

# N-electron valence state perturbation theory based on density matrix renormalization group reference functions, with applications to chromium dimer and photovoltaic polymers

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The second order  $n$ -electron valence state perturbation theory (NEVPT2) is a relatively cheap way to deal dynamic correlation without intruder state problem or level shift, while density matrix renormalization group (DMRG) is able to deal static correlation with a large active space and to provide reference wave functions needed in multireference perturbation theories. We present a method to combine DMRG and NEVPT2 (DMRG-NEVPT2) through the a general algorithm to compute high order reduced density matrices for DMRG wave function. The capacity of DMRG-NEVPT is demonstrated for calculations of chromium dimer potential energy curve and excited states energy of poly(p-phenylene vinylene).

## I. INTRODUCTION

The density matrix renormalization group (DMRG)<sup>1,2</sup> has made it accessible to employ large active spaces for electronic structure problems in quantum chemistry. Nowadays, it has become quite straightforward to use DMRG as a robust numerical solver for static electron correlation problems. Examples are benchmark solutions of small molecules<sup>3</sup>, transition metal clusters<sup>4,5</sup>, also molecular crystals<sup>6</sup>.

In chemical systems, electron interaction across large energy scales brings many other important chemistry, such as low-lying excited states in conjugated polymers, high-spin ground state in transition metals complexes. Qualitative and quantitative characterizations of these systems generally require correlating many electrons within a large number of orbitals. Direct treatment of such problem is generally impossible, but indirect methodology can apply, for example, by expanding the electron correlation outside active spaces. So far, there are methods which follow with this strategy with using large active spaces, for example, to apply perturbation theory to a large active space, or perform canonical transformation to get an effective Hamiltonian. The DMRG method has been embedded with the second-order perturbation theory<sup>7,8</sup>, complete active space perturbation theory (CASPT), and canonical transformation(CT)<sup>9</sup>, etc., to be extended for dynamic correlation. In these methods, high order reduced density matrices are generally needed, which are theoretically straightforward yet computationally non-trivial.

In this work, we developed a general way to compute high order reduced density matrix (RDM) for DMRG wave functions. On the top of RDM calculations, we implemented the second order  $n$ -electron valence state perturbation theory (NEVPT2)<sup>10-12</sup>, an intruder-state-free multireference perturbation theory, with DMRG reference wavefunctions, called DMRG-NEVPT2. Then we applied it to study potential energy curve of chromium dimer and excitation energies of

the quasi-one dimensional photovoltaic molecule poly(p-phenylene vinylene) (PPV). The calculations for the potential energy curve of chromium dimer is one of the most notorious and demanding problems in ab-initio quantum chemistry. This system has been widely studied by many methods<sup>7,13-19</sup>. It is a good system to demonstrate the capacity of DMRG-NEVPT2. PPV has always been of great interest by photophysists and photochemists, as it is well known for its charge-transfer properties upon photoexcitations<sup>20,21</sup>. The first optically bright state  $1^1B_u$  whose polaronic feature is suggested to be responsible for the charge-transfer behavior, is estimated to lie below the  $2^1A_g$  with a small gap of 0.7eV<sup>22</sup>. Many theoretical studies of PPV are based on model Hamiltonian, such as Pariser-Parr-Pople (PPP) model<sup>23,24</sup> or semi-empirical quantum chemistry method<sup>25</sup>. However, ab initio quantum chemistry calculation were hardly reported due to the unaffordable computations to including the dynamic correlation and static correlation at the same time for such a system with many  $\pi$  orbitals, which need to be considered as active space in complete active space (CAS) calculations. With DMRG-NEVPT2, now it is possible to compute the excitation energies and energy orders of different states accurately.

## II. THEORIES

### A. DMRG wavefunction and optimization algorithm

As with other approximate wavefunction methods in quantum chemistry, DMRG is based on an approximate wavefunction ansatz. It is the matrix product state (MPS). A MPS is a non-linear wavefunction, built from contraction of tensors for each orbital in the basis. Limited by the dimension of tensors, called bond dimension,  $M$ , MPS could only explore a small subspace of Hilbert space. By increasing  $M$ , the MPS ansatz will give full configuration interaction (FCI) results. DMRG is a combination of renormalization and truncation algorithms

to find a variational and optimal MPS. In practice, two types of MPS are often used in DMRG calculations: one-site and two-site MPS.

