## 20 The Variational Principle

1. We have so far dealt with particle in a box, hydrogen atom and harmonic oscillator. These were problems that can be solved analytically. However, all other chemical problems (with more than one electron) are problems that cannot be solved exactly and approximate methods are necessary to treat such problems. For the rest of the course we will deal with some basic ideas that are required to understand these approximate methods. The first such idea is the variational principle which we will study here.
2. We want to solve the time-independent Schrödinger Equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
H\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle=E_{n}\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle \tag{20.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some given Hamiltonian operator. If we left multiply both sides by $\left\langle\psi_{n}\right|$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
\left\langle\psi_{n}\right| H\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle & =\left\langle\psi_{n}\right| E_{n}\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle \\
\frac{\left\langle\psi_{n}\right| H\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle}{\left\langle\psi_{n} \mid \psi_{n}\right\rangle} & =E_{n} \tag{20.2}
\end{align*}
$$

3. The purpose of the time-independent Schrödinger Equation is to find the $\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle$. If we know this we know the energy. In many cases we may find an approximation to $\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle$. Say, $|\phi\rangle$ is an approximation to $\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle$. Therefore associated with this approximation is an approximate energy given by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{\prime}[\phi]=\frac{\langle\phi| H|\phi\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle} \tag{20.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

what are the properties of such an approximate energy?
4. Let us say we can write $|\phi\rangle=\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle+\alpha|\chi\rangle$. Using this:

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(H-E_{n}\right)\left|\psi_{n}\right\rangle & =0 \\
\left(H-E_{n}\right)[|\phi\rangle-\alpha|\chi\rangle] & =0 \\
\left(H-E_{n}\right)|\phi\rangle & =\alpha\left(H-E_{n}\right)|\chi\rangle \tag{20.4}
\end{align*}
$$

Now what is $E^{\prime}[\phi]-E_{n}$ ?

$$
\begin{align*}
E^{\prime}[\phi]-E_{n} & =\frac{\langle\phi|\left(H-E_{n}\right)|\phi\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle}=\frac{\langle\phi|\left(H-E_{n}\right)|\alpha \chi\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle} \\
& =\frac{\langle\alpha \chi|\left(H-E_{n}\right)|\alpha \chi\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle} \\
& =|\alpha|^{2} \frac{\langle\chi|\left(H-E_{n}\right)|\chi\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle} \tag{20.5}
\end{align*}
$$

where we have used $\left\{\left(H-E_{n}\right)|\phi\rangle\right\}^{\dagger}=\langle\phi|\left(H-E_{n}\right)$ since $\left(H-E_{n}\right)$ is Hermitian.
5. The last expression in Eq. (20.5) tells us that $E^{\prime}[\phi]$ differs from $E_{n}$ by an amount that is second order in in the variation in $\alpha|\chi\rangle$. If $\alpha$ is small, $\phi$ is close to $\psi$ and $E^{\prime}[\phi]$ will be closer to $E_{n}$.
6. And once $\phi$ is close to $\psi$, the energy is stationary with respect to small variations in $\phi$. For small $\alpha,|\alpha|^{2}$ is smaller. Thus the energy is second order in variations in $\phi$.
7. Let $\left\{\psi_{i}\right\}$ be the set of (unknown) eigenfunctions of $H$ with eigenvalues $\left\{E_{i}\right\}$. Since $H$ is a Hermitian operator, these eigenfunctions form a complete set and hence we expand $\phi$ using this complete set:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi=\sum_{i} c_{i} \psi_{i} \tag{20.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c_{j}=\left\langle\psi_{j} \mid \phi\right\rangle$, since $\left\{\psi_{i}\right\}$ are complete and orthonormal. (To check this left multiply the above equation by $\left\langle\psi_{j}\right|$ to see what you get.) Then the energy associated with $\phi$ is (we use Eq. (20.3)):

$$
\begin{align*}
E^{\prime}[\phi] & =\frac{\langle\phi| H|\phi\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle}=\frac{\langle\phi| H \sum_{i} c_{i}\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle} \\
& =\frac{\langle\phi| \sum_{i} c_{i} E_{i}\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle}=\frac{\sum_{i} c_{i} E_{i}\left\langle\phi \mid \psi_{i}\right\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle} \\
& =\frac{\sum_{i}\left|c_{i}\right|^{2} E_{i}}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle} \tag{20.7}
\end{align*}
$$

Now, the denominator:

