

Chapter 7: Mean-field approximation: static Hartree-Fock theory and density functional theory

Mean-field approximation is most important in

- atomic physics
- nuclear physics
- condensed matter / quantum chemistry

Basic idea:

given 2-body interactions

$$V^{(2)} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\substack{\bar{i}, \bar{j}=1 \\ (\bar{i} \neq \bar{j})}}^N v^{(2)}(x_{\bar{i}}, x_{\bar{j}})$$

~~with~~ simplifying assumption:
 $|\phi_0\rangle = \underline{\text{single Slater determinant}}$

derive 1-body "mean field" potential

$$V_{\text{m.f.}}^{(1)} = \sum_{\bar{i}=1}^N v^{(1)}(x_{\bar{i}})$$

which describes the given 2-body interactions "on average".

Mathematically much easier to handle! Mean-field approxi-
mations turn out to be surprisingly good!

ch. 7.1

General N -body problem: time-dep. Schrödinger eq. in coord. space and in occupation # space

(2)

Ref: Fetter & Walecka, ch. 1.1

a) in coord. space

$$H(x_1, \dots, x_N) = T^{(1)} + V^{(1)} + V^{(2)} + V^{(3)} + \dots \quad \text{Hamiltonian}$$

$$T^{(1)} = \text{kin. energy} = \sum_{i=1}^N -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_i^2 = \text{one-body op.}$$

$$V^{(1)} = \text{external one-body potential} = \sum_{i=1}^N V^{(1)}(x_i)$$

$$V^{(2)} = \text{two-body interaction} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\substack{i,j=1 \\ (i \neq j)}}^N V^{(2)}(x_i, x_j)$$

⋮
etc.

time-dep. Schrödinger eq.

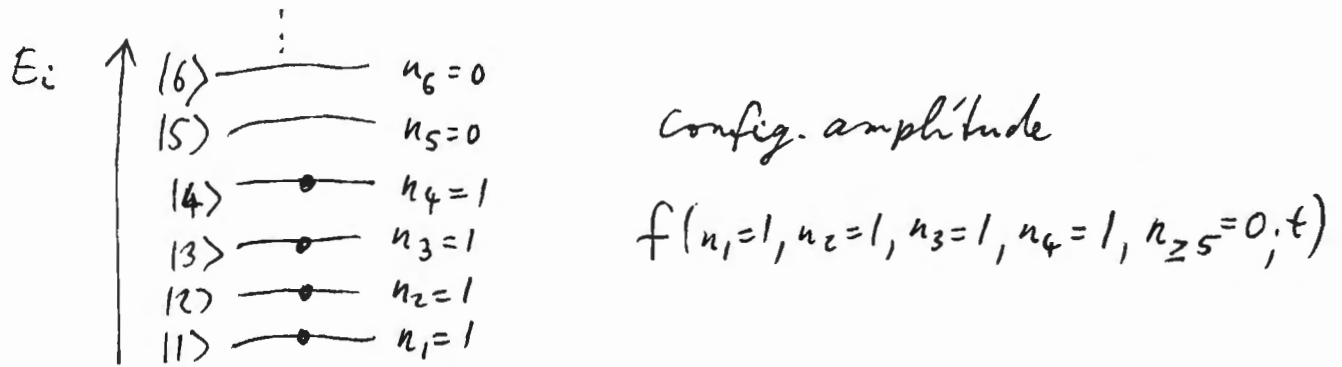
In the most general case, the potentials may be time-dep., in particular $V^{(1)}(t)$, e.g. external time-dep. field.

$$\left[H(x_1, \dots, x_N) - i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right] \psi(x_1, \dots, x_N, t) = 0$$

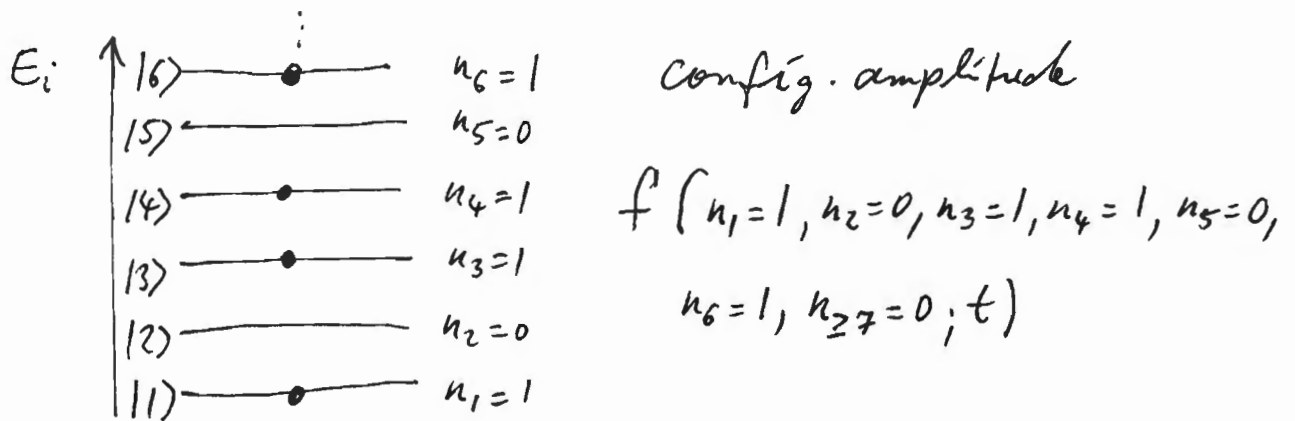
For fermions, the set of all possible Slater determinants with N occupied s.p. levels form a complete set, so we can expand ψ as follows

$$\underbrace{\psi(x_1, \dots, x_N, t)}_{\text{exact many-body WF}} = \sum_{\substack{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{\infty} \\ n_i = 0, 1}}^{\textcircled{1}} \underbrace{f(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{\infty}, t)}_{\text{configuration amplitude}} \underbrace{\phi_{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{\infty}}(x_1, \dots, x_N)}_{\text{Slater det.}}$$

We illustrate here 2 possible configurations (out of ∞ many!) for the case of $N=4$ fermions:



Here is another example:



etc.

b) same problem in occupation # space

Hamiltonian $\hat{H} = \hat{T}^{(1)} + \hat{V}^{(1)} + \hat{V}^{(2)} + \hat{V}^{(3)} + \dots$

$\hat{T}^{(1)} = \text{kin. energy} = \sum_{k,l=1}^{\infty} \langle k | -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 | l \rangle \hat{c}_k^\dagger \hat{c}_l$

$\hat{V}^{(1)} = \text{external 1-body pot.} = \sum_{k,l=1}^{\infty} \langle k | v^{(1)} | l \rangle \hat{c}_k^\dagger \hat{c}_l$

$\hat{V}^{(2)} = \text{2-body int} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l,m,n=1}^{\infty} \langle k l | v^{(2)} | m n \rangle \hat{c}_k^\dagger \hat{c}_l^\dagger \hat{c}_n \hat{c}_m$

(4)

many-body state vector:

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_\infty}^{(1)} f(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_\infty; t) |n_1, n_2, \dots, n_\infty\rangle$$

$n_1, n_2, \dots, n_\infty = 0$

with

$$\begin{aligned} |n_1, n_2, \dots, n_\infty\rangle &= (\hat{c}_1^+)^{n_1} (\hat{c}_2^+)^{n_2} \dots (\hat{c}_\infty^+)^{n_\infty} |0\rangle \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} (\hat{c}_i^+)^{n_i} |0\rangle \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \text{with } \underline{n_i = 0 \text{ or } 1} \text{ (fermions) and } \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} n_i = N \end{array} \right\}$$

Many-body time-dep. Schrödinger eq. in occup. # space:

$$\left[\hat{H} - i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right] |\psi(t)\rangle = 0.$$

ch. 7.2 Equivalence of static N -body problem $(\hat{H} - E)|\psi\rangle = 0$
to variational principle $\delta_{(\psi)} E(\psi) = 0$

Ref: Shankar, QM, ch. 16.1

Blauzot & Ripka, p. 173-174

Theorem 1: Let $\hat{H}$ be the static Hamiltonian of an N -body system. The exact solution of the Schrödinger eq. has the form

$$\boxed{\hat{H} |\psi\rangle = E |\psi\rangle.} \quad (*)$$

Here E and $|\psi\rangle$ may represent either the g.s. or any excited state.

(5)

The Ritz variational principle states that if we form the "energy functional" $E[\psi]$ defined as

$$E[\psi] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\langle \psi | \hat{H} | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle}$$

then the variational principle

$$\delta_{(\psi)} E[\psi] = 0 \quad (**)$$

(where $|\psi\rangle$ is allowed to vary over the whole Hilbert space) is equivalent to the solution of the static Schrödinger eq. (*).

