

Mathematical aspects of electronic structure theory

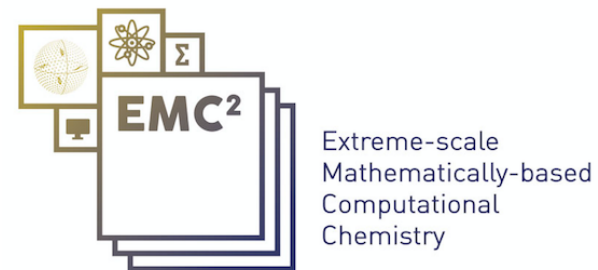
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Question 1

A Fortran library for solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ gives the following results:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 10 & 7 & 8 & 7 \\ 7 & 5 & 6 & 5 \\ 8 & 6 & 10 & 9 \\ 7 & 5 & 9 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 32 \\ 23 \\ 33 \\ 31 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{Solution: } \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 10 & 7 & 8 & 7 \\ 7 & 5 & 6 & 5 \\ 8 & 6 & 10 & 9 \\ 7 & 5 & 9 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 32.001 \\ 22.999 \\ 33.001 \\ 30.999 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{Solution: } \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.082 \\ 0.862 \\ 1.035 \\ 0.979 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 10 & 7.021 & 8 & 7 \\ 7 & 5 & 6 & 5 \\ 8 & 6 & 10 & 9 \\ 7 & 5 & 9 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 32 \\ 23 \\ 33 \\ 31 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{Solution: } \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} -2.77... \\ 7.19... \\ -0.51... \\ 1.90... \end{pmatrix}$$

Should you trust this library?

Question 2

Constrained optimization is ubiquitous in quantum physics and chemistry (e.g. Hartree-Fock, DFT, etc.). In Physics and Chemistry textbooks, such problems are solved using the Lagrangian method.

Example: solve $\inf_{g(x)=0} E(x)$ where $E : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ are regular.

Introduce the Lagrangian $L : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined as

$$L(x, \lambda) = E(x) + \lambda^T g(x).$$

Then, the minimizers are obtained by solving the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} \nabla_x L(x, \lambda) = 0 \\ \nabla_\lambda L(x, \lambda) = 0, \end{cases}$$

Application: $d = 1, m = 1, E(x) = x, g(x) = x^2$

$$\begin{cases} 1 + 2\lambda x = 0 \\ x^2 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{No solution, though } x = 0 \text{ is obviously a minimizer!}$$

What's the catch?

Question 3

Diagonalizing the translation operators $(T_{\mathbf{R}})_{\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{Z}^3}$

$$(T_{\mathbf{R}}\psi)(\mathbf{r}) = \psi(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R})$$

Let $\psi \neq 0$ be such that $T_{\mathbf{R}}\psi = C(\mathbf{R})\psi$ for all $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{Z}^3$ with $C(\mathbf{R}) \in \mathbb{C}$. Since

$$\begin{aligned} |C(\mathbf{R})|^2 \int |\psi(\mathbf{r})|^2 d\mathbf{r} &= \int |C(\mathbf{R})\psi(\mathbf{r})|^2 d\mathbf{r} = \int |(T_{\mathbf{R}}\psi)(\mathbf{r})|^2 d\mathbf{r} = \int |\psi(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R})|^2 d\mathbf{r} \\ &= \int |\psi(\mathbf{r})|^2 d\mathbf{r}, \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

then $|C(\mathbf{R})| = 1$ and therefore $C(\mathbf{R}) = e^{i\alpha(\mathbf{R})}$. Since $T_{\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{R}'} = T_{\mathbf{R}}T_{\mathbf{R}'}$, we get $C(\mathbf{R}) = e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{R}}$ for some $\mathbf{k} \in \mathbb{R}^3$. And from there, we get

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}) = e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}} u(\mathbf{r}) \quad \text{where } u \text{ is an } \mathbb{Z}^3\text{-periodic function}$$

But then, $\int |\psi(\mathbf{r})|^2 d\mathbf{r} = +\infty$, and we can't infer from (1) that $|C(\mathbf{R})| = 1$.

How to make this (physically correct) argument mathematically correct?

Question 4

The bound states of the hydrogen atom Hamiltonian are known

$$\hat{h} = -\frac{1}{2}\Delta - \frac{1}{r} \quad \hat{h} \varphi_{n,\ell,m}(r, \theta, \phi) = E_n \varphi_{n,\ell,m}(r, \theta, \phi), \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} n \in \mathbb{N}^* \\ 0 \leq \ell \leq n - 1 \\ -\ell \leq m \leq \ell \end{array} \right.$$

When two hydrogen atoms are at distance $R \gg 1$ a.u., their interaction energy can be expanded as

$$\Delta E(R) = -\frac{C_6}{R^6} + \text{h.o.t.} \quad (\text{van der Waals interaction})$$

The C_6 coefficient can be computed by perturbation theory

Using the “sum over state” technique in the basis $(\varphi_{n,\ell,m})$ we get

$$C_6 \simeq 3.923 \text{ u.a.} \quad \text{to be compared with the correct value} \quad C_6 \simeq 6.499 \text{ u.a.}$$

What's wrong in this approach?

