r})$ instead of $\Phi(\mathbf{r}, \tau)$ alone, the singularities are *implicitly* taken care of.

Originally:

$$\frac{\partial \Phi(\boldsymbol{r},\tau)}{\partial \tau} = \left[\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 - \left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{V}} - \boldsymbol{E}_{\mathcal{T}}\right)\right] \Phi(\boldsymbol{r},\tau).$$

Originally:

$$\frac{\partial \Phi(\boldsymbol{r},\tau)}{\partial \tau} = \left[\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 - \left(\widehat{\boldsymbol{V}} - \boldsymbol{E}_{T}\right)\right]\Phi(\boldsymbol{r},\tau).$$

Importance sampled:

$$\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{r},\tau)}{\partial \tau} = \left[\frac{1}{2}\nabla \cdot (\nabla - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r})) - (E_L(\mathbf{r}) - E_T)\right] f(\mathbf{r},\tau), \quad (2)$$

where

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) = 2\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r})^{-1}\nabla\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r}) \tag{3}$$

is the quantum force and

$$E_L(\mathbf{r}) = \Psi_T(\mathbf{r})^{-1} \widehat{\mathbf{H}} \Psi_T(\mathbf{r})$$
 (4)

is the *local energy*.



The Green's functions have closed form solutions on the form

$$\begin{split} & G_{\mathrm{Diff}}(\mathbf{r'},\mathbf{r};\delta\tau) \propto \exp\left(-\left|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r'}-D\delta\tau\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r})\right|^2/4D\delta\tau\right), \\ & G_{\mathrm{B}}(\mathbf{r'},\mathbf{r};\delta\tau) \propto \exp\left(-\left(\frac{1}{2}\left[E_L(\mathbf{r})+E_L(\mathbf{r'})\right]-E_T\right)\delta\tau\right), \end{split}$$

where B denotes branching.

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This is done by introducing the *Jastrow factor* in $\Psi_T(\mathbf{r})$

$$J(\mathbf{r}) = \prod_{i>j}^{N} \exp\left(a_{ij} \frac{r_{ij}}{1 + \beta r_{ij}}\right),\tag{5}$$

where $r_{ij} = |\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|$, N is the number of particles, β is a variational parameter, and a_{ij} is a constant depending on the spin eigenvalues of particles i and j.

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The Jastrow factor is tailored to cancel the singularities in the electron-electron Coulomb interaction as the relative distances decrease.

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Solution: By *fixing* the nodes of $f(\mathbf{r}, \tau)$ to match those of $\Psi_T(\mathbf{r})$, the nodes of $\Phi(\mathbf{r}, \tau)$ will consequently match these as well. This is known as the *fixed node approximation* (FNA).

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Consequence: If the FNA is not redundant, $\Phi(\mathbf{r}, \tau)$ will never converge to the exact ground state.



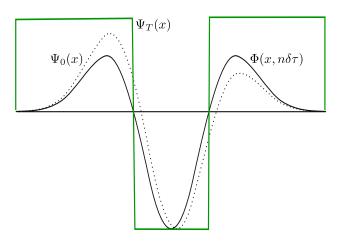


Figure: The fixed node approximation illustrated. The nodes of $\Phi(x, n\delta\tau)$ is fixed to match those of $\Psi_T(x)$.

Branching

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Idea: The weights are modelled by spawning and killing walkers with a rate equal to $G_{\rm B}$.

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Solution: Create floor(G_B) copies with a $G_B - floor(G_B)$ chance of creating an additional copy.

Or more compact: Create

$$\overline{G}_{\mathrm{B}} = \mathrm{floor}(G_{\mathrm{B}} + a)$$
 (6)

copies, where $a \in [0, 1)$ is a uniformly distributed random number. If the value is zero, the walker dies.



Branching

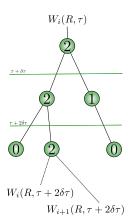


Figure: Branching illustrated. The integer values represent $\overline{G}_{\mathrm{B}}$.

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Anisotropic diffusion process. The quantum force pushes the walkers into regions of higher probability.

According to the Fokker-Planck formalism, a new position \mathbf{r}_{i+1} is calculated from the old one, \mathbf{r}_i , as follows

$$\mathbf{r}_{i+1} = \mathbf{r}_i + D\delta\tau\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}_i) + \xi, \tag{7}$$

where ξ is a vector of normal distributed random numbers with variance $\sqrt{2D\delta\tau}$.