Proof: Rewrite $E[\psi]$ def. in the form

$$E[\psi] \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle$$

Now perform variation with respect to ψ (Morse + Feshbach, vol. 2, p. 1108):

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \underbrace{\delta E[\psi]}_{=0} \langle \psi | \psi \rangle + E \langle \delta \psi | \psi \rangle + E \langle \psi | \delta \psi \rangle \\ = \langle \delta \psi | H | \psi \rangle + \langle \psi | H | \delta \psi \rangle \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \delta \psi | H - E | \psi \rangle + \langle \psi | H - E | \delta \psi \rangle = 0. \quad \underline{(1)}$$

We prove now that one can carry out the variations over $|\delta \psi\rangle$ and $\langle \delta \psi|$ independently. To see this, replace

$$|\delta \psi\rangle \rightarrow |i \delta \psi\rangle \stackrel{(1)}{\Rightarrow}$$

$$-i \langle \delta \psi | H - E | \psi \rangle + i \langle \psi | H - E | \delta \psi \rangle = 0 \quad \underline{(2)}$$

Multiply (1) by (i):

$$i \langle \delta\psi | H - E | \psi \rangle + i \langle \psi | H - E | \delta\psi \rangle = 0 \quad (3)$$

Add and subtract (2) and (3) yields

$$2i \langle \psi | H - E | \delta\psi \rangle = 0 \quad |\delta\psi\rangle \text{ arbitrary} \Rightarrow$$

$$\langle \psi | (H - E) = 0$$

$$-2i \langle \delta\psi | H - E | \psi \rangle = 0 \quad \langle \delta\psi | \text{ arbitrary} \Rightarrow$$

$$(H - E) | \psi \rangle = 0$$

f.e.d.

This variational eq. is exact. Its importance lies in the following fact:

Theorem 2: Let E_n and $|\psi_n\rangle$ be the exact eigenstates / eigenenergies of H :

$$H |\psi_n\rangle = E_n |\psi_n\rangle \quad \text{exact}$$

in particular: $H |\psi_0\rangle = E_0 |\psi_0\rangle \quad \text{exact} \quad (E_0 \leq E_n)$

with the exact g.s. energy $E_0 = \langle \psi_0 | H | \psi_0 \rangle / \langle \psi_0 | \psi_0 \rangle$

For any arbitrary state vector $|\phi\rangle$, one has the inequality:

$$E_0 = \frac{\langle \psi_0 | H | \psi_0 \rangle}{\langle \psi_0 | \psi_0 \rangle} \leq E[\phi] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\langle \phi | H | \phi \rangle}{\langle \phi | \phi \rangle}$$

exact g.s. energy
exact g.s. state vector
↑
arbitrary state vector

(7)

Proof: Expand given $|\phi\rangle$ in terms of exact eigenstates

$$|\phi\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n |\psi_n\rangle$$

given exact
arbitrary

$$\Rightarrow E[\phi] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\langle \phi | H | \phi \rangle}{\langle \phi | \phi \rangle} = \frac{\sum_{m,n} a_m^* a_n \overbrace{\langle \psi_m | H | \psi_n \rangle}^{= E_n \delta_{mn}}}{\sum_{m,n} a_m^* a_n \underbrace{\langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle}_{= \delta_{mn}}} =$$

$$= \frac{\sum_n |a_n|^2 E_n}{\sum_n |a_n|^2} \geq \frac{\sum_n |a_n|^2 E_0}{\sum_n |a_n|^2} = \frac{E_0 \sum_n |a_n|^2}{\sum_n |a_n|^2}$$

$\uparrow$
use
 $E_n \geq E_0$

$$= E_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{E[\phi] \geq E_0} \quad \text{q.e.d.}$$

Interpretation: Choose arbitrary state vector $|\phi\rangle$ and form energy functional $E[\phi]$. Then $E[\phi]$ is an upper bound for exact g.s. energy E_0 .

Importance for HF theory: In HF theory, we restrict ourselves to the subspace of single Slater determinants $|\phi\rangle$. Using the Ritz variational principle $\delta_{(\phi)} E[\phi] = 0$, we obtain an approximate result (upper bound) for exact g.s. energy E_0 .

ch. 7.3 : Criterion for Slater determinants: $\rho^2 = \rho$

In static HF theory, one makes the approximation that the state vector of the ground state is a single Slater determinant. In occupation # space, a Slater determinant corresponds to the state vector (for N orbitals):

$$|\phi_0\rangle = (\hat{c}_{\lambda_1}^+ \hat{c}_{\lambda_2}^+ \dots \hat{c}_{\lambda_N}^+) |0\rangle \quad (1)$$

We introduce the density matrix parameters discussed in earlier chapters

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_{ij} &= \langle i | \rho | j \rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle \phi_0 | \hat{c}_j^+ \hat{c}_i | \phi_0 \rangle = \\ &\stackrel{(1)}{=} \langle 0 | (\hat{c}_{\lambda_N} \hat{c}_{\lambda_{N-1}} \dots \hat{c}_{\lambda_2} \hat{c}_{\lambda_1}) \hat{c}_j^+ \hat{c}_i (\hat{c}_{\lambda_1}^+ \hat{c}_{\lambda_2}^+ \dots \hat{c}_{\lambda_N}^+) | 0 \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Using Wick's theorem for time-indep. operators, one can prove (Blaizot and Ripka, p. 177) that the operator ρ defined via eq. (2) can be written as

$$\rho = \sum_{\mu=1}^N |\lambda_\mu\rangle \langle \lambda_\mu|$$

$\downarrow$
 s.p. states

(3)

i.e. the operator ρ may be regarded as a projector onto the space spanned by the N occupied s.p. states $|\lambda_\mu\rangle$.

Theorem:

A necessary and sufficient condition for a completely antisymmetric state vector $|\phi_0\rangle$ to be a Slater determinant is that the single-particle density matrix elements $p_{ij} = \langle i | \rho | j \rangle$ satisfy

$$p^2 = p$$

We prove the theorem in one direction only. Let's assume, we have a Slater determinant (1) which implies (3) that

$$\rho = \sum_{\mu=1}^N |\lambda_{\mu}\rangle \langle \lambda_{\mu}|.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence: } \rho^2 &= \rho \cdot \rho = \left(\sum_{\mu=1}^N |\lambda_{\mu}\rangle \langle \lambda_{\mu}| \right) \left(\sum_{\nu=1}^N |\lambda_{\nu}\rangle \langle \lambda_{\nu}| \right) = \\ &= \sum_{\mu, \nu=1}^N |\lambda_{\mu}\rangle \underbrace{\langle \lambda_{\mu} | \lambda_{\nu} \rangle}_{=\delta_{\mu\nu}} \langle \lambda_{\nu}| = \sum_{\mu=1}^N |\lambda_{\mu}\rangle \langle \lambda_{\mu}| = \rho. \end{aligned}$$

q.e.d.

One can also prove the theorem in the opposite direction (Blaisot & Ripka, p. 178 and Ring & Schuck, Appendix D).

ch. 7.4: The "Hartree potential" in atomic physics

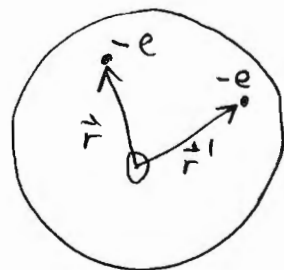
Shortly after the discovery of quantum mechanics by Heisenberg (1925) and Schrödinger (1926), the British physicist Hartree introduced in 1928 a simple model wavefunction to describe an N -electron atom. He

neglected the antisymmetry and used a simple product WF of the form

$$\Psi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = \varphi_1(x_1) \varphi_2(x_2) \dots \varphi_N(x_N).$$

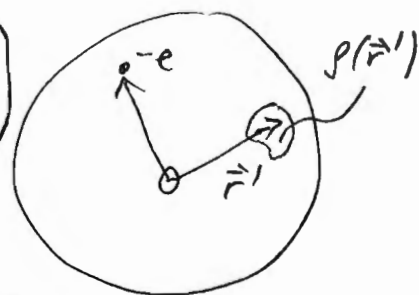
Using a variational principle for the s.p. WF's $\varphi_i(x_i)$, he was able to derive from the given electron-electron interaction (2-body potential)

$$v^{(2)}(\vec{r}, \vec{r}') = \frac{(-e)(-e)}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$$



a one-body "mean field" potential

$$V_H^{(1)}(\vec{r}) = \int d^3r' \rho(\vec{r}') v^{(2)}(\vec{r}, \vec{r}')$$



where $\rho(\vec{r}')$ is the quantum mechanical number density distribution of the electrons, i.e. the sum of the squares of the occupied s.p. WF's:

$$\rho(\vec{r}') = \sum_{\sigma=\uparrow\downarrow} \sum_{\alpha=1}^N |\varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}', \sigma)|^2$$

This one-body potential is named in his honor the "Hartree potential".

In 1930, the Russian physicist Fock generalized Hartree's method for atoms by including the anti-symmetry. In this way, he derived an additional "Fock" exchange potential.

d.7.5

Derivation of HF-equations from Ritz Variational principle (occupation # space)

Ref: Blaizot & Ripka, p. 177-180

We consider a system of N fermions (at zero temperature $T=0$) described by the Hamiltonian

$$\hat{H} = \hat{T}^{(1)} + \hat{V}^{(2)} \quad (1)$$

where $\hat{T}^{(1)}$ is the full 1-body operator (in the N -electron atom case $\hat{T}^{(1)} = \text{kin. energy} + \text{electron-nucleus interaction}$).

In the HF theory, one assumes that the ground state is a single Slater determinant

$$\phi_0(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \begin{vmatrix} \varphi_1(x_1) & \dots & \varphi_1(x_N) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \varphi_N(x_1) & \dots & \varphi_N(x_N) \end{vmatrix} \quad (2)$$

composed of N orthonormal s.p. wave functions

$$\varphi_i(x) = \langle x | i \rangle \quad i = 1, \dots, N$$

with the properties

$$\langle i | j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$

orthonormality

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |i\rangle \langle i| = 1$$

completeness

(3)

In occupation # space, the Slater determinant corresponds to the state vector

$$|\phi_0\rangle = (\hat{c}_1^+ \hat{c}_2^+ \dots \hat{c}_N^+) |0\rangle. \quad (4)$$

Important note: We do not specify the s.p. basis.