$$
\begin{align*}
\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle & =\sum_{j} c_{j}{ }^{*}\left\langle\psi_{j}\right| \sum_{i} c_{i}\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle=\sum_{i} \sum_{j} c_{j}{ }^{*} c_{i}\left\langle\psi_{j} \mid \psi_{i}\right\rangle \\
& =\sum_{i} \sum_{j} c_{j}{ }^{*} c_{i} \delta_{i, j}=\sum_{i}\left|c_{i}\right|^{2} \tag{20.8}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{\prime}[\phi]=\frac{\sum_{i}\left|c_{i}\right|^{2} E_{i}}{\sum_{i}\left|c_{i}\right|^{2}} \tag{20.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now the energies are ordered such that $E_{1} \leq E_{2} \leq E_{3} \leq \cdots \leq E_{n} \leq \cdots$. The Eq. (20.9) is a weighted average of these energies. Hence, the lowest value that $E^{\prime}[\phi]$ can have is when $c_{1}=1$ and all other $c_{i}=0$, that is when $\phi$ is the ground state $\psi_{1}$. For all other $\phi$, $E^{\prime}[\phi]>E_{1}$, hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{\prime}[\phi] \geq E_{1} \tag{20.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and its minimum value is when $\phi \equiv \psi_{1}$. This is the variational principle.
8. Notice that we had chosen our "basis" functions as the eigenstates of the Hamiltonian. If we had not done that we would have found that the lowest energy that we can get for $E^{\prime}$, given a finite basis set, is always greater than or equal to the ground state energy. To put it in a
different way, the lowest value of energy $E^{\prime}$ obtained from any finite basis forms an upper bound to the ground state energy. That is the ground state is either below or equal to the lowest value of $E^{\prime}$.
9. In reality we do not know the set $\left\{\psi_{i}\right\}$. Our $\phi$ in the previous discussion is meant to be a approximation to one of these eigenstates. Now we shall see how we can use the variational principle. The important point that the variational principle conveys to us is that the ground state energy is the minimum value of all possible energies that any vector can have. We will see how this works below. Let us expand a "trial" function $\phi$ using some complete set of basis vectors $\left|f_{i}\right\rangle$, that is $|\phi\rangle=a_{i}\left|f_{i}\right\rangle$. But let us now assume that $\left|f_{i}\right\rangle$ do not form an orthonormal set. That is $\left\langle f_{i} \mid f_{j}\right\rangle \neq \delta_{i, j}$.
[So $\left\{\left|f_{i}\right\rangle\right\}$ are our coodinate system, and we are trying to find $|\phi\rangle=a_{i}\left|f_{i}\right\rangle$, represented in that coordinate system. And in our case the coordinate system is not necessarily an orthogonal coordinate systems. So, what space are we in again?]
Then

$$
\begin{align*}
E^{\prime}[\phi] & =\frac{\langle\phi| H|\phi\rangle}{\langle\phi \mid \phi\rangle} \\
& =\frac{\sum_{j} a_{j}{ }^{*}\left\langle f_{j}\right| H \sum_{i} a_{i}\left|f_{i}\right\rangle}{\sum_{j} a_{j}{ }^{*}\left\langle f_{j}\right| \sum_{i} a_{i}\left|f_{i}\right\rangle} \\
& =\frac{\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i} a_{j}^{*}\left\langle f_{j}\right| H\left|f_{i}\right\rangle}{\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i} a_{j}{ }^{*}\left\langle f_{j} \mid f_{i}\right\rangle}=\frac{\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i} a_{j}^{*} H_{i, j}}{\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i} a_{j}{ }^{*} S_{i, j}} \tag{20.11}
\end{align*}
$$

where we have defined: $H_{i, j}=\left\langle f_{j}\right| H\left|f_{i}\right\rangle$ and $S_{i, j}=\left\langle f_{j} \mid f_{i}\right\rangle$. These are called "matrix elements". Why? Consider $H_{i, j}=\left\langle f_{j}\right| H\left|f_{i}\right\rangle$, for each $i$ and $j$ we have one number. If there are N basis functions $f_{i}$, then we have an $N \times N$ matrix. Similarly for $S_{i, j}=\left\langle f_{j} \mid f_{i}\right\rangle$. Using these definitions we can rewrite the above equation as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i} a_{j}^{*}\left[H_{i, j}-E^{\prime} S_{i, j}\right]=0 \tag{20.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

10. OK. So far we have just rewritten the expression for $E^{\prime}[\phi]$. Now we want to ask what does the variational principle really mean? We said the minimum value of energy that we can get from any function $\phi$ is when it is equal to the ground eigenstate. This is the minimum value of energy. Hence, from calculus $\frac{\partial E^{\prime}}{\partial a_{k}}=0$. Using this in Eq. (20.12):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial}{\partial a_{k}} \sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i} a_{j}^{*}\left[H_{i, j}-E^{\prime} S_{i, j}\right]= & \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \delta_{i, k} a_{j}^{*}\left[H_{i, j}-E^{\prime} S_{i, j}\right]+ \\
& \sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i} \delta_{j, k}\left[H_{i, j}-E^{\prime} S_{i, j}\right]+ \\
& \sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i} a_{j}^{*}\left[-\frac{\partial E^{\prime}}{\partial a_{k}} S_{i, j}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
= & \sum_{j} a_{j}{ }^{*}\left[H_{k, j}-E^{\prime} S_{k, j}\right]+ \\
& \sum_{i} a_{i}\left[H_{i, k}-E^{\prime} S_{i, k}\right] \\
= & 0 \tag{20.13}
\end{align*}
$$

which is true for every $k$. We are free to change the $i \rightarrow j$ in the second term of the last equation. Then we note that since $H$ is Hermitian, $H_{i, k}{ }^{*}=H_{k, i}$.
11. If we restrict ourselves to real functions and real values of $a_{i}$ then Eq. (20.13) reduces to:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial}{\partial a_{k}} \sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i} a_{j}^{*}\left[H_{i, j}-E^{\prime} S_{i, j}\right]=2 \sum_{i} a_{i}\left[H_{i, k}-E^{\prime} S_{i, k}\right]=0 \tag{20.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (20.14) is a system of equations. There is one equation for each $k$. And each equation is a linear equation in the set of unknowns $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$. Certainly one solution to this system of equations is $a_{1}=a_{2}=a_{3}=\cdots=0$. This called the trivial solution and in this case is completely meaningless since they $\phi$ would be zero. For such a set of equations to have a "meaningful" solution, it is required that the determinant:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|H-E^{\prime} S\right|=0 \tag{20.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Solving this determinant gives us $E^{\prime}$ which can be used to determine the eigenstates of the Hamiltonian. This equation is called the secular equation. Let us do a couple of examples. (I will do this on the board.)
Can we now see what we really did in http://www.indiana.edu/\~ssiweb/C561/PDFfiles/Diag-handout.pdf? [If you recall, this was a handout given to you during the first mid-term exam to help you diagonalize a matrix.]

