# Controlled Bond Expansion for Density Matrix Renormalization Group Ground State Search at Single-Site Costs 

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DMRG ground state search algorithms employing symmetries must be able to expand virtual bond spaces by adding or changing symmetry sectors if these lower the energy. Traditional single-site DMRG does not allow bond expansion; two-site DMRG does, but at much higher computational costs. We present a controlled bond expansion (CBE) algorithm that yields two-site accuracy and convergence per sweep, at single-site costs. Given a matrix product state $\Psi$ defining a variational space, CBE identifies parts of the orthogonal space carrying significant weight in $H \Psi$ and expands bonds to include only these. CBE-DMRG uses no mixing parameters and is fully variational. Using CBE-DMRG, we show that the KondoHeisenberg model on a width 4 cylinder features two distinct phases differing in their Fermi surface volumes.

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Introduction.-A powerful tool for studying ground state properties of one- and two-dimensional quantum systems is the density martrix renormalization group (DMRG) [1-7]. Prominent two-dimensional applications include the $t-J$ [8-11] and Hubbard [12-18] models, and quantum magnets [19-22]. Because of their high numerical costs, such studies are currently limited to either small finite-sized systems or cylinders with small circumference. Progress towards computationally cheaper DMRG ground state search algorithms would clearly be welcome.

In this Letter, we address this challenge. A DMRG ground state search explores a variational space spanned by matrix product states [23,24]. If symmetries are exploited, the algorithm must be able to expand the auxiliary spaces associated with virtual bonds by adjusting symmetry sectors if this lowers the energy. Traditional single-site (1s) DMRG, which variationally updates one site at a time, does not allow such bond expansions. As a result, it often gets stuck in metastable configurations having quantum numbers different from the actual ground state. Two-site (2s) DMRG naturally leads to bond expansion, but carries much higher computational costs.

Hence, schemes have been proposed for achieving bond expansions at sub- $2 s$ costs, such as density matrix perturbation [25] or strictly single-site DMRG (DMRG3S) [26]. However, in these schemes, the degree of subspace expansion per local update is controlled by a heuristic mixing factor. Depending on its value, some subspace expansion updates increase, rather than decrease, the energy.

Here, we present a controlled bond expansion (CBE) algorithm which lowers the energy with each step and yields $2 s$ accuracy and convergence per sweep, at $1 s$ costs.

Given a matrix product state $\Psi$ defining a variational space, our key idea is to identify parts of the $2 s$ orthogonal space that carry significant weight in $H \Psi$, and to include only these parts when expanding the virtual bonds of a $1 s$ Hamiltonian. Remarkably, these parts can be found via a projector that can be constructed at $1 s$ costs.

Using CBE-DMRG we study the Kondo-Heisenberg model on a width 4 cylinder and show that it features two phases differing in their Fermi surface volumes. We thereby further advance the understanding of this highly debated model using a controlled method.

MPS basics.-We briefly recall some standard MPS concepts [5], adopting the diagrammatic conventions of Ref. [27]. Consider an $\mathscr{L}$-site system with an open boundary MPS wave function $\Psi$ having dimensions $d$ for physical sites and $D$ for virtual bonds. $\Psi$ can be written in bond-canonical form with respect to any bond $\ell$,

The tensors $\Lambda_{\ell}(\Omega), A_{\ell}(\nabla)$ and $B_{\ell}(\nabla)$ are variational parameters. They are linked by gauge relations, $A_{\ell} \Lambda_{\ell}=\Lambda_{\ell-1} B_{\ell}$, useful for shifting the bond tensor $\Lambda_{\ell}$ to neighboring bonds. $A_{\ell}$ and $B_{\ell}$ are left- and right-sided isometries, respectively, projecting $D d$-dimensional parent (Р) spaces to $D$-dimensional kept (К) image spaces [27]; they satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{\ell}^{\dagger} A_{\ell}=\frac{A_{\ell}}{A_{\ell}^{*}}=\left(=\pi_{\ell}^{\mathrm{K}}, \quad B_{\ell} B_{\ell}^{\dagger}=\frac{B_{\ell}}{\mathbb{B}_{\ell}^{*}}=\right)=\pi_{\ell-1}^{\mathrm{K}} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Hamiltonian can similarly be expressed as a matrix product operator (MPO) with virtual bond dimension $w$,