Rather, the basis WF's $\varphi_i(x)$ will be determined self-consistently from the HF theory via a variational principle!

First we calculate the g.s. energy in the state $|\phi_0\rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_0 &= \langle \phi_0 | \hat{H} | \phi_0 \rangle = \langle \phi_0 | \hat{T}^{(1)} + \hat{V}^{(2)} | \phi_0 \rangle = \\
 &= \sum_{k,l=1}^{\infty} \langle k | t | l \rangle \underbrace{\langle \phi_0 | \hat{c}_k^\dagger \hat{c}_l | \phi_0 \rangle}_{= \rho_{lk} \text{ (ch. 2, p. 31)}} \\
 &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l,m,n=1}^{\infty} \langle kl | v | mn \rangle \underbrace{\langle \phi_0 | \hat{c}_k^\dagger \hat{c}_l^\dagger \hat{c}_n \hat{c}_m | \phi_0 \rangle}_{\substack{\text{note sequence!} \\ = \text{Wick's Theorem (ch. 4, p. 14)} \\ = \rho_{nl} \cdot \rho_{mk} - \rho_{nk} \cdot \rho_{ml}}}
 \end{aligned}$$

We see that the g.s. energy depends on the density parameters

ρ_{nl} :

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_0(\rho) &= \sum_{k,l} \langle k | t | l \rangle \rho_{lk} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l,m,n} \langle kl | v | mn \rangle \rho_{mk} \rho_{nl} \\
 &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l,m,n} \langle kl | v | mn \rangle \rho_{nk} \rho_{ml}
 \end{aligned}$$

If we relabel in the last term the dummy indices

$$n \leftrightarrow m,$$

we can combine the last two terms into one:

$$E_0(\rho) = \sum_{k,l=1}^{\infty} \langle k|t|l \rangle \rho_{ek} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l,m,n=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{\langle kl|v|mn - nm \rangle}_{\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle kl|\bar{v}|mn \rangle} \rho_{mk} \rho_{nl} \quad (5)$$

The quantity $\langle kl|\bar{v}|mn \rangle$ is an antisymmetrized 2-body matrix element.

Since the g.s. energy depends on the density parameters ρ_{ij} , it seems logical to try a variational principle in the form

$$\delta |_{\rho_{ij}} E_0(\rho) = 0.$$

However, in this form, we have not yet specified that the variation is to be carried out in the space of single Slater determinants which is given by the condition

$$\rho^2 = \rho. \quad (6)$$

We can couple in this condition via a Lagrange multiplier matrix Λ ; the correct Pitz variational principle is:

$$\delta |_{\rho_{ij}} \left[\underbrace{E_0(\rho)}_{\text{g.s. energy}} - \text{tr} \left\{ \underbrace{\Lambda}_{\text{Lagr. multiplier matrix}} \cdot \underbrace{(\rho^2 - \rho)}_{\text{single Slater det.}} \right\} \right] = 0 \quad (7)$$

Note that because ρ_{ij} is a matrix, the quantity Λ is also a matrix. In (7), "tr" is the trace of a matrix:

$$\text{tr}\{A\} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_i A_{ii}. \quad (8)$$

Let's carry out the variation of the 2nd term in eq. (7) first:

$$\delta|_g [-\text{tr}\{\Lambda \cdot (\rho \cdot \rho - \rho)\}] = \text{tr}[-\underbrace{\Lambda \cdot \delta\rho \cdot \rho - \Lambda \cdot \rho \cdot \delta\rho + \Lambda \cdot \delta\rho}] \quad (9a)$$

Using the property of traces

$$\text{tr}\{ABC\} = \text{tr}[CAB] \Rightarrow \text{tr}[-\Lambda \cdot \delta\rho \cdot \rho] = \text{tr}[-\rho \cdot \Lambda \cdot \delta\rho]$$

$\nearrow$ cyclic permutation

We can write (9a) in the form

$$\delta|_g [-\text{tr}\{\Lambda \cdot (\rho^2 - \rho)\}] = \text{tr}[(-\rho \cdot \Lambda - \Lambda \cdot \rho + \Lambda) \cdot \delta\rho] \quad (9b)$$

The goal is now to also write the 1st term in (7) in the form of a trace:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta|_g [E_0(\rho)] &= \sum_{i,j} \underbrace{\frac{\partial E_0}{\partial \rho_{ji}}}_{\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} h_{ij}} \delta \rho_{ji} = \sum_{i,j} h_{ij} \delta \rho_{ji} = \\ &= \sum_i \left(\sum_j h_{ij} \delta \rho_{ji} \right) = \sum_i (h \cdot \delta\rho)_{ii} = \text{tr}[h \cdot \delta\rho] \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Note the placement of indices in the definition of

$$h_{ij} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\partial E_0}{\partial \rho_{ji}} \quad (11)$$

The s.p. Hamiltonian h_{ij} will turn out to be the
"Hartree-Fock" mean field Hamiltonian

(15)

$$h_{ij} \equiv h_{ij}^{\text{HF}} = \langle i | h | j \rangle = \frac{\partial E_0(\rho)}{\partial \rho_{ji}} = \underline{\text{homework!}} =$$

$$= \langle i | t | j \rangle + \sum_{k,l=1}^{\infty} \langle i k | \bar{v}^{(2)} | j l \rangle \rho_{lk}. \quad (12)$$

Note that in the 2nd term of (12) one sums over k and l , so that this matrix element may be regarded as a s.p. matrix element of the form

$$\langle i | V^{(1)} | j \rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{k,l=1}^{\infty} \langle i k | \bar{v}^{(2)} | j l \rangle \rho_{lk}. \quad (13)$$

$\downarrow$ $\downarrow$
 HF one-body given two-body
 "mean field" interaction"

Inserting (10) and (9b) into the variational principle equation (7) results in

$$\text{tr} \left[\underbrace{(h - \rho \Lambda - \Lambda \rho + \Lambda)}_{\stackrel{!}{=} 0} \cdot \delta \rho \right] = 0 \quad (14)$$

$\uparrow$ arbitrary variation

so the var. principle results in

$$(\dots) = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{h = \rho \Lambda + \Lambda \rho - \Lambda}. \quad (15)$$

Let us now evaluate the commutator of h and ρ :

$$[h, g] = h g - g h \stackrel{(15)}{=} (\cancel{g \Delta g} + \Delta g^2 - \Delta g) - g^2 \Delta - \cancel{g \Delta g} + g \Delta \quad (16)$$

We now impose the condition for Slater determinant, $g^2 = g$:

$$[h, g] = \cancel{\Delta g} - \cancel{\Delta g} - \cancel{g \Delta} + \cancel{g \Delta} = 0$$

resulting in the

$$\boxed{\text{"HF-equations": } [h, g] = 0} \quad (16)$$

What does this condition mean? It implies that there exists a common eigenbasis $|\alpha\rangle$ which diagonalizes both the s.p. mean-field Hamiltonian h and the density matrix parameter g :

$$[h, g] = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} h|\alpha\rangle &= \epsilon_\alpha |\alpha\rangle \\ g|\alpha\rangle &= n_\alpha |\alpha\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (17a)$$

Alternatively, projecting from the left with $\langle\beta|$, we get

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} h_{\beta\alpha} &= \langle\beta|h|\alpha\rangle = \epsilon_\alpha \langle\beta|\alpha\rangle = \epsilon_\alpha \delta_{\alpha\beta} \\ g_{\beta\alpha} &= \langle\beta|g|\alpha\rangle = n_\alpha \langle\beta|\alpha\rangle = n_\alpha \delta_{\alpha\beta} \end{aligned}} \quad (17b)$$

Let's examine the 2nd eigenvalue eqn. first. One easily shows that

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} n_\alpha &= 0 \text{ or } 1 \\ \text{tr}(g) &= N \end{aligned}} \quad (17c)$$

Proof: (Blauzof & Rípha, p. 177-178)

$$a) \quad \underline{p^2 |\alpha\rangle} = p(p|\alpha\rangle) \stackrel{(17a)}{=} p(n_\alpha |\alpha\rangle) = n_\alpha (p|\alpha\rangle) \stackrel{(17a)}{=} \quad (17)$$

$$= \underline{n_\alpha^2 |\alpha\rangle}$$

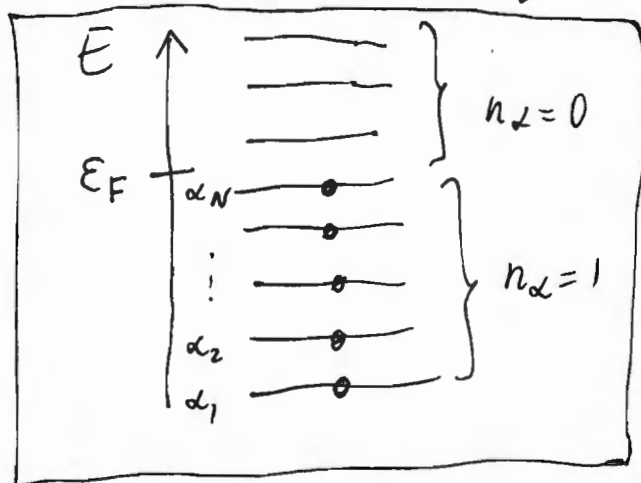
$$\Rightarrow \underline{n_\alpha^2 |\alpha\rangle} = p^2 |\alpha\rangle \stackrel{p^2=p}{=} p|\alpha\rangle = \underline{n_\alpha |\alpha\rangle}$$

$$\Rightarrow (n_\alpha^2 - n_\alpha) |\alpha\rangle = 0 \Rightarrow n_\alpha (n_\alpha - 1) = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{n_\alpha = 0 \text{ or } 1}$$

$$b) \quad \text{tr}(p) = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{\infty} p_{\alpha\alpha} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{\langle \alpha | p | \alpha \rangle}_{= n_\alpha} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{\infty} n_\alpha \underbrace{\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle}_{=1} =$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha=1}^{\infty} n_\alpha \quad \downarrow \quad \begin{matrix} 0 \text{ or } 1 \end{matrix} \quad = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{\infty} \theta(\epsilon_F - \epsilon_\alpha) = \sum_{\alpha=1}^N 1 = N,$$