The one-site MPS is defined as

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{n_1, n_2 \dots n_p \dots n_k} \mathbf{A}^{n_1} \mathbf{A}^{n_2} \dots \mathbf{A}^{n_p} \dots \mathbf{A}^{n_k} \quad (1)$$

Here,  $n_i$  is the occupancy of orbital  $i$ , one of  $\{|\rangle, |\uparrow\rangle, |\downarrow\rangle, |\uparrow\downarrow\rangle\}$  and  $k$  is the number of orbitals. For a given  $n_i$ ,  $\mathbf{A}^{n_i}$  is  $M \times M$  matrix, except that the first and last ones. For  $\mathbf{A}^{n_1}$  and  $\mathbf{A}^{n_k}$ , their dimensions are  $1 \times M$  and  $M \times 1$  respectively. This ensures that for a given string  $n_1 n_2 \dots n_k$ , a Slater determinant, the  $\mathbf{A}^{n_1} \mathbf{A}^{n_2} \dots \mathbf{A}^{n_k}$  yields a scalar, the coefficient of the determinant  $|n_1 n_2 \dots n_k\rangle$ .

Similarly, the two-site MPS is defined as

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{n_1, n_2 \dots n_p \dots n_k} \mathbf{A}^{n_1} \mathbf{A}^{n_2} \dots \mathbf{A}^{n_p, n_{p+1}} \dots \mathbf{A}^{n_k} \quad (2)$$

In DMRG sweep algorithm,  $\langle \Psi | \hat{H} | \Psi \rangle$  is variational optimized. And only a single tensor ( $A^{n_i}$  for an one-site MPS or  $A^{n_i, n_{i+1}}$  for a two-site MPS) in the MPS is updated during the sweep at site  $i$ . It can be considered as solving eigenvalue problem of an effective Hamiltonian, which is a  $4M^2 \times 4M^2$  matrix. The multiplication between this effective Hamiltonian and a MPS is usually computed from  $O(k^2)$  operators built on different subspaces of active orbitals spaces. The cost scaling is  $O(k^2 M^3)$  for this eigenvalue problem for one tensor and is  $O(k^3 M^3)$  for a whole sweep optimization.

Compared to an one-site MPS, a two-site MPS has more variational freedom and is able to change quantum numbers during the sweep. It helps avoid local minimums. However, the two-site MPS has N-representation problem: the converged two-site MPS is still different at different position of the sweep.<sup>26</sup> Based on a two-site MPS, expectation values, for example reduced density matrix, which often used to characterize a state and is essential for dynamic correlation calculations, have no unique results. Therefore, the strategy, “two-site to one-site” (a two-site MPS optimization followed by an one-site one), is widely used<sup>5</sup>.

## B. Reduced density matrix (RDM)

High order RDM is widely used for post-CASSCF methods, such as multireference configuration interaction<sup>27</sup> and multireference perturbation theory<sup>12,28</sup>, to include dynamic correlations. For example, multireference perturbation theories, like CASPT2<sup>28</sup> and NEVPT2<sup>12</sup> (The details are in next subsection.), need up to fourth order RDM. Because in DMRG the orbital spaces are partitioned into several blocks, efficient RDM evaluation is not straight forward. The

algorithms to build 2-RDM were proposed by several groups.<sup>26,29</sup> However, they are not feasible for higher order RDM, due to numerous “cases” of partitions and types of operators. Here we introduce a general algorithm to generate a loop for every “case” and to skip computations for redundant elements automatically.

From now on, when we refer a MPS, it means an one-site MPS, because it is needed in evaluation of RDM.

The 2-RDM is defined in this way

$$\gamma_{i,j,k,l} = \sum_{\sigma, \tau} \langle \Psi | a_{i,\sigma}^\dagger a_{j,\tau}^\dagger a_{k,\tau} a_{l,\sigma} | \Psi \rangle \quad (3)$$

It is similar for the higher order RDM.

It is not affordable to build and store  $k^{2N}$  operators used in N-RDM. And for RDM, the expectation value rather than the operators needed. There is no need to build these complicate operators. One efficient way is to distribute the indices (orbital label)  $i, j, k, l$  among different orbital subspace for different blocks in DMRG.<sup>29,30</sup> The complicate operators are the tensor product of small operators on different blocks. And if small operators are contracted with the wave function before doing tensor product. A dot product rather than the tensor product is needed. It is much cheaper. Below are the details.

## 1. Loop for different types of operators and partitions of orbital indices

Operators like  $\hat{O} = \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j^\dagger \dots \hat{a}_m \hat{a}_n \dots$  can be permuted into a form like  $\hat{o}_{i'} \hat{o}_{j'} \dots \hat{o}_{m'} \hat{o}_{n'}$ , with  $i' \leq j' \leq \dots \leq m' \leq n'$  and  $\hat{o}$  is  $\hat{a}$  or  $\hat{a}^\dagger$ . A string with  $N$   $\hat{a}$  and  $N$   $\hat{a}^\dagger$  determines the type of the operator. We call it “type pattern”. Then the string is split into several small pieces according to blocks (orbital subgroups) in DMRG sweep.