Question 5



Which spin states can you actually represent with your two hands?

- 1. Spectral theory of self-adjoint operators**
- 2. From molecules to materials**
- 3. A bit of numerical analysis**
- 4. Constrained optimization and Lagrange multipliers**

1 - Spectral theory of self-adjoint operators

References:

- E.B. Davies, *Linear operators and their spectra*, Cambridge University Press 2007.
- B. Helffer, *Spectral theory and its applications*, Cambridge University Press 2013.
- M. Reed and B. Simon, *Modern methods in mathematical physics*, in 4 volumes, 2nd edition, Academic Press 1972-1980.
- M. Lewin, *Théorie spectrale et mécanique quantique*, Springer 2022.

Notation: in this section, \mathcal{H} denotes a separable complex Hilbert space, $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle$ its inner product, and $\| \cdot \|$ the associated norm.

Fundamental principles of quantum mechanics

1. To each quantum system is associated a **separable complex Hilbert space** \mathcal{H}
2. If the state of the system at time t is completely known (**pure state**), it can be described by a normalized vector $\psi(t)$ of \mathcal{H} . The set of physically admissible pure states is the **projective space** $P(\mathcal{H})$.
3. Physical observables are represented by **self-adjoint operators** on \mathcal{H} .
4. Let a be a physical observable represented by the self-adjoint operator A . The outcome of a measurement of a is always in $\sigma(A)$, the **spectrum** of A .
5. If, just before the measurement, the system is in the pure state $\psi(t_0)$, then the probability that the outcome lays in the interval $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ is $\|\mathbb{1}_I(A)\psi(t_0)\|^2$, where $\mathbb{1}_I$ is the characteristic function of I and $\mathbb{1}_I(A)$ is defined by **functional calculus**.
6. If the system is isolated, its dynamics between two successive measures is given by $\psi(t) = U(t - t_0)\psi(t_0)$ where $U(\tau) = e^{-i\tau H/\hbar}$, H being the **Hamiltonian**, i.e. the self-adjoint operator associated with the energy.

Definition (Hilbert space). A Hilbert space is a real or complex vector space \mathcal{H} endowed with an inner product $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle$ and complete for the associated norm $\| \cdot \|$.

Definition (completeness). A sequence $(\psi_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of elements of a normed vector space $(\mathcal{H}, \| \cdot \|)$ is Cauchy if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \forall q \geq p \geq N, \quad \|\psi_p - \psi_q\| \leq \varepsilon.$$

The normed vector space $(\mathcal{H}, \| \cdot \|)$ is called complete if any Cauchy sequence of elements of \mathcal{H} converges in \mathcal{H} .

Example: all finite-dimensional normed \mathbb{R} - or \mathbb{C} -vector spaces are complete.

- Endowed with the hermitian inner product, \mathbb{C}^d is a Hilbert space:

$$\langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y} \rangle = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq d} \overline{x_i} y_i, \quad \|\mathbf{x}\| = \langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{x} \rangle^{1/2} = \left(\sum_{1 \leq i \leq d} |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

- Let $S \in \mathbb{C}^{d \times d}$ be a positive definite hermitian matrix ($S_{ji} = \overline{S_{ij}}$ for all $1 \leq i, j \leq d$ and $\mathbf{x}^* S \mathbf{x} > 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^d \setminus \{0\}$).

Then $\langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y} \rangle_S = \mathbf{x}^* S \mathbf{y}$ defines an inner product on \mathbb{C}^d and

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^d, \quad \lambda_1(S) \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_S \leq \lambda_d(S) \|\mathbf{x}\|,$$

where $\lambda_1(S) \leq \lambda_2(S) \leq \dots \leq \lambda_d(S)$ are the eigenvalues of S .

Fundamental examples: the Hilbert space $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C})$.

- **The sesquilinear form**

$$\langle \varphi | \psi \rangle := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{\varphi} \psi := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{\varphi(\mathbf{r})} \psi(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}$$

defines an inner product on

$$C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}) := \{ \varphi \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}) \mid \varphi = 0 \text{ outside some bounded set} \},$$

but $C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C})$, endowed with the inner product $\langle \varphi | \psi \rangle$, is not a Hilbert space.