↓ where we have now ordered the N s.p. WF's which are occupied ($n_\alpha = 1$) according to their energy; this defines



the HF Slater determinant in occupation # space

$$|\phi_0^{HF}\rangle = (\hat{c}_{\alpha_1}^\dagger \hat{c}_{\alpha_2}^\dagger \dots \hat{c}_{\alpha_N}^\dagger) |0\rangle \quad (17d)$$

and the above considerations show that

$$\boxed{n_\alpha = \theta(\epsilon_F - \epsilon_\alpha); \quad p_{\beta\alpha} = n_\alpha \delta_{\beta\alpha}} \quad (17e)$$

This is the same relation we found in earlier chapters for the non-interacting g.s.

Insert (17e) into eq. (5) for g.s. energy

$$E_0^{HF}(\rho) = \sum_{k,l=1}^{\infty} \langle k|t|l \rangle \theta(\epsilon_F - \epsilon_k) \delta_{lk} \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l,m,n=1}^{\infty} \langle k,l|\bar{v}|m,n \rangle \theta(\epsilon_F - \epsilon_k) \theta(\epsilon_F - \epsilon_l) \delta_{mk} \delta_{nl}$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$E_0^{HF}(\rho) = \sum_{k=1}^N \langle k|t|k \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l=1}^N \underbrace{\langle k,l|\bar{v}|k,l \rangle}_{\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle k,l|\bar{v}|k,l-lk \rangle}$$

HF ground state energy

(18)

Similarly, we find from inserting (17e) into mean-field eq. (17b), using the expression (12):

$$\epsilon_\alpha \delta_{\alpha\beta} = h_{\beta\alpha} = \langle \beta|h^{HF}|\alpha \rangle \stackrel{(12)}{=} \langle \beta|t|\alpha \rangle \\ + \sum_{\mu,\nu=1}^{\infty} \langle \beta\mu|\bar{v}|\alpha\nu \rangle \rho_{\nu\mu} = \theta(\epsilon_F - \epsilon_\mu) \delta_{\nu\mu}$$

resulting in the

HF-equos in "energy representation"

$$h_{\beta\alpha}^{HF} = \langle \beta|h^{HF}|\alpha \rangle = \langle \beta|t|\alpha \rangle + \sum_{\mu=1}^N \underbrace{\langle \beta\mu|\bar{v}|\alpha\mu \rangle}_{\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle \beta\mu|\bar{v}|\alpha\mu-\mu\alpha \rangle} \\ = \epsilon_\alpha \delta_{\alpha\beta}.$$

(19)

The HF s.p. matrix elements, in turn, define the
HF s.p. Hamiltonian in occupation # space:

$$H_{HF} \hat{H}_{HF}^{(1)} = \sum_{\alpha, \beta=1}^{\infty} \langle \beta | h^{HF} | \alpha \rangle \hat{c}_{\beta}^{\dagger} \hat{c}_{\alpha} =$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha, \beta=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_{\alpha} \delta_{\alpha\beta} \hat{c}_{\beta}^{\dagger} \hat{c}_{\alpha} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_{\alpha} \underbrace{\hat{c}_{\alpha}^{\dagger} \hat{c}_{\alpha}}_{=\hat{n}_{\alpha}}, \text{ i.e.}$$

$$\boxed{\hat{H}_{HF}^{(1)} = \sum_{\alpha, \beta=1}^{\infty} \langle \beta | \underbrace{h^{HF}}_{\text{HF s.p. Hamiltonian}} | \alpha \rangle \hat{c}_{\beta}^{\dagger} \hat{c}_{\alpha} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_{\alpha} \underbrace{\hat{n}_{\alpha}}_{\text{HF s.p. energies}}} \quad (20)$$

2.7.6: HF equations in coordinate space

We start from the eqns (19)

$$\langle \beta | h | \alpha \rangle = \langle \beta | t | \alpha \rangle + \sum_{\mu=1}^N \langle \beta \mu | v | \alpha \mu - \mu \alpha \rangle \quad (1)$$

and we insert the completeness relations for (spin + space)
in the form

$$\underbrace{\int dx |x\rangle \langle x|}_{\substack{=1 \\ \parallel \\ |\vec{r} \sigma\rangle}} = 1 \Rightarrow \boxed{\int d^3r \sum_{\sigma=\pm\frac{1}{2}} |\vec{r} \sigma\rangle \langle \vec{r} \sigma| = 1} \quad (2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \beta | h | \alpha \rangle =$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \beta | \underbrace{\int d^3r \sum_{\sigma} |\vec{r} \sigma\rangle \langle \vec{r} \sigma|}_{\text{---}} h \underbrace{\int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma'} |\vec{r}' \sigma'\rangle \langle \vec{r}' \sigma'|}_{\text{---}} | \alpha \rangle =$$

Continued on next page!

$$= \underbrace{\langle \beta | \int d^3r \sum_{\sigma} |\vec{r}\sigma\rangle \langle \vec{r}\sigma| t | \int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma'} |\vec{r}'\sigma'\rangle \langle \vec{r}'\sigma'| \alpha \rangle}_{\text{---}} +$$

$$+ \sum_{\mu=1}^N \underbrace{\langle \beta \mu | \int d^3r \sum_{\sigma} \int d^3r_2 \sum_{\sigma_2} |\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2\rangle \langle \vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2| v^{(2)} |}_{\text{---}}$$

$$\times \underbrace{\int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma'} \int d^3r_2' \sum_{\sigma_2'} |\vec{r}'\sigma', \vec{r}_2'\sigma_2'\rangle \langle \vec{r}'\sigma', \vec{r}_2'\sigma_2'| \alpha \mu - \mu \alpha \rangle}_{\text{---}}$$

Rewrite in usual notation with WF's:

$$\underbrace{\int d^3r \int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma\sigma'} \varphi_{\beta}^*(\vec{r}\sigma) h(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}'\sigma') \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}'\sigma') =}$$

$$= \underbrace{\int d^3r \int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma\sigma'} \varphi_{\beta}^*(\vec{r}\sigma) t(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}'\sigma') \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}'\sigma') +}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\int d^3r \int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma\sigma'} \int d^3r_2 \int d^3r_2' \sum_{\sigma_2\sigma_2'} \varphi_{\beta}^*(\vec{r}\sigma) \sum_{\mu=1}^N \varphi_{\mu}^*(\vec{r}_2\sigma_2)}_{\text{---}}$$

$$\cdot v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2; \vec{r}'\sigma', \vec{r}_2'\sigma_2') [\varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}'\sigma') \varphi_{\mu}(\vec{r}_2'\sigma_2') -$$

$$- \varphi_{\mu}(\vec{r}'\sigma') \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}_2'\sigma_2')]$$

from which we may conclude (leave out the underlined projection ~~of~~ on the left sides):

$$\underbrace{h(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}'\sigma') \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}'\sigma')}_{\text{---}} = \underbrace{t(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}'\sigma') \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}'\sigma')}_{\text{---}} +$$

$$+ \sum_{\mu=1}^N \int d^3r_2 \int d^3r_2' \sum_{\sigma_2\sigma_2'} \varphi_{\mu}^*(\vec{r}_2\sigma_2) v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2; \vec{r}'\sigma', \vec{r}_2'\sigma_2')$$

$$\cdot [\varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}'\sigma') \varphi_{\mu}(\vec{r}_2'\sigma_2') - \varphi_{\mu}(\vec{r}'\sigma') \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}_2'\sigma_2')]$$

Introduce the "coordinate-spin exchange operator"

(21)

$$P_{ex}[(\vec{r}'\sigma') \leftrightarrow (\vec{r}_2'\sigma_2')]$$

we can write the last expression in the shorthand form (again leave out the underlined terms, so this becomes an "operator equation" for the integral kernel h):

$$h(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}'\sigma') = t(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}'\sigma') + \sum_{\mu=1}^N \int d^3r_2 \int d^3r_2' \sum_{\sigma_2\sigma_2'} \varphi_{\mu}^*(\vec{r}_2\sigma_2) v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2; \vec{r}'\sigma', \vec{r}_2'\sigma_2') [1 - P_{ex}[(\vec{r}'\sigma') \leftrightarrow (\vec{r}_2'\sigma_2')]] \varphi_{\mu}(\vec{r}_2'\sigma_2')$$

This is the most general expression for the mean-field kernel (non-local one-body field, in general!). (4)