For $2 s$ or $1 s$ DMRG, the energy of $\Psi$ is lowered by projecting $H$ to a local variational space associated with sites $(\ell, \ell+1)$ or $\ell$, respectively, and using its ground state (GS) within that space to locally update $\Psi$. The effective $2 s$ and $1 s$ Hamiltonians can be computed recursively using


$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.H_{\ell}^{1 \mathrm{~s}}={ }_{\ell-1}^{D}{ }_{\ell}^{d}\right)_{\ell+1}^{D}=\underset{\ell-2 \ell-1}{(1)} . \tag{4b}
\end{equation*}
$$

To perform $2 s$ or $1 s$ updates, one replaces $\psi_{\ell}^{2 s}=$ $A_{\ell} \Lambda_{\ell} B_{\ell+1}$ or $\psi_{\ell}^{1 \mathrm{~s}}=C_{\ell}=A_{\ell} \Lambda_{\ell}\left(^{-}-\uparrow^{-}\right)$by the GS solutions of

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(H_{\ell}^{2 \mathrm{~s}}-E\right) \psi_{\ell}^{2 \mathrm{~s}}=0, \quad \underbrace{}_{\ell-1 \ell}  \tag{5a}\\
& \left(H_{\ell}^{1 \mathrm{~s}}-E\right) \psi_{\ell}^{1 \mathrm{~s}}=0, \quad{ }_{\ell-1}=E-C_{\ell+1}^{C_{\ell}} . \tag{5b}
\end{align*}
$$

Updating site by site, one sweeps back and forth through the MPS until the GS energy converges.

The local variational space is larger for $2 s$ than $1 s$ DMRG by a factor $d, \mathcal{O}\left(D^{2} d^{2}\right)$ vs. $\mathcal{O}\left(D^{2} d\right)$. This enables $2 s$ DMRG to increase ("expand") the bond dimension during updates by including new states (and symmetry sectors) from the $2 s$ space. $1 s$ DMRG cannot do this, and hence often fails to yield accurate GS energies. The better performance of $2 s$ vs $1 s$ has its price: much higher numerical costs, $\mathcal{O}\left(D^{3} d^{3}+D^{3} d^{2} w\right)$ vs $\mathcal{O}\left(D^{3} d w\right)$ [5].

Discarded spaces.-To track those parts of $2 s$ spaces not contained in $1 s$ spaces, we introduce orthogonal complements of $A_{\ell}$ and $B_{\ell}$, denoted $\bar{A}_{\ell}(\nabla)$ and $\bar{B}_{\ell}(\nabla)$. These isometries have image spaces, called discarded (D) spaces [27], of dimension $\bar{D}=D(d-1)$, orthogonal to the kept images of $A_{\ell}$ and $B_{\ell}$. Thus $A_{\ell}^{\mathbb{1}}(\boldsymbol{\top})=A_{\ell} \oplus \bar{A}_{\ell}$ and $B_{\ell}^{\mathbb{1}}(\boldsymbol{\nabla})=B_{\ell} \oplus \bar{B}_{\ell}$ are unitaries on their parent spaces, with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{A_{\ell}}{D_{d}^{Y} D} \oplus \frac{\bar{A}_{\ell}}{D{ }_{d}^{Y} \bar{D}}=\frac{A_{\ell}^{11}}{D{ }_{d}^{\top} D} d^{\prime} \quad \frac{B_{\ell}^{\mathbb{1}}}{D d_{d} D}=\frac{B_{\ell}}{D Y_{d} D} \oplus \frac{\bar{B}_{\ell}}{\bar{D} \bigvee_{d} D} . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The unitarity conditions for $A_{\ell}^{\mathbb{1}}$ and $B_{\ell}^{\mathbb{1}}$ imply orthonormality and completeness relations complementing Eq. (2),