There are three blocks in DMRG sweep algorithm. The system block ( $\mathcal{S}$ ) is expanded during the sweep and the operators on it can be easily built on the fly. The dot block ( $\mathcal{D}$ ) is composed of a single site and its operators are extremely simple and cheap. The environment block ( $\mathcal{E}$ ) was computed from  $\mathcal{S}$  in previous sweep in reverse direction, and its operators needed to be precomputed and stored (usually on disk). The  $2N$  orbital labels of  $\hat{O}$  is needed to be partitioned onto the three blocks. It is computationally favorable to put more orbital labels on  $\mathcal{D}$  and put few orbital labels on  $\mathcal{E}$ . And the numbers of orbital labels on  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{E}$  need to be balanced, otherwise number of operators on one block will be extremely big. For most RDM element (not for element like  $\gamma_{0,0,0,0}$ ), at least one orbital label could be put on  $\mathcal{D}$  and at most  $N-1$  orbital labels on  $\mathcal{E}$  by changing the position of the dot site. The set  $\{n_{\mathcal{S}}, n_{\mathcal{D}}, n_{\mathcal{E}}\}$  determines the numbers of orbital labels on different blocks. It is called “number pattern”. In general, every number pattern is valid if the number of orbital labels on  $\mathcal{S}$  is no more than  $N$ , that on  $\mathcal{D}$  is no more than 4 and that on  $\mathcal{E}$  is no more than  $N-1$ , except the edge cases for the first step and last step

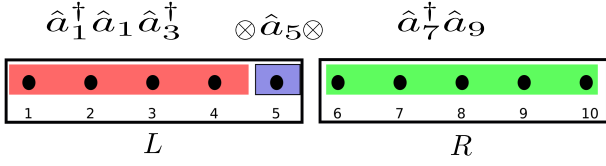


FIG. 1. Evaluation of a three RDM element  $\gamma_{1,3,7;1,5,9}$ .  $\hat{a}_1^\dagger \hat{a}_1 \hat{a}_3^\dagger$  is on  $\mathcal{S}$ ,  $\hat{a}_5$  is on  $\mathcal{D}$ , and  $\hat{a}_7^\dagger \hat{a}_9^\dagger$  is on  $\mathcal{E}$ . It belongs to (3,1,2) “number pattern” and  $(\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a})$  “type pattern”.

in the sweep (in the appendix). And nearly every “type pattern” could be combined with all “number patterns” if with some restrictions (in appendix).

With above process, the types of operators needed on  $\mathcal{S}$ ,  $\mathcal{D}$ , and  $\mathcal{E}$  are determined for each pattern (“type pattern” and “number pattern”). Loop the orbital labels of operators, we can build all operators we need. There are about  $O(N^k)$  operators, most of which are on  $\mathcal{S}$ . The computation for generate these operators are  $O(k^N M^3)$  for one step at the sweep and are  $O(k^{N+1} M^3)$  in total.

## 2. Compute expectation values

After building operators on each block,  $\hat{O}^S$ ,  $\hat{O}^D$ ,  $\hat{O}^E$ , combine  $\hat{O}^S$  and  $\hat{O}^D$  into  $O^L$  on the left block,  $\mathcal{S} \otimes \mathcal{D}$ . (Combining  $\mathcal{E}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  only for RDM calculations is also feasible.) The  $\mathcal{E}$  is the right block. RDM element  $\gamma = \sum_{l,r} \sum_{l',r'} c_{l,r} O_{l,l'}^L O_{r,r'}^R$ , with  $|\Psi\rangle = c_{l,r} |l\rangle |r\rangle$ , can be computed in two step. (1)  $X_{r,r'} = \sum_l \sum_{l'} c_{l,r} O_{l,l'}^L c_{l',r'}$ . (2)  $\gamma = \sum_{r,r'} X_{r,r'} O_{r,r'}^R$ . The reason for contracting wave function with  $O^L$  first is that the dimension of  $O^L$  is  $4M$  while the dimension of  $O^R$  is  $M$ . The number of operation required for forming  $X$  is  $O(k^{N+1} M^3)$  and that for dot product between  $X$  and  $O^R$  is  $O(k^{2N} M^2)$ . The computations for N-RDM are  $O(k^{N+1} M^3 + k^{2N} M^2)$ .