Let us now assume that the one- and two-body operators on the RHS are both local, i.e. see e.g. Shankar, QM, p.64

$$t(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}'\sigma') \equiv \langle \vec{r}\sigma | t | \vec{r}'\sigma' \rangle = \delta(\vec{r}' - \vec{r}) \delta_{\sigma'\sigma} \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 + V^{(1)}(\vec{r}) \right]$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} V^{(1)}(\vec{r}) &= -\frac{Ze^2}{r}, & \text{atomic physics} \\ V^{(1)}(\vec{r}) &= 0, & \text{nuclear physics} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

and

$$v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2; \vec{r}'\sigma', \vec{r}_2'\sigma_2') \stackrel{\text{local!}}{=} \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{r}') \delta_{\sigma\sigma'} \delta(\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_2') \delta_{\sigma_2\sigma_2'} \cdot v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2) \quad (6)$$

where in the atomic case we have simply

$$\text{or} \quad v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2) \equiv v^{(2)}(\vec{r}, \vec{r}_2) = e^2/|\vec{r} - \vec{r}_2|.$$

Inserting eqs (6), (5) and (4) into eq. (2)

(22)

$$\int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma'} L(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}'\sigma') \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}'\sigma') = \epsilon_\alpha \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}\sigma)$$

results in

$$\left. \begin{aligned} & \int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma'} \delta(\vec{r}' - \vec{r}) \delta_{\sigma'\sigma} \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 + V^{(1)}(\vec{r}) \right] \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}'\sigma') + \\ & + \int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma'} \sum_{\mu=1}^N \int d^3r_2 \int d^3r_2' \sum_{\sigma_2} \sum_{\sigma_2'} \varphi_\mu^*(\vec{r}_2\sigma_2) \\ & \quad \delta(\vec{r}' - \vec{r}) \delta_{\sigma'\sigma} \delta(\vec{r}_2' - \vec{r}_2) \delta_{\sigma_2'\sigma_2} v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2) \cdot \\ & \quad \cdot [1 - P_{ex}[(\vec{r}'\sigma') \leftrightarrow (\vec{r}_2'\sigma_2')]] \varphi_\mu(\vec{r}_2'\sigma_2') \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}'\sigma') = \\ & = \epsilon_\alpha \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}\sigma) \end{aligned} \right\}$$

or, after simplifying the integrals over δ -fctns and Σ 's over δ 's:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 + V^{(1)}(\vec{r}) \right] \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}\sigma) + \sum_{\mu=1}^N \int d^3r_2 \sum_{\sigma_2} \varphi_\mu^*(\vec{r}_2\sigma_2) \cdot \\ & \cdot v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2) [\varphi_\mu(\vec{r}_2\sigma_2) \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}\sigma) - \varphi_\mu(\vec{r}\sigma) \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}_2\sigma_2)] = \\ & = \epsilon_\alpha \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}\sigma) \end{aligned}$$

HF eqns for local 1-body and
2-body interactions $t^{(1)}$ and $v^{(2)}$

In general, one cannot simplify this any further. (7)

However, if $v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}_2\sigma_2)$ does not contain any derivative operators, then the order of the WF's is arbitrary, and we can combine them to yield densities and density matrices:

Use def. of density (for given spin projection σ_2):

$$\rho(\vec{r}_2, \sigma_2) = \sum_{\mu=1}^N |\varphi_{\mu}(\vec{r}_2, \sigma_2)|^2 \quad (8a)$$

and def. of density matrix

$$\rho(\vec{r}, \sigma; \vec{r}_2, \sigma_2) = \sum_{\mu=1}^N \varphi_{\mu}^*(\vec{r}_2, \sigma_2) \varphi_{\mu}(\vec{r}, \sigma) \quad (8b)$$

and define the (local) "Hartree" mean-field potential

$$V_H(\vec{r}, \sigma) = \int d^3 r_2 \sum_{\sigma_2 = \pm \frac{1}{2}} \rho(\vec{r}_2, \sigma_2) v^{(2)}(\vec{r}, \sigma; \vec{r}_2, \sigma_2) \quad (8c)$$

1-body mean field density given 2-body int.

and define the (non-local) exchange potential (= "Fock potential")

$$V_F(\vec{r}, \sigma; \vec{r}_2, \sigma_2) = -\rho(\vec{r}, \sigma; \vec{r}_2, \sigma_2) v^{(2)}(\vec{r}, \sigma; \vec{r}_2, \sigma_2) \quad (8d)$$

Fock exchange pot. density matrix given 2-body int.

We can write eq. (7) in the form

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V^{(1)}(\vec{r}) \right] \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}, \sigma) + V_H(\vec{r}, \sigma) \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}, \sigma) + \underbrace{\int d^3 r_2 \sum_{\sigma_2} V_F(\vec{r}, \sigma; \vec{r}_2, \sigma_2)}_{\text{exchange}} \underbrace{\varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}_2, \sigma_2)}_{\text{density}} = \varepsilon_{\alpha} \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}, \sigma) \quad (8e)$$

where $\alpha = 1, \dots, N$ (occupied s.p. states)

and $V^{(1)}(\vec{r}) = -Ze^2/r$ (atoms) and $V^{(1)}(\vec{r}) \equiv 0$ (nuclei)

The eqns (8e) are the Hartree-Fock equations under the simplifying assumptions of

- local one- and two-body operators (see p. 21)
- 2-body int. contains no derivative operators (otherwise need to use HF-eqns in eq. (7)).

Comments on structure of HF eqns in coordinate space

- 1) If we leave out the Fock term for a moment, then the HF eqns look very much like N Schrödinger equations for the s.p. WF's $\varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}, \sigma)$ with $\alpha = 1, \dots, N$.

However, this simplicity is deceptive: the 1-body Hartree potential $V_H(\vec{r}, \sigma)$ involves an integral over the 2-body int. and the g.s. density of the system, eq. (8c), and the density (8a) involves a sum over all occupied s.p. WF's.

- 2) This gives rise to a "self-consistency problem": to solve HF-eqn for given s.p. WF $\varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}, \sigma)$, we need to know all s.p. WF's.

↓ requires iterative solution (see below)

- 3) The Fock exchange potential complicates the situation further because it involves an integral over the density matrix and the given 2-body interaction.

- 4) Nevertheless, the static HF equations are much simpler than the original N -body Schrödinger eq., and we have achieved our main goal:

The Hartree and Fock "mean field" potentials take the 2-body interaction $v^{(2)}(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2)$ into account "on average". In particular, the Hartree term $V_H(\vec{r}, \sigma)$ is a 1-body mean field.

Comments on numerical, iterative solution

- 1) For atoms or nuclei, use simple shell model WF's in zeroth-order approximation, i.e.

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + \underline{V_{s.m.}^{(1)}(\vec{r})} \right] \varphi_\alpha^{(0)}(\vec{r}, \sigma) = \epsilon_\alpha^{(0)} \varphi_\alpha^{(0)}(\vec{r}, \sigma) \quad (9a)$$

For atom, use electron-nucleus Coulomb potential

$$V_{s.m.}^{(1)}(\vec{r}) = -\frac{Ze^2}{|\vec{r}|} \quad (9b)$$

and in nuclear case, use phenomenological 3-D harmonic oscillator potential

$$V_{s.m.}^{(1)}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \vec{r}^2. \quad (9c)$$

The WF's $\varphi_\alpha^{(0)}(\vec{r}, \sigma)$ can be obtained analytically (see e.g. Shankar, QM), and from these we can compute the density / density matrix in zeroth-order

$$\rho^{(0)}(\vec{r}_1, \vec{\sigma}_1) = \sum_{\mu=1}^N |\varphi_{\mu}^{(0)}(\vec{r}_1, \vec{\sigma}_1)|^2 \quad (9d)$$

↑
shell-model WF's.

Similar expression for density matrix $\rho^{(0)}(\vec{r}_1, \vec{\sigma}_1; \vec{r}_2, \vec{\sigma}_2)$.

- ② Solve HF eqns (8e) numerically with density / density matrix from shell model, $\rho^{(0)}$. This yields new S.p. WF's in 1st-order

$$\varphi_{\alpha}^{(1)}(\vec{r}, \vec{\sigma}).$$

- ③ From $\varphi_{\alpha}^{(1)}(\vec{r}, \vec{\sigma})$ obtain new density / density matrix $\rho^{(1)}$ in 1st-order. Solve HF equations (8e) with $\rho^{(1)}$ and obtain new S.p. WF's in 2nd-order

$$\varphi_{\alpha}^{(2)}(\vec{r}, \vec{\sigma}).$$

- ④ Keep iterating n times. Convergence is obviously achieved if the S.p. energies $\epsilon_{\alpha}^{(n)}$ and WF's $\varphi_{\alpha}^{(n)}$ no longer change. One typically uses the convergence criterion

$$\left| \frac{\epsilon_{\alpha}^{(n+1)} - \epsilon_{\alpha}^{(n)}}{\epsilon_{\alpha}^{(n)}} \right| < \delta \quad (9e)$$

where δ might be of order $\delta \approx 10^{-8}$. In practice, this might require several hundred iterations.

The solution of HF-equations predicts

- 1) s.p. energies ϵ_α
- 2) s.p. WF's $\varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}, \sigma) \rightarrow$ calculate ground state density $\rho(\vec{r}, \sigma) \rightarrow$ mean square radius $\langle r^2 \rangle$.

These quantities can be compared to exp. data.

- 3) One can use WF's $\varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}, \sigma)$ to calculate the ground state binding energy E_0^{HF} . We will now show that E_0^{HF} is a functional of various densities.