- **To obtain a Hilbert space, we have to "complete" it with "all the limits of the Cauchy sequences of elements of $C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$ ". We thus obtain the set**

$$L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}) := \left\{ \varphi : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\varphi|^2 < \infty \right\},$$

which, endowed with the inner product $\langle \varphi | \psi \rangle$, is a Hilbert space.

- **Technical details:**

- one must use the Lebesgue integral (doesn't work with Riemann integral);
- the elements of $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C})$ are in fact equivalence classes of measurable functions (for the Lebesgue measure) for the equivalence relation $\varphi \sim \varphi'$ iff $\varphi = \varphi'$ everywhere except possibly on a set of zero Lebesgue measure.

Fundamental examples: the Sobolev spaces $H^1(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C})$ and $H^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C})$.

- **The sets**

$$H^1(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}) := \left\{ \varphi \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}) \mid \nabla \varphi \in (L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}))^d \right\},$$

$$H^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}) := \left\{ \varphi \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}) \mid \nabla \varphi \in (L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}))^d \text{ and } D^2 \varphi \in (L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{C}))^{d \times d} \right\}$$

are vector spaces. Respectively endowed with the inner products

$$\langle \varphi | \psi \rangle_{H^1} := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{\varphi} \psi + \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{\nabla \varphi} \cdot \nabla \psi,$$

$$\langle \varphi | \psi \rangle_{H^2} := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{\varphi} \psi + \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{\nabla \varphi} \cdot \nabla \psi + \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \overline{D^2 \varphi} : D^2 \psi,$$

they are Hilbert spaces.

- **Technical detail:** the gradient and the second derivatives are defined by means of distribution theory.

Remark. Let $\varphi \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$. A function $\tilde{\varphi} \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ can be a very accurate approximation of φ in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and a terrible approximation of φ in $H^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

For instance, let $\varphi(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ and $\varphi_n(x) = \left(1 + \frac{\sin(n^2 x^2)}{n}\right) \varphi(x)$. The sequence $(\varphi_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ converges to φ in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ and goes to infinity in $H^1(\mathbb{R})$.

Bounded linear operators on Hilbert spaces

Definition-Theorem (bounded linear operator). A bounded operator on \mathcal{H} is a linear map $\hat{A} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ such that

$$\|\hat{A}\| := \sup_{\Psi \in \mathcal{H} \setminus \{0\}} \frac{\|\hat{A}\Psi\|}{\|\Psi\|} < \infty.$$

The set $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ of the bounded operators on \mathcal{H} is a non-commutative algebra and $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm on $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$.

Remark. A bounded linear operator A is uniquely defined by the values of the sesquilinear form $\mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \ni (\Psi_1, \Psi_2) \mapsto \langle \Psi_1 | \hat{A}\Psi_2 \rangle \in \mathbb{C}$.

Definition-Theorem (adjoint of a bounded linear operator). Let $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$. The operator $\hat{A}^\dagger \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ defined by

$$\forall (u, v) \in \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H}, \quad \langle u | \hat{A}^\dagger v \rangle = \langle Au | v \rangle,$$

is called the adjoint of A . The operator A is called self-adjoint if $\hat{A}^\dagger = A$.

Endowed with its norm $\|\cdot\|$ and the $*$ operation, $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is a \mathbb{C}^* -algebra.

(Non necessarily bounded) linear operators on Hilbert spaces

Definition (linear operator). A linear operator on \mathcal{H} is a linear map $\hat{A} : D(\hat{A}) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$, where $D(\hat{A})$ is a subspace of \mathcal{H} called the domain of \hat{A} . Note that bounded linear operators are particular linear operators.

Definition (extensions of operators). Let \hat{A}_1 and \hat{A}_2 be operators on \mathcal{H} . \hat{A}_2 is called an extension of \hat{A}_1 if $D(\hat{A}_1) \subset D(\hat{A}_2)$ and if $\forall u \in D(\hat{A}_1)$, $\hat{A}_2 u = \hat{A}_1 u$.

Definition (unbounded linear operator). An operator \hat{A} on \mathcal{H} which does not possess a bounded extension is called an unbounded operator on \mathcal{H} .

Definition (symmetric operator). A linear operator \hat{A} on \mathcal{H} with dense domain $D(\hat{A})$ is called symmetric if

$$\forall \Psi_1, \Psi_2 \in D(\hat{A}) \times D(\hat{A}), \quad \langle \Psi_1 | \hat{A} \Psi_2 \rangle = \langle \hat{A} \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle.$$

Symmetric operators are not very interesting. Only self-adjoint operators represent physical observables and have nice mathematical properties:

- **real spectrum;**
- **spectral decomposition and functional calculus.**

Definition (adjoint of a linear operator with dense domain). Let A be a linear operator on \mathcal{H} with dense domain $D(\hat{A})$, and $D(\hat{A}^\dagger)$ the vector space defined as

$$D(\hat{A}^\dagger) = \left\{ v \in \mathcal{H} \mid \exists w_v \in \mathcal{H} \text{ s.t. } \forall u \in D(\hat{A}), \langle Au|v \rangle = \langle u|w_v \rangle \right\}.$$

The linear operator \hat{A}^\dagger on \mathcal{H} , with domain $D(\hat{A}^\dagger)$, defined by

$$\forall v \in D(\hat{A}^\dagger), \quad \hat{A}^\dagger v = w_v,$$

(if w_v exists, it is unique since $D(\hat{A})$ is dense) is called the adjoint of A .