## 3. Spin coupling

With above process, an expectation value like  $\langle \hat{a}_0^\dagger \hat{a}_1^\dagger \hat{a}_2 \hat{a}_3 \rangle$  is obtained. For a non-spinadapted DMRG algorithm (the operators is not a spin tensor), we can get the value of  $\gamma_{0,1,3,2}$  by permuting  $\hat{a}_2$  and  $\hat{a}_3$ . For spinadapted DMRG operators, what we get is a set of  $\langle \hat{a}_0^\dagger \hat{a}_1^\dagger \hat{a}_2 \hat{a}_3 \rangle$  values. They are  $\langle [(\hat{a}_0^\dagger \hat{a}_1^\dagger)_{\mathcal{S}}^{S_1} (\hat{a}_2)_{\mathcal{D}}]^{S_2} (\hat{a}_3)_{\mathcal{E}} \rangle^{S_3}$  with different spins  $S_1, S_2, S_3$ . The spin tensors can be expanded as linear combination of spin orbital operators and linear equations are formed for spin orbital RDM elements. With singlet embedding<sup>31</sup>, expectation values for the spin tensors combinations with non-zero spin are zero, significantly decrease the number of expectation values to compute. The coefficients for these linear equations are the same for the operators with the same pattern and can be gen-

erated automatically and be reused. Computational cost for this process is not related the bond dimension,  $M$  and is ignorable compared to other parts.

The computation of 4RDM, which is needed in DMRG-NEVPT is  $O(k^8 M^2 + k^5 M^3)$ , much higher than that of the standard DMRG optimization. Therefore, the bond dimension of MPS in 4RDM calculations is limited. With the same bond dimension, MPS from a “reverse schedule” sweep is usually better optimized than MPS from standard sweep schedule.<sup>5</sup> All of our NEVPT calculations use MPS optimized through “reverse schedule”.

## C. N-electron valance state perturbation theory

In this section, we briefly review the strongly contracted NEVPT2<sup>11,12</sup>, a second-order multireference perturbation theory. The target zero-order wave function is defined as

$$P_{CAS} H P_{CAS} |\Psi_m^{(0)}\rangle = E_m^{(0)} |\Psi_m^{(0)}\rangle \quad (4)$$

with  $P_{CAS} = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{S}} |I\rangle \langle I|$  is the projector onto the CAS space.

The zero order Hamiltonian is chosen in the form give by Dyall<sup>32</sup>:

$$H^D = H_i + H_v + C \quad (5)$$

where  $H_i$  is a one-electron (diagonal) operator in non-active subspace:

$$H_i = \sum_{i,\sigma}^{core} \epsilon_i \hat{a}_{i,\sigma}^\dagger \hat{a}_{i,\sigma} + \sum_{r,\sigma}^{virt} \epsilon_r \hat{a}_{r,\sigma}^\dagger \hat{a}_{r,\sigma} \quad (6)$$

where  $\epsilon_i$  and  $\epsilon_r$  are orbital energies.

$H_v$  is a two-electron operator confined to the active space:

$$H_v = \sum_{ab,\sigma}^{act} h_{ab}^{eff} \hat{a}_{a,\sigma}^\dagger \hat{a}_{b,\sigma} + \sum_{abcd,\sigma,\eta}^{act} \langle ab|cd \rangle \hat{a}_{a,\sigma}^\dagger \hat{a}_{b,\eta}^\dagger \hat{a}_{d,\eta} \hat{a}_{c,\sigma} \quad (7)$$

where  $h_{ab}^{eff} = h_{ab} + \sum_i^{core} (2 \langle ai|bi \rangle - \langle ai|ib \rangle)$

and  $C$  is a constant to ensure that  $H^D$  is equivalent to the full Hamiltonian within the CAS space.

The zero order wave functions external to the CAS space, referred to as the “perturbers”. The “perturber” are written as  $|\Psi_{l,\mu}^{(k)}\rangle$  and the corresponding CAS-CI spaces as  $S_l^{(k)}$ , where  $k$  is the number of electrons promoted to ( $k > 0$ ) or removed from ( $k < 0$ ) the active space,  $l$  denotes the occupancy of nonactive orbitals and  $\mu$  numerates the various “perturbers”.

In strongly contracted NEVPT2, utilizes just one function from each  $S_l^{(k)}$  subspace,  $|\Psi_l^{(k)}\rangle = S_l^{(k)} H |\Psi_m^{(0)}\rangle$  with energy given by

$$E_l^{(k)} = \frac{\langle \Psi_l^{(k)} | H^D | \Psi_l^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle \Psi_l^{(k)} | \Psi_l^{(k)} \rangle} \quad (8)$$

And the zero order Hamiltonian becomes

$$H_0 = |\Psi_l^{(k)'}\rangle E_l^{(k)} \langle \Psi_l^{(k)'}| + |\Psi_m^{(0)}\rangle E_m^{(0)} \langle \Psi_m^{(0)}| \quad (9)$$

where  $|\Psi_l^{(k)'}\rangle$  is normalized  $|\Psi_l^{(k)}\rangle$

The bottle neck is the evaluation of energies of “perturbors”, where up to forth order RDM is needed. 4-RDM is contracted with double electron integral in active space to form auxiliary matrices.<sup>12</sup> In our implementation for DMRG-NEVPT2, 4-RDM is computed on the fly, avoiding storage problem.