The energy density functional predicted by HF method

Earlier, we have computed the g.s. energy (see notes p.18)

$$E_0^{HF} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^N \langle \alpha | t | \alpha \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha, \beta=1}^N \langle \alpha \beta | v^{(2)} | \alpha \beta - \beta \alpha \rangle.$$

Using the same techniques as in derivation of HF-equations in coordinate space, i.e. by inserting completeness relations of the form

$$\int d^3r \sum_{\sigma} |\vec{r} \sigma\rangle \langle \vec{r} \sigma| = 1$$

we obtain straightforwardly (for local int. $v^{(2)}$):

$$E_0^{HF} = \left. \begin{aligned} & \sum_{\alpha=1}^N \int d^3r \sum_{\sigma} \varphi_{\alpha}^*(\vec{r}, \sigma) \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V^{(1)}(\vec{r}, \sigma) \right] \varphi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}, \sigma) \\ & + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha, \beta=1}^N \int d^3r \int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma \sigma'} \varphi_{\alpha}^*(\vec{r}, \sigma) \varphi_{\beta}^*(\vec{r}', \sigma') \end{aligned} \right\}$$

continued on p. 28

$$v^{(2)}(\vec{r}\sigma, \vec{r}'\sigma') \left[\underbrace{\varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}, \sigma) \varphi_\beta(\vec{r}', \sigma')}_{\text{"direct term"}} - \underbrace{\varphi_\beta(\vec{r}, \sigma) \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}', \sigma')}_{\text{"exchange term"}} \right]$$

We use partial integration to re-write the kin. energy term

$$\begin{aligned} E_{kin}^{HF} &= \int d^3r \sum_{\sigma} \sum_{\alpha=1}^N \varphi_\alpha^*(\vec{r}, \sigma) \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \right) \nabla \cdot \nabla \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}, \sigma) = \\ &= \pm \int d^3r \sum_{\sigma} \sum_{\alpha=1}^N \left(+\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \right) \left\{ \nabla \varphi_\alpha^*(\vec{r}, \sigma) \cdot \nabla \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}, \sigma) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Note sign change from partial integration

$$\int_V u v' dx = uv \Big|_B - \int_V u' v dx$$

and the surface term vanishes because we integrate to ∞ .

We define the kinetic energy density

$$\tau(\vec{r}) = \sum_{\sigma=\pm\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{\alpha=1}^N |\nabla \varphi_\alpha(\vec{r}, \sigma)|^2 \quad (10a)$$

and obtain

$$E_{kin} = \int d^3r \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \tau(\vec{r}) \quad (10b)$$

The remaining terms can be rewritten using the definition of the density $\rho(\vec{r}, \sigma)$, eq. (8a), and density matrix $\rho(\vec{r}, \sigma; \vec{r}', \sigma')$, eq. (8b). One finds straightforwardly:

$$E_0^{\text{HF}} = \int d^3r \mathcal{H}^{\text{HF}}(\tau(\vec{r}), \rho(\vec{r}, \sigma), \rho(\vec{r}, \sigma), \vec{r}', \sigma')$$

g.s. energy = HF energy density functional

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}^{\text{HF}} = & \underbrace{\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \tau(\vec{r})}_{\text{kin. energy}} + \sum_{\sigma=\pm\frac{1}{2}} V^{(1)}(\vec{r}, \sigma) \rho(\vec{r}, \sigma) \quad \text{given 1-body pot.} \\ & + \frac{1}{2} \int d^3r' \sum_{\sigma, \sigma'=\pm\frac{1}{2}} v^{(2)}(\vec{r}, \sigma, \vec{r}', \sigma') \left[\underbrace{\rho(\vec{r}, \sigma) \rho(\vec{r}', \sigma')}_{\text{"direct"}} \right. \\ & \quad \left. - \underbrace{|\rho(\vec{r}, \sigma, \vec{r}', \sigma')|^2}_{\text{"exchange"}} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Specific case: N -electron atom

Here we have

electron-nucleus int.: $V^{(1)}(\vec{r}, \sigma) \rightarrow V^{(1)}(r) = -\frac{Ze^2}{r}$

e^-e^- repulsion: $v^{(2)}(\vec{r}, \sigma, \vec{r}', \sigma') \Rightarrow v^{(2)}(\underline{\vec{r}}, \underline{\vec{r}}') = \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|}$

Hence, the HF energy density of the atom becomes

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{atom}}^{\text{HF}} = \left. \begin{aligned} & \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \tau(\vec{r}) - \frac{Ze^2}{r} \underbrace{\sum_{\sigma} \rho(\vec{r}, \sigma)}_{=\rho(\vec{r})} + \frac{1}{2} \int d^3r' \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \\ & \left[\underbrace{\sum_{\sigma} \rho(\vec{r}, \sigma)}_{=\rho(\vec{r})} \underbrace{\sum_{\sigma'} \rho(\vec{r}', \sigma')}_{=\rho(\vec{r}')} - \underbrace{\sum_{\sigma, \sigma'} |\rho(\vec{r}, \sigma, \vec{r}', \sigma')|^2}_{=|\rho(\vec{r}, \vec{r}')|^2} \right] \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Note: essentially the pair correlation function (ch. 6, eq. (10)).

We can recast this in the form

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{atom}}^{\text{HF}} = \underbrace{\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \tau(\vec{r})}_{\text{kin. energy}} - \underbrace{\frac{Ze^2}{r} \rho(\vec{r})}_{\substack{e^- \text{- nucleus} \\ \text{attraction}}} + \underbrace{V_{\text{Coul}}^{\text{D}}}_{e^- - e^- \text{ int.}} + V_{\text{Coul}}^{\text{E}} \quad (12a)$$

where the "direct" part of the Coulomb energy is given by

$$V_{\text{Coul}}^{\text{D}} = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3r' \rho(\vec{r}) \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \rho(\vec{r}') \quad (12b)$$

→ note: same expression as in classical E&M theory!

and the "exchange" part of the Coulomb energy is given by

$$V_{\text{Coul}}^{\text{E}} = -\frac{1}{2} \int d^3r' \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} |\rho(\vec{r}, \vec{r}')|^2 \quad (12c)$$

The "exchange" energy arises, of course, from the anti-symmetry of the g.s. Slater determinant!

HF Calculations: Computational issues

There are 2 basic computational approaches:

- basis expansion of HF wave functions
- lattice representation of HF wave functions

a) basis expansion method

Start from HF eqns in energy representation (ch. 7, p. 18):

$$\langle \beta | t | \alpha \rangle + \sum_{\mu=1}^N \langle \beta \mu | \bar{v} | \alpha \mu \rangle = \epsilon_{\alpha} \delta_{\alpha\beta}$$

" $\langle \beta | \alpha \rangle$

Project from the left with $\sum_{\beta} |\beta\rangle$:

$$\underbrace{\sum_{\beta} |\beta\rangle \langle \beta | t | \alpha \rangle}_{=1} + \sum_{\beta} \underbrace{\sum_{\mu=1}^N |\beta\rangle \langle \beta \mu | \bar{v} | \alpha \mu \rangle}_{=1} = \epsilon_{\alpha} \underbrace{\sum_{\beta} |\beta\rangle \langle \beta | \alpha \rangle}_{=1}$$

$$\Rightarrow t | \alpha \rangle + \sum_{\mu=1}^N \underbrace{\langle \mu | \bar{v} | \alpha \mu \rangle}_{\text{empty!}} = \epsilon_{\alpha} | \alpha \rangle$$

Project from left with $\langle i |$, where $\underline{i}$ denotes given basis set:

$$\langle i | t | \alpha \rangle + \sum_{\mu=1}^N \langle i \mu | \bar{v} | \alpha \mu \rangle = \epsilon_{\alpha} \langle i | \alpha \rangle \quad (1)$$

Expand HF orbitals in terms of given s.p. basis (e.g. atomic/nuclear shell model): $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} D_{i\alpha}$

$$| \alpha \rangle = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} | i \rangle \langle i | \alpha \rangle}_{=1} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} D_{i\alpha} | i \rangle$$

Summary:

$ \alpha\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} D_{i\alpha} i\rangle$ HF-orbital ↑ s.p. basis (given)	$D_{i\alpha} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle i \alpha\rangle$ ↑ expansion coefficients	32 (2)
--	--	--

Insert expansion $|\alpha\rangle = \sum_j D_{j\alpha} |j\rangle$ multiple times into (1):

$$\sum_{\bar{j}} \langle i|\bar{t}|j\rangle D_{j\alpha} + \sum_{\mu=1}^N \langle i, \sum_k D_{k\mu} k|\bar{v}|\sum_j D_{j\alpha} j, \sum_l D_{l\mu} l\rangle$$

$$= \epsilon_{\alpha} D_{i\alpha}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{\bar{j}=1}^{\infty} \langle i|\bar{t}|j\rangle D_{j\alpha} + \sum_{\bar{j}, k, l=1}^{\infty} \langle i k|\bar{v}^{(2)}|\bar{j} l\rangle \times$$

$$\times \sum_{\mu=1}^N D_{k\mu}^* D_{l\mu} D_{j\alpha} = \epsilon_{\alpha} D_{i\alpha}$$

HF eqns in
given basis
|i>.