$$
\begin{align*}
& \bar{\Omega}_{\ell}=\left(=\mathbb{1}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{D}}, \quad \bar{\Omega}_{\ell}=0, \quad \underset{\ell}{\bigvee}=\right)=\mathbb{1}_{\ell-1}^{\mathrm{D}}, \quad \underset{\ell}{\bigvee}=0  \tag{7a}\\
& \frac{\lambda}{\gamma_{\ell}}+\frac{\lambda_{\ell}}{\gamma_{\ell}}=\left.\supset\right|_{\ell}=\mathbb{1}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{P}}, \quad{ }_{\ell} \stackrel{\lambda}{F}+\underset{\ell}{\stackrel{\lambda}{F}}=\mid c=\mathbb{1}_{\ell-1}^{\mathrm{P}} . \tag{7b}
\end{align*}
$$

If the unitary maps $A_{\ell}^{1 \dagger}$ and $B_{\ell+1}^{1 \dagger}$ of Eq. (6) are applied to some of the open indices of $H_{\ell}^{1 s} \psi_{\ell}^{1 s}, H_{\ell+1}^{1 s} \psi_{\ell+1}^{1 s}$, and $H_{\ell}^{2 s} \psi_{\ell}^{2 s}$ as indicated below, they map the diagrams of Eqs. (5) to


The first three terms from the third line also appear in the first two lines, but the fourth, involving $\Delta \Lambda$, does not. Let DD denote the image of the orthogonal complements $\bar{A}_{\ell} \otimes \bar{B}_{\ell+1}(\bar{\nabla} \otimes)$, then DD is orthogonal to the variational space explored by $1 s$ DMRG on sites $(\ell, \ell+1)$. DD is much larger than the latter, of dimension $\bar{D}^{2}=D^{2}(d-1)^{2}$ vs $2 D^{2} d$, and (importantly) may contain new symmetry sectors. Thus DD is the $2 s$ ingredient lacking in $1 s$ schemes.

This can also be seen considering the energy variance $\Delta_{E}=\|(H-E) \Psi\|^{2}$. By expanding it into contributions involving orthogonal projections on one, two, or more sites [28], $\Delta_{E}=\Delta_{E}^{1 \perp}+\Delta_{E}^{2 \perp}+\cdots$, one obtains [27]

1s DMRG minimizes only $\Delta_{E}^{1 \perp}, 2 \mathrm{~s}$ minimizes $\Delta_{E}^{1 \perp}$ and $\Delta_{E}^{2 \perp}$. We thus seek to expand the K image of $\nabla$ or $\nabla$ at the expense of the D image of $\bar{\nabla}$ or $\nabla$. This transfers weight from $\Delta_{E}^{2 \perp}$ to $\Delta_{E}^{1 \perp}$, making it accessible to $1 s$ minimization.

Controlled bond expansion.-The CBE algorithm rests on two new insights, substantiated by the quality of its results. The first insight is that the subspace of DD relevant for lowering the GS energy is relatively small: it is the subspace on which $H_{\ell}^{2 s} \psi_{\ell}^{2 s}$ and hence $\Delta_{E}^{2 \perp}$ have significant weight. When expanding a bond, it thus suffices to add only this small subspace (hence the moniker controlled bond expansion), or only part of it, to be called relevant DD (rDD) [29]. Since DD is the image of $\bar{A}_{\ell} \otimes \bar{B}_{\ell+1}(\nabla \otimes \nabla)$,