Like Kurashige and Yanai’s implementation of DMRG-CASPT2<sup>7</sup>, these auxiliary matrices can be computed with a scaling similar with that of 3-RDM by make special types of operators, which are the contraction of integral and creation (and annihilation) operators. However, the two-electron Hamiltonian in NEVPT2 is much more complex than the Fork operators (which is diagonal if canonical orbitals used) in CASPT2. Many types of contracted operators would be needed in DMRG frame. It is very hard to implement and the prefactor is big, even though the scaling is better. Therefore, we only made special operators by contracting integral and operators to compute the auxiliary matrices with a 3-RDM cost for NEVPT2 based on CI type reference functions, not for DMRG reference function.

### III. APPLICATIONS

#### A. Chromium dimer

Chromium dimer has been a challenging problem in quantum chemistry, because large active space is needed to simulate its potential energy curve correct. At the same time, dynamic correlation is also required for a qualitative potential energy curve.<sup>7,13,15,16,19,33–35</sup>

The CAS(12e,12o), derived from the 3d and 4s atomic orbitals, was widely employed for chromium dimer calculations.<sup>15,16,19,33–35</sup> Both CASPT2<sup>33–35</sup> and NEVPT2<sup>11</sup> based CASSCF(12e,12o) reference function overestimate the dissociation energy of the 3d-3d bond, especially when large basis sets, e.g. g-, h-, or even i-type function, were used.<sup>14,15</sup> And the results from CASPT2(12e,12o) are heavily sensitive to the choice of the zero-order Hamiltonian.<sup>14,17</sup> According to NEVPT3 study,<sup>15</sup> the common CAS(12e,12o) wave function is not a good starting reference for the perturbation theory, because the third-order perturbation results in a large fluctuation and an unreasonable curve. DMRG-CASPT2 calculation with a CAS(12e,28o), derived from 3d, 4s, 4p, 4d atomic orbitals, gave potential energy curves close

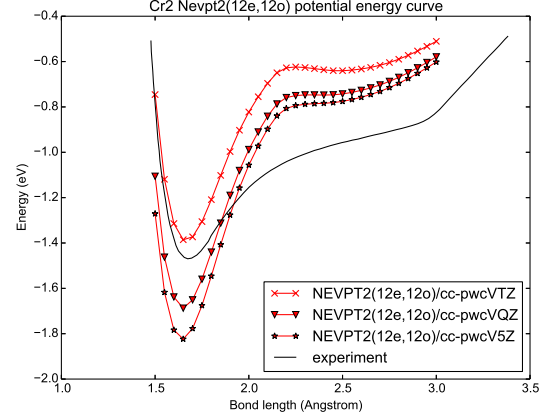


FIG. 2. NEVPT2(12e,12o) potential energy curve with a suite cc-pwcVXZ (X=T,Q,5) basis set

to the experimental one. However, different zero-order Hamiltonians, due to different level shifts in CASPT2, gave quantitatively different results. The difference of  $D_e$  with different level shifts was about 0.2eV.<sup>7</sup> DMRG-NEVPT2 is free of intruder state and there is no need to add “level shift” to change zero-order Hamiltonian. It should be feasible to describe chromium dimer potential energy curve.

A suite of cc-pwcVXZ (X = T,Q,5) basis sets was used in our calculations. No basis set superposition error (BSSE) corrections were applied in the calculations because the BSSE was regarded as small for the large basis sets including h or i-type functions. The X2C Hamiltonian was used to include scalar relativistic effects. The DMRG and corresponding RDM calculations were performed with Block<sup>36</sup>. All the other calculations were done in Pyscf<sup>37</sup>. The energy of isolated atoms was set as zero.

For the NEVPT2(12e,12o) potential energy curve of Cr<sub>2</sub> in Figure 2, larger basis set gives a deeper and worse curve. It agreed with previous studies with atomic natural orbital (ANO) basis sets.<sup>15</sup>

Then the CAS(12e,12o) was extended by adding another set of  $\sigma$ ,  $\pi$ ,  $\pi'$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\delta'$  orbitals and their corresponding anti bond orbitals from external orbitals, forming a CAS(12e,22o). DMRG are necessary here to avoid exponentially increasing computations of FCI. These additional active orbitals were chosen based on the symmetry and orbital energies; thus their dominant components were from 4p and 4d orbitals at first. After DMRG-CASSCF orbital optimization ( $M = 1000$  and there is no frozen core), only 4d orbitals component remained. Actually, a d double shell was included in active space, which is reported to greatly increase results of transition metal<sup>38</sup>. After DMRG-CASSCF orbital optimization, the reference MPS was optimized with  $M = 4000$ . Then the MPS was compressed into a MPS with  $M = 800$  through “reverse schedule”, before do-