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Solution: The *Metropolis algorithm* will correct this bias:

$$A(i \to j) = \min\{R_G(i \to j)R_{\psi}(i \to j)^2, 1\},\tag{8}$$

where $i \rightarrow j$ denotes a transition from state i to state j, A is the probability of accepting the transition,

$$R_G(i \rightarrow j) = G_{\text{Diff}}(\mathbf{r}_j, \mathbf{r}_i; \delta \tau) / G_{\text{Diff}}(\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{r}_j; \delta \tau),$$

and

$$R_{\psi}(i \rightarrow j) = |\Psi_{T}(\mathbf{r}_{j})/\Psi_{T}(\mathbf{r}_{i})|.$$



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- Diffusion by the Fokker-Planck equation ensures efficient sampling by the use of the quantum force.
- The Metropolis algorithm corrects the bias introduced by a finite step length. Ensures that the walkers follow $|\Psi_T(\mathbf{r})|^2$.
- After each diffusion step, the walker is either killed or cloned based on the value of the branching Green's function. This ensures that the distribution of walkers follows $f(\mathbf{r}, \tau)$ and not $|\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r})|^2$.

Neglecting the branching term results in a method known as *Variational Monte-Carlo* (VMC).

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Corresponds to calculating $\langle \Psi_T | \, \widehat{\bf H} \, | \Psi_T \rangle$ using a standard Monte-Carlo approach

$$\langle \Psi_{\mathcal{T}} | \widehat{\mathbf{H}} | \Psi_{\mathcal{T}} \rangle = \int_{\mathbf{r}} |\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r})|^2 E_{\mathcal{L}}(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r} \simeq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r}_i)} \widehat{\mathbf{H}} \Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r}_i) \quad (9)$$

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Notice that using any other distribution than $|\Psi_T(\mathbf{r})|^2$ to sample the points \mathbf{r}_i results in undefined samples of the local energy.



Variational Monte-Carlo will always result in an energy which is greater or equal to the exact ground state energy

$$\langle \Psi_{T} | \widehat{\mathbf{H}} | \Psi_{T} \rangle = \sum_{ij} C_{i}^{*} C_{j} \underbrace{\langle \Psi_{i} | \widehat{\mathbf{H}} | \Psi_{j} \rangle}_{E_{i} \delta_{ij}}$$

$$= \sum_{i} |C_{i}|^{2} E_{i}$$

$$= \sum_{i} |C_{i}|^{2} (E_{0} + \Delta E_{i})$$

$$= E_{0} \underbrace{\sum_{i} |C_{i}|^{2}}_{1} + \underbrace{\sum_{i} |C_{i}|^{2} \Delta E_{i}}_{\geq 0}$$

$$> E_{0}.$$

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Introducing the variational parameter $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ into the spatial wave function yields

$$\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r}; \alpha, \beta) = |\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{r}; \alpha)^{\uparrow}| |\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{r}; \alpha)^{\downarrow}| J(\mathbf{r}; \beta)$$
 (10)

Diffusion Monte-Carlo

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$$E_{\text{DMC}} = \frac{\int_{\mathbf{r}} f(\mathbf{r}, \tau) \frac{1}{\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r})} \widehat{\mathbf{H}} \Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}}{\int_{\mathbf{r}} f(\mathbf{r}, \tau) d\mathbf{r}} = \frac{\langle \Phi(\tau) | \widehat{\mathbf{H}} | \Psi_{\mathcal{T}} \rangle}{\langle \Phi(\tau) | \Psi_{\mathcal{T}} \rangle}, \quad (11)$$

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which upon convergence of the projection results in $\widehat{\mathbf{H}} |\Phi(\tau)\rangle = E_0 |\Phi(\tau)\rangle$. The energy becomes

$$E_{\rm DMC} = \frac{\langle \Phi(\tau) | E_0 | \Psi_T \rangle}{\langle \Phi(\tau) | \Psi_T \rangle} = E_0. \tag{12}$$

VMC is extremely robust, however, extremely dependent on a good ansatz for $\Psi_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{r})$.

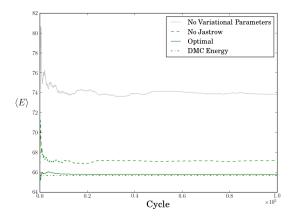


Figure: Comparison of different trial wave functions for a two-dimensional 12-particle quantum dot with unit frequency.

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Solution: Can be countered by choosing a lower time step.

Consequence: Slower convergence. Breaking the requirement of *ergodicity*.

Diffusion Monte-Carlo is not as dependent on the trial wave function as VMC.

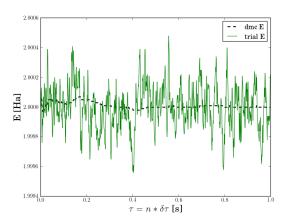


Figure: DMC calculation without the exact wave function. The exact result is $E_0 = 2$. The VMC energy is 2.0042(3), whereas the DMC energy is 2.00000(2).

The basic idea

End of section.

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