FIG. 1. Shrewd selection for a right-to-left sweep: Ideally, the truncated complement $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\text {tr }}(\nabla)$ should be found by minimizing the cost function $\mathcal{C}_{1}$, but that would involve $2 s$ cost, $\mathcal{O}\left(D^{3} d^{2} w\right)$. To achieve $1 s$ cost, $\mathcal{O}\left(D^{3} d w\right)$, we instead use shrewd selection, involving two separate truncations: The first truncation (preselection) truncates $\bar{A}_{\ell}(\nabla)$ to $\widehat{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{pr}}(\nabla)$ by minimizing the cost function $\mathcal{C}_{2}$. The second truncation (final selection) further truncates $\widehat{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{pr}}(\nabla) \rightarrow \widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr}}(\nabla)$ by minimizing the cost function $\mathcal{C}_{3}$. For details, see Fig. S-2 in Sec. S-1 of the Supplemental Material [30].
rDD can be viewed as the image of $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr}} \otimes \bar{B}_{\ell+1}(\nabla \otimes \nabla)$ or $\bar{A}_{\ell} \otimes \widetilde{B}_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{tr}}(\nabla \otimes \gamma)$, where the isometries $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr}}(\nabla)$ or $\widetilde{B}_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{tr}}(\gamma)$ are truncated versions of $\bar{A}_{\ell}$ or $\bar{B}_{\ell+1}$ and have image dimensions $\widetilde{D}$, say. It turns out that one may choose $\widetilde{D}<D$, independent of $d$, thus rDD, of dimension $\widetilde{D} \bar{D}$, is indeed much smaller than DD. The second insight is that $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr}}$ or $\widetilde{B}_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{tr}}$ can be constructed at $1 s$ costs using a novel scheme explained in Fig. 1. We call it shrewd selection since it is cheap, efficient and practical, though not strictly optimal (that would require $2 s$ costs).

Shrewd selection.-Ideally, $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\text {tr }}$ should minimize the cost function $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ (Fig. 1, top), the difference between applying the projectors $\bar{A}_{\ell} \bar{A}_{\ell}^{\dagger}$ or $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr}} \widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr} \dagger}$ to $H_{\ell}^{2 s} \psi_{\ell}^{2 s} \bar{B}_{\ell+1}^{\dagger} \bar{B}_{\ell+1}$. However, exact minimization of $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ would involve $2 s$ costs (feasible if $d, w$, and $D$ are comparatively small, but in general undesirable). To maintain $1 s$ costs, $\mathcal{O}\left(D^{3} d w\right)$, we instead use shrewd selection, involving two separate truncations, depicted schematically in Fig. 2 and explained in detail in Sec. S-1 of the Supplemental Material [30]. The first truncation (preselection) truncates the central MPS bond from $D \rightarrow D^{\prime}$ (specified below) in the presence of its environment by minimizing the cost function $\mathcal{C}_{2}$ (Fig. 1, bottom left); this replaces the full complement by a preselected complement, $\quad \bar{A}_{\ell} \nabla \rightarrow \widehat{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{pr}} \mathrm{F}$, with reduced image dimension, $\bar{D} \rightarrow \widehat{D}=D^{\prime} w$ [44]. The second truncation (final selection) minimizes the cost function $\mathcal{C}_{3}$ (Fig. 1, bottom right) with central MPO bond closed as appropriate for $H_{\ell}^{2 s} \psi_{\ell}^{2 s}$ : it further truncates $\widehat{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{pr}}$ to yield the final truncated complement, $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\text {tr }}, \nabla \rightarrow \nabla, \widehat{D} \rightarrow \tilde{D}<D$. To ensure $1 s$ costs for final selection we need $\widehat{D}=D$, and thus choose $D^{\prime}=D / w$ for preselection.

CBE update.-A CBE update of bond $\ell$ proceeds in four substeps. We describe them for a right-to-left sweep for building $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr}}$ and updating $C_{\ell+1}$ (left-to-right sweeps,