This definition agrees with the previous one for bounded operators.

Definition (self-adjoint operator). A linear operator \hat{A} with dense domain is called self-adjoint if $\hat{A}^\dagger = \hat{A}$ (that is if \hat{A} symmetric **and** $D(\hat{A}^\dagger) = D(\hat{A})$).

Case of bounded operators:

symmetric \Leftrightarrow self-adjoint.

Case of unbounded operators:

symmetric (easy to check) $\not\Rightarrow$ self-adjoint (sometimes difficult to check)
 \Leftarrow

Some unbounded self-adjoint operators arising in quantum mechanics

- **position operator along the j axis:**

- $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^d),$

- $D(\hat{r}_j) = \{u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d) \mid r_j u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)\}, (\hat{r}_j \phi)(\mathbf{r}) = r_j \phi(\mathbf{r});$

- **momentum operator along the j axis:**

- $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^d),$

- $D(\hat{p}_j) = \{u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d) \mid \partial_{r_j} u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)\}, (\hat{p}_j \phi)(\mathbf{r}) = -i \partial_{r_j} \phi(\mathbf{r});$

- **kinetic energy operator:**

- $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^d),$

- $D(T) = H^2(\mathbb{R}^d) := \{u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d) \mid \Delta u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)\}, T = -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 = -\frac{1}{2} \Delta;$

- **Schrödinger operators in 3D: let $V \in L^2_{\text{unif}}(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{R})$ ($V(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{Z}{|\mathbf{r}|}$ OK)**

- $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^3),$

- $D(H) = H^2(\mathbb{R}^3), H = -\frac{1}{2} \Delta + V.$

Definition-Theorem (spectrum of a linear operator). Let A be a closed¹ linear operator on \mathcal{H} .

- The open set $\rho(A) = \left\{ z \in \mathbb{C} \mid (z - A) : D(\hat{A}) \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \text{ invertible} \right\}$ is called the resolvent set of A . The analytic function

$$\rho(A) \ni z \mapsto R_z(A) := (z - A)^{-1} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$$

is called the resolvent of A . It holds $R_z(A) - R_{z'}(A) = (z' - z)R_z(A)R_{z'}(A)$.

- The closed set $\sigma(A) = \mathbb{C} \setminus \rho(A)$ is called the spectrum of A .
- If A is self-adjoint, then $\sigma(A) \subset \mathbb{R}$ and it holds $\sigma(A) = \sigma_p(A) \cup \sigma_c(A)$, where $\sigma_p(A)$ and $\sigma_c(A)$ are respectively the point spectrum and the continuous spectrum of A defined as

$$\sigma_p(A) = \left\{ z \in \mathbb{C} \mid (z - A) : D(\hat{A}) \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \text{ non-injective} \right\} = \{ \text{eigenvalues of } A \}$$

$$\sigma_c(A) = \overline{\left\{ z \in \mathbb{C} \mid (z - A) : D(\hat{A}) \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \text{ injective but non surjective} \right\}}.$$

¹ The operator A is called closed if its graph $\Gamma(A) := \left\{ (u, Au), u \in D(\hat{A}) \right\}$ is a closed subspace of $\mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H}$.

On the physical meaning of point and continuous spectra

Theorem (RAGE, Ruelle '69, Amrein and Georgescu '73, Enss '78).

Let H be a locally compact self-adjoint operator on $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ with no singular continuous spectrum. [Ex.: the Hamiltonian of the hydrogen atom.]

Let $\mathcal{H}_p = \overline{\text{Span}\{\text{eigenvectors of } H\}}$ and $\mathcal{H}_c = \mathcal{H}_p^\perp$.

[Ex.: for the Hamiltonian of the hydrogen atom, $\dim(\mathcal{H}_p) = \dim(\mathcal{H}_c) = \infty$.]

Let χ_{B_R} be the characteristic function of the ball $B_R = \{\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid |\mathbf{r}| < R\}$.