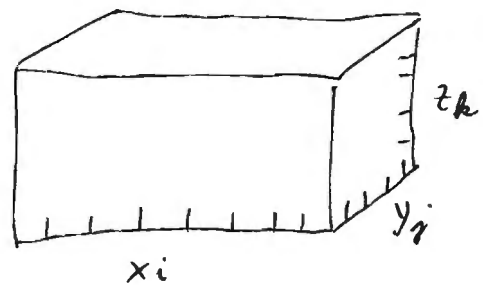
agrees with Ring & Schuck, eq. (5.38)

(3)

We observe:

- The eqns (3) represent a Hermitean eigenvalue problem for the expansion coefficients $D_{i\alpha}$, which is non-linear in D ($\propto D^3$), as a result of HF approximation (the original many-body Schrödinger eq. is linear).
- To solve eqns (3), one needs to calculate 1-particle matrix elements $\langle i|\bar{t}|j\rangle$ and 2-particle matrix elements $\langle i k|\bar{v}^{(2)}|\bar{j} l\rangle$ within the given basis |i> (e.g. shell model).

b) Lattice representation



Continuous space $\vec{r} = (x, y, z)$
 $\rightarrow$ 3-D Cartesian lattice
 (x_i, y_j, z_k) with

$$\left. \begin{aligned} i &= 1, 2, \dots, n_x \\ j &= 1, 2, \dots, n_y \\ k &= 1, 2, \dots, n_z \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Considers a single HF spinor wave function

$$\Phi_\alpha(\vec{r}, \sigma) = \begin{pmatrix} \Phi_\alpha^\uparrow(\vec{r}) \\ \Phi_\alpha^\downarrow(\vec{r}) \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \Phi_\alpha^\uparrow(x_i, y_j, z_k) \\ \Phi_\alpha^\downarrow(x_i, y_j, z_k) \end{pmatrix}$$

$\rightarrow$ the s.p. WF becomes an "array" of dimension N :

$\phi(n_x, n_y, n_z, 2) \equiv \phi(N) \text{ with}$

$N = n_x \cdot n_y \cdot n_z \cdot 2$

$\uparrow$ spin up/down

Example: Cubic lattice with $n_x = n_y = n_z = 30$ points

$\rightarrow N = 30^3 \cdot 2 = 54,000$

Hence, to represent a single spinor WF on the lattice requires an array of dimension

$\phi(N); N = 54,000$

Each array element is a double-precision complex number!

Representation of HF mean field Hamiltonian h on the 3-D lattice

An eigenvalue problem HF type

$$h^{HF} \varphi_\alpha = \epsilon_\alpha \varphi_\alpha$$

requires a matrix representation of h on the lattice

$$\begin{pmatrix} h^{HF} \\ \text{"matrix"} \\ (N \times N) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_\alpha \\ \downarrow \\ \text{"vector"} \\ (\text{dim} = N) \end{pmatrix} = \epsilon_\alpha \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_\alpha \\ \downarrow \end{pmatrix} \quad (\alpha = 1, \dots, N)$$

$$\rightarrow \underline{\dim h^{HF}} = N \times N = 54,000^2 = \underline{\underline{2.9 \times 10^9}}$$

All matrix elements = double-precision, complex #'s.

The complete diagonalization procedure requires that we store both the matrix h and all eigenvectors (W)

$$\begin{pmatrix} W^+ \\ N \times N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h^{HF} \\ N \times N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_1 & \varphi_2 & \dots & \varphi_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \\ = W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_1 & & & \\ & \epsilon_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \epsilon_N \end{pmatrix}$$

The $N \times N$ matrix W containing all N eigenvectors requires the same storage as h^{HF} , i.e. N^2 .

Fortunately, such a "brute-force" approach can be avoided in practice, because one is usually not interested in all eigenvalues (ϵ_α) and eigenvectors (φ_α). In HF theory, one

needs only the lowest N_p eigenvalues/vectors, where N_p = number of occupied s.p. states.

In this case, there are several iterative schemes available:

- "Lanczos" algorithm
- "Davidson" algorithm
- "damped gradient iteration"

← We use this one!

These methods do not require the storage of the whole $(N \times N)$ h^{HF} matrix, rather they consist of the following computational step:

$$\psi_\alpha \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} h^{HF} \phi_\alpha \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{\psi_\alpha} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{\text{row of } h^{HF}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{\phi_\alpha} \end{pmatrix}$$

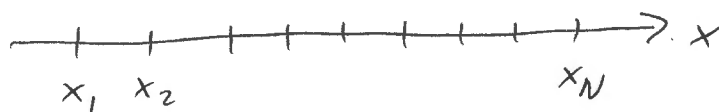
ψ_α h^{HF} ϕ_α

which requires that we only need to store one row of h^{HF} at a time, i.e. it requires that we store $2N$ numbers rather than N^2 !

In our example $N = 54,000$; this makes a huge difference for required memory!

Representation of potentials, integrals, and derivatives on 3-D lattice

For simplicity, let us discuss a 1-D grid here:



a) a local potential $V(x)$, without any derivatives

$$V(x) \varphi_\alpha(x) \rightarrow V(x_i) \varphi_\alpha(x_i)$$

$$\Rightarrow V(x) = \begin{pmatrix} V(x_1) & & \\ & V(x_2) & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & V(x_N) \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{diagonal matrix}$$

b) integrals

$$\int_a^b dx f(x) \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta x_i f(x_i)$$

c) derivative operators: the main computational problem

I. simple finite-difference schemes

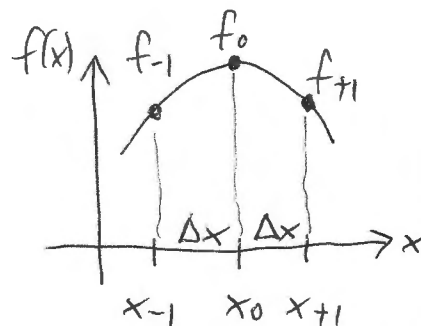
In lowest order, one derives from the Taylor expansions of

$$f(x_0 + \Delta x) \text{ and } f(x_0 - \Delta x)$$

the 3-point formula

$$f'(x_0) = \frac{1}{2\Delta x} [-1 \cdot f_{-1} + 0 \cdot f_0 + 1 \cdot f_{+1}]$$

which we can write in the form

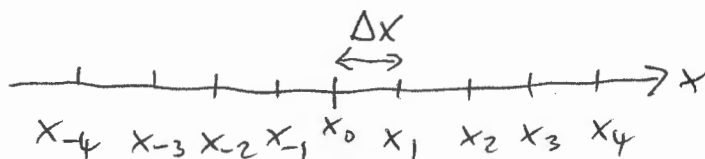


$$f'(x_0) = \sum_{i=-1}^{+1} a_i f_i \quad \text{with}$$

$$a_{-1} = \frac{1}{2\Delta x} (-1) \quad a_0 = 0 \quad a_{+1} = \frac{1}{2\Delta x} (+1)$$

In order to achieve higher numerical accuracy, scientists typically use the 9-point formula

$$f'(x_0) = \sum_{i=-4}^{+4} a_i f_i$$

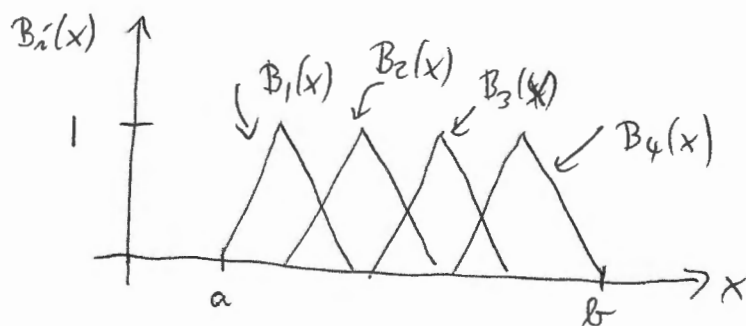


which connects the nearest 4 points to the left and right of the given point x_0 . The derivative operation becomes a "relatively sparse" banded matrix:



II. Finite elements and Basis Splines

"Finite elements" are polynomial sections of order 1, i.e. sections of straight lines:



Basis-Splines (= B-Splines) are generalisations of finite elements (higher-order polynomial sections).

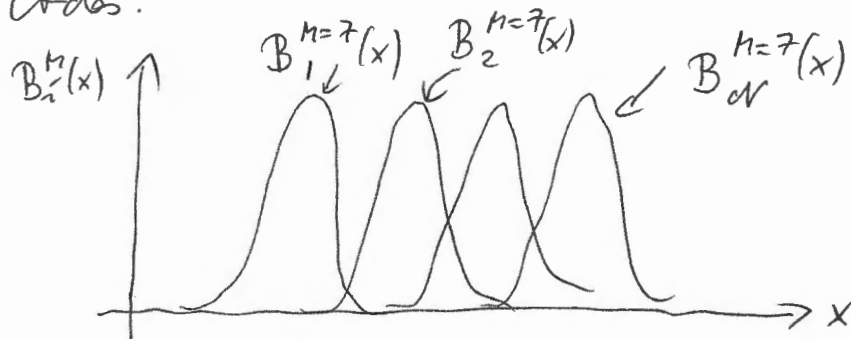
B-Spline of order $M \hat{=}$
polynomial sections up to order $M-1$

Special case: $M=2$ $\leadsto B_i^{M=2}(x) \Leftrightarrow$ polynomials of order $M-1 = 2-1 = \underline{1}$

$\leadsto$ straight line sections

In practice, we use B-Splines of order $M=7$ in HF

codes:



These are polynomial sections up to order 6.

Main advantage of higher-order B-Splines: they are smoother than finite elements $\leadsto$ better accuracy of derivative operators.

Literature on B-Splines in Physics $\rightarrow$ possible term papers!