FIG. 2. The projection $H_{\ell}^{2 s} \psi_{\ell}^{2 s} \stackrel{A_{\ell}^{\dagger}}{\mapsto} H_{\ell+1}^{1 s} \psi_{\ell+1}^{1 s}$ to the tangent space (yellow) of the MPS manifold (blue) discards information from DD (depicted by gray arrows for DD basis vectors). Relevant information is recovered at $1 s$ cost by constructing rDD through preselection (red), then final selection (orange).
building $\widetilde{B}_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{tr}}$ and updating $C_{\ell}$, are analogous). (i) Compute $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr}}(\nabla)$ using shrewd selection. (ii) Expand bond $\ell$ from dimension $D$ to $D+\widetilde{D}$ by replacing $A_{\ell}$ by an expanded isometry $A_{\ell}^{\mathrm{ex}}(\nabla)=A_{\ell} \oplus \widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr}}$, and $C_{\ell+1}$ by an expanded tensor initialized as $C_{\ell+1}^{\text {ex,i }}\left(-\mathcal{Y}^{-}\right)$, defined such that $A_{\ell}^{\mathrm{ex}} C_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{ex}, \mathrm{i}}=A_{\ell} C_{\ell+1}$ :

Also construct an expanded one-site Hamiltonian, defined in a variational space of dimension $D(D+\widetilde{D}) d$ :

$$
H_{\ell+1}^{1 \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{ex}}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\square & (\underset{\ell+1}{+}  \tag{10}\\
\hdashline+1 \\
\ell+1
\end{array}\right)^{D} .
$$

(iii) Update $C_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{ex}}$ variationally by using an iterative eigensolver, as usual in DMRG, to find the GS solution of $\left(H_{\ell+1}^{1 s, \mathrm{ex}}-E\right) C_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{ex}}=0$, starting from $C_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{ex}, \mathrm{i}}$. (We employ a Lanczos eigensolver.) This has costs of $\mathcal{O}\left(D^{3} d w\right)$. Thus, $C_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{ex}}$ can be updated at $1 s$ costs, while including only the most relevant $2 s$ information via the contribution of $\widetilde{A}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{tr}}$. (iv) Shift the isometry center from site $\ell+1$ to site $\ell$ using a singular value decomposition (SVD) and truncate (trim) bond $\ell$ from dimension $D+\widetilde{D}$ back to $D$, removing lowweight states. The discarded weight, say $\xi$, of this bond trimming serves as an error measure [30].

The energy minimization based on $H_{\ell+1}^{1 s, \text { ex }}$ is variational, hence each CBE update strictly lowers the GS energy. Though shrewd selection involves severe bond reductions, it yields rDDs suitable for efficiently lowering the GS energy (in step (iii)). Moreover, although CBE explores a much smaller variational space than $2 s$ DMRG, it converges at the same rate and accuracy (see below and Ref. [30]), since it focuses on the subspace that really matters for energy reduction. Section S-1 in [30] illustrates this by analyzing singular value spectra. All in all, CBE is a $1 s$ cost version of the $2 s$ update, compatible with established DMRG parallelization schemes [45]. Similar to
$2 s$ [7], CBE can also be combined with mixing during the initial few sweeps (see Ref. [30], Sec. S-3).

We note that bond expansion using a truncated DD has been proposed before [26,46]. But our $A_{\ell}^{\text {ex }}(\nabla)$ outperforms that of DMRG3S [26] (see below and Ref. [30]); and we find $A_{\ell}^{\mathrm{ex}}(\nabla)$ at $1 s$ costs, whereas Ref. [46] (on variational uniform MPS [47]) uses an SVD requiring $2 s$ costs.

Sweeping.-Our computations exploit $\mathrm{U}(1)_{\mathrm{ch}} \otimes$ $\mathrm{SU}(2)_{\mathrm{sp}}$ charge and spin symmetries using QSpace [48,49], with bond dimensions $D^{*}$ (or $D$ ) counting symmetry multiplets (or states). Usually, $D^{*}$ is increased with each update during sweeping, from an initial $D_{\mathrm{i}}^{*}$ to a final $D_{\mathrm{f}}^{*}=\alpha D_{\mathrm{i}}^{*}$, with $\alpha>1$. To achieve this with CBE we (i,ii) use $D^{\prime *} \simeq D_{\mathrm{f}}^{*} / w^{*}, \widehat{D}^{*}=D_{\mathrm{f}}^{*}$ (cf. Fig. 1) and expand from $D_{\mathrm{i}}^{*}$ to $D_{\mathrm{i}}^{*}+\widetilde{D}^{*}=D_{\mathrm{f}}^{*}(1+\delta)$, (iii) call the iterative eigensolver, and (iv) truncate back to $D_{\mathrm{f}}^{*}$ when shifting the isometry center. We use $\delta=0.1$ for CBE, unless stated otherwise.