Then

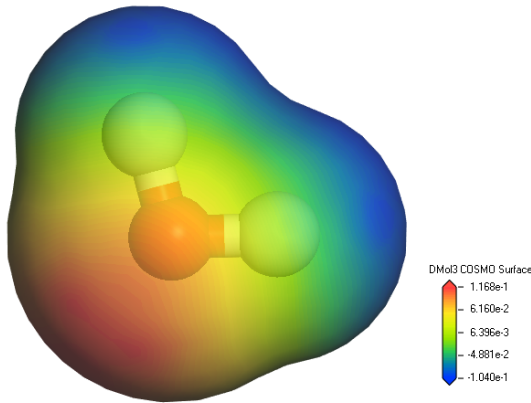
$$(\phi_0 \in \mathcal{H}_p) \Leftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists R > 0, \forall t \geq 0, \|(1 - \chi_{B_R})e^{-itH}\phi_0\|_{L^2}^2 \leq \varepsilon;$$

$$(\phi_0 \in \mathcal{H}_c) \Leftrightarrow \forall R > 0, \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \|\chi_{B_R}e^{-itH}\phi_0\|_{L^2}^2 = 0.$$

\mathcal{H}_p : subspace of localized states,

\mathcal{H}_c : subspace of scattering states

Electronic problem for a given nuclear configuration $\{\mathbf{R}_A\}_{1 \leq A \leq M}$



Ex: water molecule H_2O

$$M = 3, N = 10, z_1 = 8, z_2 = 1, z_3 = 1$$

$$v_{\text{nuc}}(\mathbf{r}) = - \sum_{k=1}^M \frac{z_A}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_A|}$$

$$\left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta_{\mathbf{r}_i} + \sum_{i=1}^N v_{\text{nuc}}(\mathbf{r}_i) + \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq N} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|} \right) \Psi(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N) = E \Psi(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)$$

$$\forall p \in \mathfrak{S}_N, \quad \Psi(\mathbf{x}_{p(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{p(N)}) = \varepsilon(p) \Psi(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N), \quad \textbf{(Pauli principle)}$$

$$\Psi \in \mathcal{H}_N = \bigwedge^N \mathcal{H}_1, \quad \mathcal{H}_1 = L^2(\mathbb{R}^3 \times \{\uparrow, \downarrow\}; \mathbb{C})$$

Theorem (Kato '51). The operator $\hat{H}_N := -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta_{\mathbf{r}_i} + \sum_{i=1}^N v_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}_i) + \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq N} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|}$ with domain $D(\hat{H}_N) := \mathcal{H}_N \cap H^2((\mathbb{R}^3 \times \{\uparrow, \downarrow\})^N; \mathbb{C})$ is self-adjoint on \mathcal{H}_N .

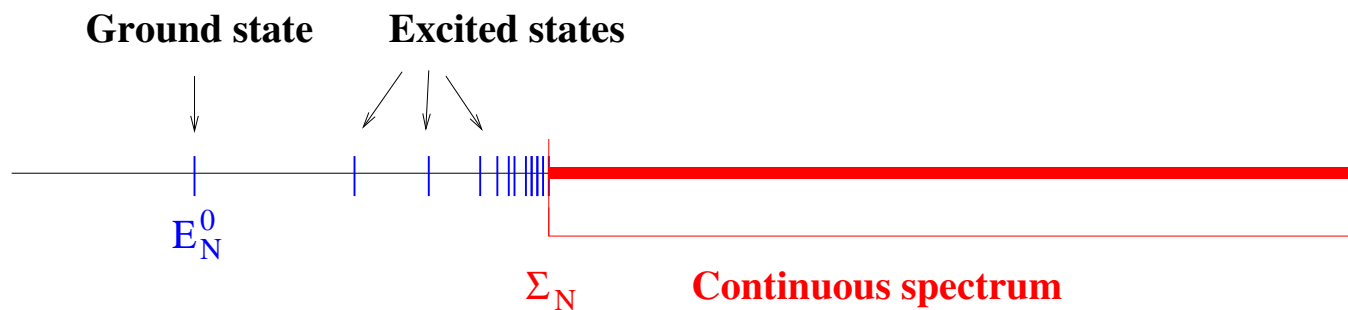
Theorem (spectrum of \hat{H}_N).

1. HVZ theorem (Hunzinger '66, van Winten '60, Zhislin '60)

$$\sigma_c(\hat{H}_N) = [\Sigma_N, +\infty) \text{ with } \Sigma_N = \min \sigma(\hat{H}_{N-1}) \leq 0 \text{ and } \Sigma_N < 0 \text{ iff } N \geq 2.$$

2. Bound states of neutral molecules and positive ions (Zhislin '61)

If $N \leq Z := \sum_{A=1}^M z_A$, then \hat{H}_N has an infinite number of bound states.



3. Bound states of negative ions (Yafaev '72)

If $N \geq Z + 1$, then \hat{H}_N has at most a finite number of bound states.