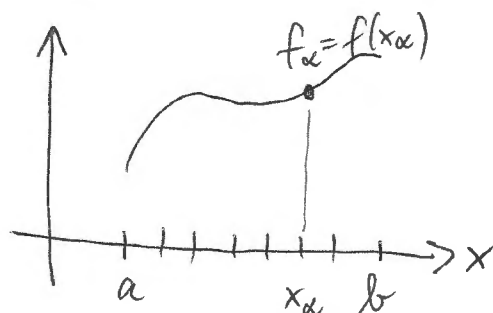
- A.S. Umar et al., J. Comp. Phys. 93 (1991) p. 426
- J.C. Wells et al., Int. J. Mod. Phys. C6 (1995) p. 143

B-Spline theory shows that one can expand a given function $f(x)$ in the finite interval $[a, b]$ by a finite superposition of B-Spline polynomial section functions $B_i^M(x)$, i.e.

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{dV} B_i^M(x) c_i$$

$\downarrow$ $\downarrow$
 B-Spline expansion
 coefficients

$$\begin{aligned}
 M &= \text{Spline order} \\
 N &= \# \text{ grid points} \\
 dV &= M + N - 1
 \end{aligned}$$



Representation of $f(x)$ on the 1-D grid points x_α ($\alpha = 1, \dots, N$):

$$f_\alpha = f(x_\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{dV} B_i^M(x_\alpha) c_i$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_\alpha &= \sum_{i=1}^{dV} \underbrace{B_{\alpha i}^M}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{B-Spline matrix}}} c_i
 \end{aligned}$$

As explained in the computational physics papers on p. 38, one finds the following matrix representation of $\frac{d}{dx}$ in terms of B-Splines

$$\frac{d}{dx} \rightarrow D_{\alpha\beta} = \sum_{i=1}^{dV} \underbrace{\left(\frac{dB_i^M(x)}{dx} \right)_{x=x_\alpha}}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{calculate analytically} \\ \text{(polynomials!)}}} \cdot \underbrace{\left[B_i^M(x) \right]_{x=x_\beta}^{-1}}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{need inverse} \\ \text{of B-Spline matrix}}}$$

Features of matrix $D_{\alpha\beta}$

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- Because of B^{-1} , the derivative matrix is no longer sparse, i.e. most matrix elements are $\neq 0$
→ disadvantage, as compared to finite difference method
 - main advantage of B-splines: need fewer grid points to achieve a given numerical accuracy → essential for 3-D problems (N^3).
-

Numerical results for static HF calculations

see Phys-365 Website, "Additional lecture materials" section

a) Powerpoint slides for atomic HF

b) " " " nuclear HF

Add. info for atomic MCHF (slide 8)

The atomic Hamiltonian commutes with the total orbital angular momentum operator and the total spin operator:

$$\vec{L} = \sum_{i=1}^N \vec{l}_i \quad \vec{S} = \sum_{i=1}^N \vec{s}_i$$

and $[H_{\text{atom}}, \vec{L}] = 0$ and $[H_{\text{atom}}, \vec{S}] = 0$.

Mutually commuting operators:

$$H_{\text{atom}}, \vec{L}^2, L_z, \vec{S}^2, S_z$$

$$H_{\text{atom}} \psi = E \psi$$

$$\vec{L}^2 \psi = \hbar^2 L(L+1) \psi$$

$$L_z \psi = \hbar M_L \psi$$

$$S^2 \psi = \hbar^2 S(S+1) \psi$$

$$S_z \psi = \hbar M_S \psi$$

Spectroscopic notation for

total ang. momenta

$$(2S+1 L)_J$$

Remarks re. slide 8:

Considered is the beryllium atom (Be, $z=4$).

ground state electron configuration: $1s^2 2s^2$

total ang. momenta: $2s+1 L_z \hat{=} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ \parallel \\ 0 \\ L=0 \end{matrix} S_0 \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} S=0 \\ L=0 \\ J=0 \end{matrix} \underline{\underline{g.s.}}$

Prof. Fischer's MCHF calculations consider now the
Rydberg series of excited states of the form

$1s^2 2s \underline{\underline{nd}}$ with $n = \text{variable} = 3, 4, 5, \dots, \infty$

total ang. momenta: $2s+1 L_z \hat{=} \begin{matrix} 3 \\ \parallel \\ 2 \\ L=2 \end{matrix} D_2$

$\begin{matrix} S=1 \\ L=2 \end{matrix} \} \Rightarrow J=1, 2, 3$
exc. states

Density functional theory (DFT)

References:

- 1) P. Hohenberg and W. Kohn, Phys. Rev. B 136 (1964) 864
 - 2) W. Kohn and L. J. Sham, Phys. Rev. A 140 (1965) 1133
 - 3) G. Kothliar et al., Rev. Mod. Phys. 78 (2006) 865
 - 4) J. A. Maruhn, P.-G. Reinhard and E. Suraud, "Simple Models of Many-Fermion Systems", Springer Verlag, 2010 [pages 143-148]
 - 5) Time-dep. density functional theory (TDDFT) example:
J. A. Driscoll and K. Varga, Phys. Rev. B 80 (2009) 245431
-

The basic ideas of (static) DFT are based on the results of atomic HF theory. Central to the theoretical development are the 2 theorems by Hohenberg and Kohn (Ref. 1) and Kohn and Sham (Ref. 2).

Most important practical applications of DFT are

- molecular physics / quantum chemistry
- condensed matter physics

Walter Kohn shared the Nobel prize in chemistry in 1998 for the impact of his work on quantum chemistry.

Review of static HF for atoms

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input:

$$V^{(1)}(x), V^{(2)}(x, x')$$

main approximation:

single Slater determinant

$$|\Psi\rangle \approx |\phi_0^{HF}\rangle$$

Output:

g.s. energy functional $E_0(\rho(x), \rho(x, x'), \tau(x))$

mean field hamiltonian $h = \partial E_0 / \partial \rho$

HF eqns for orbitals $\phi_\alpha(x)$:

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 + V_{e^{-}N}^{(1)}(\vec{r}) + V_H[\rho(\vec{r})] + V_{\text{exch}}(\rho(\vec{r}, \vec{r}')) \right] \phi_\alpha(\vec{r}) = E_\alpha \phi_\alpha(\vec{r})$$

advantages:

- rigorous theory, derive everything from given
 $V^{(1)}(x), V^{(2)}(x, x')$, in particular energy functl $E_0(\rho, \dots)$
- all approximations clearly stated

disadvantage:

- only Pauli correlations are included
(arise from totally anti-sym. WF) $\rightarrow$ see "fermion pair correlation function".
Otherwise, particles move "freely" in mean field potential.

Hohenberg - Kohn Theorem (1964) for electronic systems

Hamiltonian in coord.-repr (use Born-Oppenheimer approx.):

$$H = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^N -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \nabla_i^2}_{= T_{e^-}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^N V^{(I)}(\vec{r}_i)}_{= V_{e^-,ion}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^N \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j|}}_{= V_{e^-e^-}}$$

The electronic part of H is giving rise to the energy

$$E_{HK} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle \psi | T_{e^-} + V_{e^-e^-} | \psi \rangle.$$

The Theorem states:

a) $E_{HK} = E_{HK}[\rho(\vec{r})]$, i.e. the electronic part of the energy is a unique and universal functional of the local electron density $\rho(\vec{r})$.

b) For a given ext. field $V^{(I)}(\vec{r})$, arising from the ionic cores, the total energy is

$$E[\rho(\vec{r})] = E_{HK}[\rho(\vec{r})] + \int d^3r \rho(\vec{r}) V^{(I)}(\vec{r})$$

and the exact g.s. density is obtained from variation of E with respect to ρ : $\partial E / \partial \rho = 0$.

Comments

- It is surprising that E depends only on density $\rho(\vec{r})$, but not on $\rho(\vec{r}, \vec{r}')$ or on $\tau(\vec{r})$, as in HF-approximation.
- main problem: HK Theorem proves existence of $E(\rho)$, but does not tell us how to derive $E(\rho)$!!

Kohn-Sham formalism (1965) for electronic systems

(46)

Based on the HK theorem, one starts with the construction of an approximate energy functional $E(\rho)$ using physical arguments (but no rigorous theory!) such as

- interacting electron gas (infinite system)
- "local density approximation" (LDA), i.e. piecewise infinite homogeneous matters.

The Kohn-Sham energy functional has the form

$$E_{KS} = E_{kin}(\rho) + E_{ext}(\rho) + E_H(\rho) + E_{xc}(\rho)$$

where the kinetic energy term has the same form as in HF theory, $E_{ext}(\rho)$ describes the interaction of e^- with ionic cores, E_H is the Hartree energy, and E_{xc} describes both the electron exchange energy and additional correlation effects among the electrons. From a variational principle one obtains the Kohn-Sham equations for the occupied e^- orbitals:

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 + \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{electron-ions}}}{V_{ext}^{(I)}(\vec{r})} + \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{Hartree} \\ \text{pot.}}}{V_H(\rho(\vec{r}))} + \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{exchange + correlations}}}{V_{xc}(\vec{r})} \right] \phi_\alpha(\vec{r}) = \epsilon_\alpha \phi_\alpha(\vec{r})$$

with $V_{xc}(\vec{r}) = V_{xc}(\rho(\vec{r})) + \dots + \nabla \rho + \nabla \nabla \rho$
 $\uparrow$ LDA $\uparrow$ higher-order corrections.

advantages of KS formalism

(47)

- correlations are built into the EKS energy functional; "pure" HF contains only "Pauli correlations".
- Works surprisingly well for molecular physics / quantum chemistry and electronic properties of condensed matter systems.

Note: possible term paper topic

- check for recent papers by Vanderbilt condensed-matter theorists (Profs. Pantelides and Varga and their research groups)!