Benchmarks.-As a first benchmark, we consider the 1D Hubbard-Holstein (HH) model [31-35], described by

$$
\begin{align*}
H_{\mathrm{HH}}= & -\sum_{\ell \sigma}\left(c_{\ell \sigma}^{\dagger} c_{\ell+1 \sigma}+\text { H.c. }\right)+0.8 \sum_{\ell} n_{\ell \uparrow} n_{\ell \downarrow} \\
& +0.5 \sum_{\ell} b_{\ell}^{\dagger} b_{\ell}+\sqrt{0.2} \sum_{\ell}\left(n_{\ell \uparrow}+n_{\ell \downarrow}-1\right) \\
& \times\left(b_{\ell}^{\dagger}+b_{\ell}\right) . \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

Here, $c_{\ell \sigma}^{\dagger}$ creates an electron and $b_{\ell}^{\dagger}$ a phonon at site $\ell$, and $n_{\ell \sigma}=c_{\ell \sigma}^{\dagger} c_{\ell \sigma}$. We search for the GS with $N=\mathscr{L}=50$, total spin $S=0$, and restrict the maximum local number of excited phonons to $N_{\mathrm{ph}}^{\max }$. Then, $d^{*}[d]=3\left(N_{\mathrm{ph}}^{\max }+1\right)$ $\left[4\left(N_{\mathrm{ph}}^{\max }+1\right)\right]$. Figure 3 (a) shows the relative error in energy vs number of half-sweeps $n_{s}$ for different $D_{\max }^{*}$ at fixed $d^{*}=12$, comparing CBE and $2 s$ DMRG schemes. The convergence with $n_{s}$ is similar for CBE and $2 s$. Figure 3(b) compares the CPU time (measured on a single core of an Intel Core i7-9750H CPU) per sweep for CBE and $2 s$ for different $d^{*}$ at fixed $D_{\text {max }}^{*}$. Linear and quadratic fits confirm the expected $d^{*}(1 s)$ or $d^{* 2}(2 s)$ scaling, respectively, highlighting the speedup from CBE.

Next, we consider $\mathscr{L}_{x} \times \mathscr{L}_{y}=10 \times 4$ and $10 \times 6$ Hubbard cylinders (HC), described by (following Ref. [28])

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\mathrm{HC}}=-\sum_{\left\langle\ell, \ell^{\prime}\right\rangle, \sigma}\left(c_{\ell \sigma}^{\dagger} c_{\ell^{\prime} \sigma}+\text { H.c. }\right)+8 \sum_{\ell} n_{\ell \uparrow} n_{\ell \downarrow} . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $\boldsymbol{\ell}=(x, y)$ is a 2 D site index and $\sum_{\left\langle\ell, \ell^{\prime}\right\rangle}$ a nearestneighbor sum. We search for the GS with total filling $N=0.9 \mathscr{L}_{x} \mathscr{L}_{y}$ and spin $S=0$. We use a real-space MPO, not the hybrid-space MPO [13,50] used in Ref. [28]. Figures 3(c) and 3(d) benchmarks CBE (black) against $2 s$ DMRG (red); their accuracies match (same GS energy for given $D^{*}$ ). CBE-DMRG yields controlled convergence