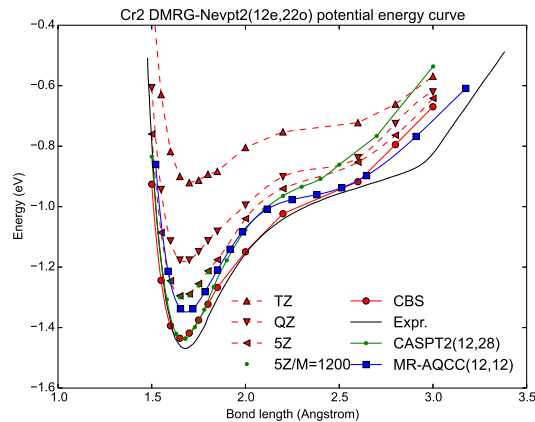


FIG. 3. DMRG-NEVPT2(12e,22o)( $M=800$ ) potential energy curve with a suite of cc-pwcVXZ ( $X=T,Q,5$ ) basis set and the complete basis set (CBS) limit. The experimental curve is taken from Ref. 39. DMRG-CASPT2(12e,28o) curve is from Ref. 7 and the MR-AQCC(12e,12o) is from Ref. 16.

ing DMRG-NEVPT2 calculations. To check whether  $M = 800$  is big enough, the DMRG-NEVPT2 energies with cc-pwcV5Z basis for geometry points near minimum were also calculated with  $M = 1200$ . The difference between curving with  $M = 800$  and that with  $M = 1200$  is very small. Finally, the (TZ/QZ/5Z) results were extrapolated to the complete basis set (CBS) limit in exponential formula for DMRG-CASSCF energy and in  $l^{-3}$  formula for DMRG-NEVPT2 correction energy.

Figure 3 shows the potential energy curve with a suite of cc-pwcVXZ ( $X=T,Q,5$ ) basis set and the complete basis set (CBS) limit. A larger basis set gives a deeper and better curve. The CBS limit potential energy curve agreed with the experimental well, with the exception of the strong bend at about  $2.8\text{\AA}$ , where the reliability of the RKR potential in this region has already been questioned before.<sup>13</sup>

DMRG-NEVPT2(12e,22o) results were nearly the same with DMRG-CASPT2(12e,28o)<sup>7</sup> results for the  $3d$  bond region. However, for the  $4s$  bond (“shoulder”) region, the DMRG-NEVPT2(12e,22o) results were closer to the experimental one, even though their CAS did not include  $4p$  orbitals while DMRG-CASPT2 did. It is reasonable. In the  $4s$  bond region, the correlation is strong, because the  $d$  orbitals are not well bonded and nearly degenerate. The Fock operator, mono-electron zero order Hamiltonian in CASPT2, is not good enough. The comparison between DMRG-NEVPT2(12e,22o) and DMRG-CASPT2(12e,28o) also indicates, together with the fact that only  $4d$  orbitals remained in the active space after orbital optimization,  $4d$  orbitals are more important than  $4p$  orbitals for the static correlations and the reference functions.

TABLE I. Spectroscopic Constants for the ground state of  $\text{Cr}_2$  from different methods

	$D_e(\text{eV})$	$R_0(\text{\AA})$	$\omega_e$
DMRG-NEVPT2(12e,22o)	1.436	1.656	476
DMRG-CASPT2(12e,28o) <sup>a</sup>	1.61	1.681	480
MR-AQCC(12e,12o) <sup>b</sup>	1.355	1.685	459
experiment <sup>c</sup>	1.47(5)	1.679	480.6(5)

<sup>a</sup> DMRG-CASPT2(12e,28o)/ $g_1(M = \infty)$  in Ref. 7

<sup>b</sup> Ref. 16

<sup>c</sup> Ref. 39

## B. Poly(p-phenylene vinylene)

Poly(p-phenylene vinylene) is a type of phenyl-based light emitting conjugated polymers, which is useful for displays and photovoltaic devices. It has many low-lying states that participate in the photophysics and it was extensively investigated through theoretical methods, such as DMRG based on Pariser-Parr-Pople (PPP) model<sup>23,24</sup> and semi-empirical intermediate neglect of differential overlap (INDO) Hamiltonian with configuration interaction<sup>25</sup>. However, ab initio correlated wave function calculations were not often reported, because of the difficulty to include static and dynamic correlation together for a complex system. We used PPV-3 as an example and demonstrated how to predict the excitation energies for low-lying state through DMRG-NEVPT2 calculation and the accuracy of DMRG-NEVPT2 for conjugated polymer molecule.