Spectra of Schrödinger operators with confining potentials

$$\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^d), \quad V \in C^0(\mathbb{R}^d), \quad \lim_{|\mathbf{r}| \rightarrow +\infty} V(\mathbf{r}) = +\infty \text{ (confining potential)}$$

$$D(\hat{H}) = \left\{ \varphi \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d) \mid -\frac{1}{2}\Delta\varphi + V\varphi \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d) \right\}, \quad \forall \varphi \in D(\hat{H}), \quad \hat{H}\varphi = -\frac{1}{2}\Delta\varphi + V\varphi.$$

\hat{H} is bounded below and its spectrum is purely discrete ($\sigma_d(\hat{H}) = \sigma(\hat{H}), \sigma_{\text{ess}}(\hat{H}) = \emptyset$).

As a consequence, H is diagonalizable in a orthonormal basis: there exist

- a non-decreasing sequence $(E_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of real numbers going to $+\infty$;
- an orthonormal basis $(\psi_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of \mathcal{H} composed of vectors of $D(H)$,

such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \hat{H}\psi_n = E_n\psi_n.$$

In addition, the ground state eigenvalue E_0 is non-degenerate and the corresponding eigenvector can be chosen positive on \mathbb{R}^d .

Spectra of 3D Schrödinger operators with potentials decaying at infinity

V **such that** $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists (V_2, V_\infty) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \times L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3)$ **s.t.** $V = V_2 + V_\infty$ **and** $\|V_\infty\|_{L^\infty} \leq \varepsilon,$

$$\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^3), \quad D(\hat{h}) = H^2(\mathbb{R}^3), \quad \forall \varphi \in D(\hat{h}), \quad \hat{h}\varphi = -\frac{1}{2}\Delta\varphi + V\varphi.$$

The operator H is self-adjoint, bounded below, and $\sigma_c(\hat{h}) = [0, +\infty)$.

Depending on V , the discrete spectrum of \hat{h} may be

- **the empty set;**
- **a finite number of negative eigenvalues;**
- **a countable infinite number of negative eigenvalues accumulating at 0 (ex: Rydberg states).**

If \hat{h} has a ground state, then its energy is a non-degenerate eigenvalue and the corresponding eigenvector can be chosen positive on \mathbb{R}^d .

The special case of Kohn-Sham LDA Hamiltonians

$$\hat{h}_\rho^{\text{KS}} = -\frac{1}{2}\Delta + V_\rho^{\text{KS}} \quad \text{with} \quad V_\rho^{\text{KS}}(\mathbf{r}) = -\sum_{A=1}^M \frac{z_A}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_A|} + \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} d\mathbf{r}' + \frac{de_{\text{xc}}^{\text{LDA}}}{d\rho}(\rho(\mathbf{r}))$$

For any $\rho \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^3) \cap L^3(\mathbb{R}^3)$, the KS potential V_ρ^{KS} satisfies the assumptions of the previous slide. In particular H_ρ is bounded below and $\sigma_c(\hat{h}_\rho) = [0, +\infty)$.

Let $Z = \sum_{A=1}^M z_A$ be the total nuclear charge of the molecular system and $N = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \rho$.

- **If $N < Z$ (positive ion), \hat{h}_ρ^{KS} has a countable infinite number of negative eigenvalues accumulating at 0.**
- **If $N = Z$ (neutral molecular system) and if ρ_{GS} is a ground state density of the system, then $\hat{h}_{\rho_{\text{GS}}}^{\text{KS}}$ has at least N non-positive eigenvalues.**

Spectra of (restricted) Hartree-Fock Hamiltonians

Let $\Phi = (\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N) \in (H^1(\mathbb{R}^3))^N$ **be such that** $\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \phi_i \phi_j = \delta_{ij}$,

$$\gamma(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = \sum_{i=1}^N \phi_i(\mathbf{r}) \phi_i(\mathbf{r}'), \quad \rho_\gamma(\mathbf{r}) = 2\gamma(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}) = 2 \sum_{i=1}^N |\phi_i(\mathbf{r})|^2.$$

$$\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^3), \quad D(H) = H^2(\mathbb{R}^3),$$

$$(\hat{h}_\gamma^{\text{HF}} \phi)(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{1}{2} \Delta \phi(\mathbf{r}) - \sum_{A=1}^M \frac{z_A}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_A|} \phi(\mathbf{r}) + \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{\rho_\gamma(\mathbf{r}')}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} d\mathbf{r}' \right) \phi(\mathbf{r}) - \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{\gamma(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}')}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} \phi(\mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}'$$

Let $Z := \sum_{A=1}^M z_A$. **The operator** $\hat{h}_\gamma^{\text{HF}}$ **is self-adjoint, bounded below, and we have:**