FIG. 3. Hubbard-Holstein (HH) model: (a) Convergence of the GS energy versus number of half-sweeps $n_{s}$ at fixed $d^{*}=3\left(N_{\mathrm{ph}}^{\max }+1\right) . E_{0}$ was obtained by linear $\xi$ extrapolation of data from $D_{\max }^{*} \in[1000,1200]$. (b) CPU time per sweep for various $d^{*}$ at fixed $D_{\text {max }}^{*}$, showing $d^{*}(\mathrm{CBE})$ vs $d^{* 2}(2 \mathrm{~s})$ scaling. Hubbard cylinders (HC): Error in GS energy vs $\xi$ for (c) $10 \times 4$ and (d) $10 \times 6 \mathrm{HCs}$, obtained with CBE (black) and $2 s$ (red) DMRG, for various $D_{\max }^{*}$ (legends). Since $2 s$ CPU times far exceed those of CBE, $2 s$ data is only shown for $D_{\max }^{*} \leq 10 k$. Reference energies $E_{0}=-27.8816942(10 \times 4)$ and $-41.7474961(10 \times 6)$ are obtained by linear $\xi$ extrapolation of the four most accurate CBE results to $\xi=0$ (gray line).
for sufficiently large $D^{*}$, where the energy error decreases linearly with $\xi$. DMRG3S does not reach $2 s$ accuracy for this model, as is clear from the data shown in Ref. [28] Sec. V E.

Further benchmarks and comparison to DMRG3S are shown in Ref. [30], Secs. S-2,3. We find that CBE has similar run time per sweep but converges faster than DMRG3S [26]: for given $D_{\text {max }}^{*}$, the energy converges in fewer sweeps and less run time, and reaches a lower value.

Kondo-Heisenberg cylinders.-Finally, to include some new physics results in this Letter, we study the KondoHeisenberg (KH) lattice model on a cylinder. The KH model is believed to describe the essential physics of heavy-fermion (HF) materials [36,51-53], which feature many interesting phenomena. One of the most intriguing is the so-called Kondo breakdown (KB) quantum critical point (QCP) [38,42,54], where collective Kondo singlets [42] formed at strong coupling break up, leading to a FS reconstruction [55-58] at $T=0$. Strange metal behavior is observed at finite temperatures with, e.g., $\sim T$ resistivity [58-62] or $\sim T \log T$ specific heat [61-64].

Theoretical understanding of the KB-QCP is still incomplete, in part due to scarceness of numerical simulations. Prior numerical studies used dynamical meanfield theory [65-69] and Monte Carlo methods [70-73], but we are not aware of DMRG results on the KB-QCP. Here, we take first steps in this direction by studying FS reconstruction on a KH cylinder: we show that at $T=0$, there are two distinct phases featuring different Fermi surfaces.


FIG. 4. Kondo-Heisenberg (KH) cylinder: Fermi wave vectors $\left|k_{F x}\left(k_{y}\right)\right|$ for a $40 \times 4 \mathrm{KH}$ cylinder for various values of $J_{K}$. Symbols are data points (error bars are below symbol size), lines are guides to the eye. In the insets, black lines sketch the presumed FS for $\mathscr{L}_{y} \rightarrow \infty$, dotted lines show the $k_{y}$ values allowed for $\mathscr{L}_{y}=4$.

We study a $\mathscr{L}_{x} \times \mathscr{L}_{y}=40 \times 4 \mathrm{KH}$ cylinder, described by

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{\mathrm{KH}}= & -\sum_{\left\langle\ell, \ell^{\prime}\right\rangle, \sigma}\left(c_{\ell \sigma}^{\dagger} c_{\ell^{\prime} \sigma}+\text { H.c. }\right)+J_{K} \sum_{\ell} S_{\ell} \cdot s_{\ell} \\
& +\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\left\langle\ell, \ell^{\prime}\right\rangle} S_{\ell} \cdot S_{\ell^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Here, $\boldsymbol{s}_{\boldsymbol{\ell}}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\sigma \sigma^{\prime}} c_{\boldsymbol{\ell} \sigma}^{\dagger} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\sigma \sigma^{\prime}} c_{\boldsymbol{\ell} \sigma^{\prime}}$ and $\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{\ell}}$ are electron and local moment spin $-\frac{1}{2}$ operators at site $\mathscr{\ell}$. We search for the GS with total filling $N=1.25 \mathscr{L}_{x} \mathscr{L}_{y}$ and spin $S=0$.