The cc-pVDZ basis was used for the calculations and an active space was chosen from 22 conjugated  $\pi$  orbitals. We obtained the ground state equilibrium geometry of PPV-3 via DMRG-CI geometry optimization<sup>40</sup> with an interface between Block and ORCA<sup>41</sup>, starting from a guess from DFT/B3LYP optimized geometry. The geometry optimization was first run at  $M = 1000$ , and then near the convergence at  $M = 2000$ . Canonical orbitals are used in the geometry optimization.

Then state-averaged calculations were performed for  $^1A_g$  (2 states) and  $B_u$  symmetry (3 states), with canonical orbitals of the ground state. To identify excited states, we computed the transition 1-RDM and transition 2-RDM from the ground state, and identified the state according to dominant excitation signatures. Based on the chosen active space,  $3^1B_u$  is identified as the first optically bright state, with a HOMO  $\rightarrow$  LUMO excitation signature. And  $2^2A_g$  in state-average calculation with 2 states ( $3^2A_g$  when more states were averaged) is the first dark state, with a HOMO-1  $\rightarrow$  LUMO + HOMO  $\rightarrow$  LUMO+1 and HOMO, HOMO  $\rightarrow$  LUMO, LUMO excitation signature. Due to lack of dynamic correlation ( $\sigma - \pi$  interaction), the energy order of excited states is significantly different with experimental results or calculations based on PPP model<sup>23,24</sup>.

After including dynamic correlation through DMRG-NEVPT2, the energy first bright state was much lowered and it became the first excited state ( $1^1B_u$ ). This is

TABLE II. Excitation energy (eV) calculated from DMRG-NEVPT2 with canonical orbitals. States are labeled according to energies with  $M=750$ .

state	M=250	M=500	M=750	DMRG-CI(M=750)
$2^1A_g$	4.742	4.669	4.657	4.991
$1^1B_u$	4.027	4.191	4.180	5.269
$2^1B_u$	4.449	4.486	4.264	4.740
$3^1B_u$	5.090	4.328	4.600	5.132

TABLE III. Excitation energy (eV) calculated from DMRG-NEVPT2 with localized orbitals. States are labeled according to excitation signatures and energies with  $M=750$ .

state	M=500	M=750	DMRG-CI(M=750)
$1^1B_u$	3.8628	3.8625	5.1312
$2^1B_u$	4.4980	4.4978	4.4953
$2^1A_g$	4.6634	4.6634	4.8456
$3^1B_u$	4.8268	4.8262	4.7542
$4^1B_u$	4.8441	4.8443	4.7572

similar to low-lying excited states of polyenes, where dynamic correlations lower the ionic excited state relative to covalent excited state. However, the energy order did not converge with the bond dimension in the calculation (Table II).

Localized orbitals usually give a better convergence for DMRG calculation.<sup>5</sup> Therefore, further DMRG-NEVPT2 calculations were carried out based on split-localized orbitals (localize the occupied and unoccupied  $\pi$  orbitals separately with Pipek-Mezey method<sup>42</sup>). The NEVPT2 energies were calculated for lowest 6 states (based on DMRG-CI energy). The excitation energies were converged into less than  $0.6meV$  with bond dimension (Table III). They were accurate enough to determine the energy order of low-lying excite states. The difference between calculated excitation energies from canonical orbital and those from local orbitals was big, and it might not be the same even when bond dimension is infinite. One reason is that the molecular geometry was optimized without symmetry restriction. Some integral terms, which should be zero according symmetry, were not exact zero.

The excitation energy of first bright state (3.86eV) agrees well with results from other theoretical studies (3.88eV<sup>25</sup>, 3.91eV<sup>23</sup>). However, it deviated from the experimental value (3.5eV<sup>43</sup>, 3.43eV<sup>44</sup>) a lot. The reasons were that PPV oligomer was substituted with tertiary butyl end-group to become soluble in the experiment and that the solvent was not considered in the calculations.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

In this work, we developed a general algorithm to compute different order RDMs for DMRG wave function, which can be used by many dynamic correlation methods. Through up to 4th order RDM, we combined DMRG

and NEVPT2 to describe static and dynamic correlations at the same time, forming DMRG-NEVPT2, a intruder state free second order multireference perturbation theory. It made the calculations complex molecules with large active spaces possible.