- $\sigma_c = [0, +\infty)$;
- **if** $N < Z$ **(positive ion),** $\hat{h}_\gamma^{\text{HF}}$ **has a countable infinite number of negative eigenvalues accumulating at 0;**
- **if** $N = Z$ **(neutral molecular system) and if** Φ_{GS} **is a HF ground state, then** $\hat{h}_{\gamma_{\text{GS}}}^{\text{HF}}$ **has at least** N **negative eigenvalues (counting multiplicities).**

Spectra of Dirac Hamiltonians

$$\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^3; \mathbb{C}^4), \quad D(\hat{D}_0) = H^1(\mathbb{R}^3; \mathbb{C}^4), \quad \hat{D}_0 = c\vec{\hat{p}} \cdot \vec{\alpha} + mc^2\beta$$

$$\hat{p}_j = -i\hbar\partial_j, \quad \alpha_j = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_k \\ \sigma_k & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{4 \times 4}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} I_2 & 0 \\ 0 & -I_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{4 \times 4}$$

$$\sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \textbf{(Pauli matrices)}$$

The free Dirac operator \hat{D}_0 is self-adjoint and

$$\sigma(\hat{D}_0) = \sigma_c(\hat{D}_0) = (-\infty, -mc^2] \cup [mc^2, +\infty).$$

Theorem. Let $\alpha := \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar c} \simeq 1/137.036$ be the fine structure constant. Let

$$\hat{D}_Z = \hat{D}_0 - \frac{Z}{|\mathbf{r}|}, \quad Z \in \mathbb{R} \quad (\text{physical cases: } Z = 1, 2, 3, \dots).$$

- if $|Z| < \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2\alpha} \simeq 118.677$, the Dirac operator \hat{D}_Z is essentially self-adjoint (meaning that there exists a unique domain $D(\hat{D}_Z)$ containing $C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3; \mathbb{C}^4)$ for which \hat{D}_Z is self-adjoint);
- if $|Z| > \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2\alpha} \simeq 118.677$, \hat{D}_Z has many self-adjoint extensions;
- if $|Z| < \frac{1}{\alpha} \simeq 137.036$, \hat{D}_Z has a special self-adjoint extension, considered as the physical one. The essential spectrum of this self-adjoint extension is $(-\infty, -mc^2] \cup [mc^2, +\infty)$ and its discrete spectrum consist of the eigenvalues

$$E_{nj} = mc^2 \left[1 + \left(\frac{Z\alpha}{n - j - \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{(j + \frac{1}{2})^2 - Z^2\alpha^2}} \right)^2 \right]^{-1/2}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}^*, \quad j = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}, \dots \leq n - \frac{1}{2}.$$

Many-body Dirac-Coulomb Hamiltonian are not understood mathematically.

Functional calculus for diagonalizable self-adjoint operators

Let \hat{A} be a self-adjoint operator that can be diagonalized in an orthonormal basis $(\varphi_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ (**this is not the case for many useful self-adjoint operators!**).

Dirac's bra-ket notation: $\hat{A} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \lambda_n |\varphi_n\rangle \langle \varphi_n|$, $\lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$, $\langle \varphi_m | \varphi_n \rangle = \delta_{mn}$.

Then,

- the operator \hat{A} is bounded if and only if $\|\hat{A}\| = \sup_n |\lambda_n| < \infty$;
- $D(\hat{A}) = \{ |\psi\rangle = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} c_n |\varphi_n\rangle \mid \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (1 + |\lambda_n|^2) |c_n|^2 < \infty \}$;
- $\sigma_p(\hat{A}) = \{\lambda_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\sigma_c(\hat{A}) = \{\text{accumulation points of } \{\lambda_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\} \setminus \sigma_p(\hat{A})$;
- $\mathcal{H}_p = \mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{H}_c = \{0\}$ (**if \hat{A} is a Hamiltonian: no scattering states!**);
- functional calculus for diagonalizable self-adjoint operators: for all $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, the operator $f(\hat{A})$ defined by

$$D(f(\hat{A})) = \left\{ |\psi\rangle = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} c_n |\varphi_n\rangle \mid \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (1 + |f(\lambda_n)|^2) |c_n|^2 < \infty \right\}, \quad f(\hat{A}) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} f(\lambda_n) |\varphi_n\rangle \langle \varphi_n|$$

is independent of the choice of the spectral decomposition of \hat{A} .