For a $\mathscr{L}_{y}=4$ cylinder, the Brillouin zone consists of four lines, since $k_{y} \in\{0, \pm(\pi / 2), \pi\}$ is discrete. If such a line cuts the $\mathscr{L}_{y} \rightarrow \infty$ FS, that defines a "Fermi point," with Fermi momentum $\left(k_{F x}\left(k_{y}\right), k_{y}\right)$. We have extracted the corresponding $k_{F x}\left(k_{y}\right)$ values from CBE-DMRG results for the single-particle density matrix (see Ref. [30], Sec. S-4 B for details; Fig. S-13 shows controlled convergence of this quantity). Figure 4 shows the results for various values of $J_{K}$. There are clearly two distinct phases with qualitatively different Fermi points $k_{F x}\left(k_{y}\right)$. At small $J_{K} \leq 2$, we find Fermi points at $\left(\left|k_{F x}\right|,\left|k_{y}\right|\right)=(0.625 \pi, \pi / 2)$ and $(0.256 \pi, \pi)$, matching the free-electron values at $J_{K}=0$. By contrast, at large $J_{K} \geq 2.8$, we find Fermi points only at $(\pi / 2,0)$, suggesting a FS reconstruction at some $J_{K c}$ in between. Note also that $k_{F x}\left(k_{y}\right)$ remains $J_{K}$ independent in each of the two regimes. This is expected from Luttinger's sum rule $[39,41]$, which links the effective number $n_{\text {eff }}$ of mobile charge carriers (defined modulo 2, i.e., up to filled bands) to the FS volume (see Ref. [30], Sec. S-4 C for details). For small $J_{K} \leq 0.75$, we find $n_{\text {eff }}=1.25$, consistent with $25 \%$ electron doping. By contrast, at large $J_{K} \geq$ 2.8 we find $n_{\text {eff }}=0.25=2.25 \bmod 2$, consistent with the spins becoming mobile charge carriers by "binding" to the electrons [42]. Pinpointing and studying a possible KB-QCP separating the two phases is left for future work.

Summary and outlook.-CBE expands bonds by adding subspaces on which $\Delta_{E}^{2 s}$, the $2 s$ contribution to the energy variance, has significant weight, thus making these
subspaces accessible to $1 s$ energy minimization. CBE is fully variational and has 1 s costs, since the variational space is only slightly expanded relative to 1 s DMRG.

By significantly saving costs, CBE opens the door to studying challenging models of current interest at higher accuracy (larger $D$ ) than previously possible, or tackling more complex models, with $d$ or $w$ so large that they were hitherto out of reach. Examples are multiband models with several different type of couplings, in particular in twodimensional settings, models involving bosonic excitations, and quantum-chemical applications. We have made a first step in this direction by showing that the KH model on a width 4 cylinder features two phases with distinct FS volumes. Our study of the KH model opens the door to investigate this model in more depth; for example, followup work may aim to sort out the range of applicability of existing approximate approaches, e.g., parton mean-field theories [74,75] or DMFT based studies [65-69].

More generally, CBE can be used for any variational MPS optimization task. Besides energy minimization, an example is approximating a given $\Psi$ by a $\Psi^{\prime}$ with smaller bond dimension through minimization of $\left\|\Psi^{\prime}-\Psi\right\|$. CBE can also be used to build Krylov spaces with $2 s$ accuracy at $1 s$ costs, relevant for all of the many MPS methods relying on Krylov methods. For example, in a follow-up paper [76] we focus on MPS time evolution using the time-dependent variational principle (TDVP), and use CBE to achieve dramatic improvements in performance. Finally, analogous statements hold for variational optimization or time evolution of MPOs. Thus, CBE will become a widely used, indispensable tool in the MPS/MPO toolbox.

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[30] See Supplemental Material at http://link.aps.org/ supplemental/10.1103/PhysRevLett.130.246402 for a detailed analysis of shrewd selection; a pseudocode for shrewd selection; additional simple benchmarks; a comparison to DMRG3S; and more details on the analysis of the KondoHeisenberg model on a 4-leg cylinder. The Supplemental Material includes Refs. [32-44].
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