To demonstrate the capability of DMRG-NEVPT2 method, we used this method to calculate the potential energy curve of chromium dimer and excited states of poly(p-phenylene vinylene). For chromium dimer, the extended active space included  $4d$  orbitals and the so called “double d” effect were considered. It gave quantitatively correct potential energy curves, demonstrating that correlation from second shell orbitals were essential for chromium dimer. For light emitting conjugated polymers, Poly(p-phenylene vinylene), excitation energy of low-lying excited states were computed through DMRG-NEVPT2 with different orbitals in active space. The local orbitals calculation gave results converged with bond dimension much better than canonical orbitals. And the accuracy from local orbital DMRG-NEVPT2 is about  $0.6meV$ , relative to standard NEVPT2. While the environments were not included in the calculations, the energy order of excited states were reasonable.

Based on above two examples, DMRG-NEVPT2 is a intruder free perturbation methods and it can be used for the molecule where large active spaces are needed.

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#### APPENDIX A: EDGE CASES FOR NUMBER PATTERNS IN RDM

All number patterns in N-RDM,  $\{n_S, n_D, n_E\}$ , need to be computed if

$$0 \leq n_S \leq N \quad (10)$$

$$0 \leq n_E \leq N - 1 \quad (11)$$

$$1 \leq n_D \leq 4 \quad (12)$$

$$n_S + n_D + n_E = 2N \quad (13)$$

$$(14)$$

However, for some RDM elements, whose indices cannot be arranged as what we described above, because too many their indices lie in first or last site. We need additional number patterns to compute them.

For the first step of DMRG sweep, additional patterns are added. These patterns satisfies

$$N + 1 \leq n_S \leq \min(4, 2N) \quad (15)$$

$$0 \leq n_D \leq 4 \quad (16)$$

$$n_S + n_D + n_E = 2N \quad (17)$$

$$(18)$$

For the last step of DMRG sweep, additional patterns



are also added. These patterns satisfies

$$N \leq n_{\mathcal{E}} \leq \min(4, 2N) \quad (19)$$

$$0 \leq n_{\mathcal{D}} \leq 4 \quad (20)$$

$$n_{\mathcal{S}} + n_{\mathcal{D}} + n_{\mathcal{E}} = 2N \quad (21)$$

$$(22)$$

Because  $\mathcal{S}$  (or  $\mathcal{E}$ ) is composed of single site, expectation value of an operator with more than two  $\hat{a}$  or two  $\hat{a}^\dagger$  on it is zero. The number of indices on single sites should not be more than 4.

## APPENDIX B: RESTRICTION ON TYPE PATTERNS IN RDM

It is a waste of resource to compute RDM element which is zero or redundant. And the RDM element can be computed through multiple types of combinations of operators. We implemented some restrictions to skip calculations for zero and redundant RDM elements.

The operators  $\hat{a}_i$  and  $\hat{a}_j^\dagger$  are permuted to make their orbitals indices not decrease. Only the permutation between two operators with different orbital indices are needed. If  $\hat{a}_i$  is ahead of  $\hat{a}_j^\dagger$  and  $i = j$ , the compound operators are not needed in RDM calculation. For a single site block, the type with  $\hat{a}$  ahead of  $\hat{a}^\dagger$  is omitted. For other blocks, the loop of for  $\hat{o}_i \hat{o}_j \hat{o}_k \dots$  should be  $i \leq j \leq k \dots$  (‘=’ is only valid when the two nearby operators in normal order).

And the RDM (not transition RDM) is symmetry matrix. Use 3-RDM as example

$$\langle \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j^\dagger \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_l \hat{a}_m \hat{a}_n \rangle = \langle (\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j^\dagger \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_l \hat{a}_m \hat{a}_n)^\dagger \rangle = \langle \hat{a}_n^\dagger \hat{a}_m^\dagger \hat{a}_l^\dagger \hat{a}_k \hat{a}_j \hat{a}_i \rangle \quad (23)$$

We can always use transpose and permutation to make operators begin with  $\hat{a}^\dagger$  rather than  $\hat{a}$  (the beginning is the operator with smallest orbital indice). Therefore, all types pattern begin with  $\hat{a}$  is omitted.

Similarly, if operators begin with  $\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i$ ,  $\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_j^\dagger \hat{a}_j$  or  $\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_j^\dagger \hat{a}_j \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_k$ , the remaining part of operators also has transpose and permutation symmetry.

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i (\hat{o}_j \hat{o}_k \dots) \rangle \\ &= \langle (\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i (\hat{o}_j \hat{o}_k \dots))^\dagger \rangle \\ &= \langle (\hat{o}_j \hat{o}_k \dots)^\dagger (\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i)^\dagger \rangle \\ &= \langle \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i (\hat{o}_j \hat{o}_k \dots)^\dagger \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

where  $i < j \leq k \dots$

Therefore, there is no need to compute the types operators in which  $\hat{a}$  follows  $\hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i$ .

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