Theorem (functional calculus for bounded functions). Let $\mathfrak{B}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$ be the $*$ -algebra of bounded \mathbb{C} -valued Borel functions on \mathbb{R} and let \hat{A} be **any** self-adjoint operator on \mathcal{H} . Then there exists a unique map

$$\Phi_A : \mathfrak{B}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}) \ni f \mapsto f(\hat{A}) \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$$

satisfies the following properties:

1. Φ_A is a homomorphism of $*$ -algebras:

$$(\alpha f + \beta g)(\hat{A}) = \alpha f(\hat{A}) + \beta g(\hat{A}), \quad (fg)(\hat{A}) = f(\hat{A})g(\hat{A}), \quad f^*(\hat{A}) = f(\hat{A})^\dagger;$$

2. $\|f(\hat{A})\| \leq \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |f(x)|$;

3. if $f_n(x) \rightarrow x$ pointwise and $|f_n(x)| \leq |x|$ for all n and all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\forall \psi \in D(\hat{A}), \quad f_n(\hat{A})\psi \rightarrow \hat{A}\psi \text{ in } \mathcal{H};$$

4. if $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ pointwise and $\sup_n \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |f_n(x)| < \infty$, then

$$\forall \psi \in \mathcal{H}, \quad f_n(\hat{A})\psi \rightarrow f(\hat{A})\psi \text{ in } \mathcal{H};$$

In addition, if $\psi \in \mathcal{H}$ is such that $\hat{A}\psi = \lambda\psi$, then $f(\hat{A})\psi = f(\lambda)\psi$.

Theorem (spectral projections and functional calculus - general case -).

Let \hat{A} be a self-adjoint operator on \mathcal{H} .

- For all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, the bounded operator $\hat{P}_\lambda^A := \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, \lambda]}(\hat{A})$, where $\mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, \lambda]}(\cdot)$ is the characteristic function of $(-\infty, \lambda]$, is an orthogonal projection.
- Spectral decomposition of \hat{A} : for all $\psi \in D(\hat{A})$ and $\psi' \in \mathcal{H}$, it holds

$$\langle \psi' | \hat{A} \psi \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lambda \underbrace{d\langle \psi' | \hat{P}_\lambda^A \psi \rangle}_{\text{Bounded complex measure on } \mathbb{R}}, \quad \text{which we denote by} \quad \hat{A} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lambda d\hat{P}_\lambda^A.$$

- Functional calculus: let f be a (not necessarily bounded) \mathbb{C} -valued Borel function on \mathbb{R} . The operator $f(\hat{A})$ can be defined by

$$D(f(\hat{A})) := \left\{ \psi \in \mathcal{H} \mid \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(\lambda)|^2 \underbrace{d\langle \psi | \hat{P}_\lambda^A \psi \rangle}_{\text{Bounded positive measure on } \mathbb{R}} < \infty \right\}$$

and

$$\forall (\psi, \psi') \in D(f(\hat{A})) \times \mathcal{H}, \quad \langle \psi' | f(\hat{A}) \psi \rangle := \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(\lambda) d\langle \psi' | \hat{P}_\lambda^A \psi \rangle.$$

Application of spectral theory and functional calculus: one-body density matrices

1-RDM associated with an N -body wavefunction Ψ_N

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{\Psi_N}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') &:= \langle \psi_N | \hat{\Psi}^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \hat{\Psi}(\mathbf{r}') | \Psi_N \rangle \\ &= N \int_{(\mathbb{R}^3 \times \{\uparrow, \downarrow\})^{N-1}} \Psi_N(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N) \Psi_N(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)^* d\mathbf{x}_2 \cdots d\mathbf{x}_N \end{aligned}$$

It is extremely fruitful to consider $\gamma_{\Psi_N}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ as the integral kernel of an operator $\hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N}$ on \mathcal{H}_1 (also called **1-RDM or **DM** for short)**

$$\forall \varphi \in \mathcal{H}_1, \quad (\hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N} \varphi)(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \{\uparrow, \downarrow\}} \gamma_{\Psi_N}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \varphi(\mathbf{x}') d\mathbf{x}'$$

The operator $\hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N}$ is self-adjoint, diagonalizable, $\sigma(\hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N}) \subset [0, 1]$, and $\text{Tr}(\hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N}) = N$

$$\hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N} = \sum_{j=1}^{+\infty} n_j |\varphi_j\rangle \langle \varphi_j|, \quad \langle \varphi_j | \varphi_{j'} \rangle = \delta_{jj'}, \quad 0 \leq n_j \leq 1, \quad \sum_{j=1}^{+\infty} n_j = N$$

The φ_j 's are called the **natural orbitals (associated with Ψ_N), and the n_j 's the **natural occupation numbers****

Application of spectral theory and functional calculus: one-body density matrices

When Ψ_N is the Slater determinant of orthonormal orbitals $(\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_N)$, then $\hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N}$ is the orthogonal projector on $\text{span}(\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_N)$:

$$\hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N} = \sum_{j=1}^N |\varphi_j\rangle\langle\varphi_j|, \quad \hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N}^2 = \hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N} = \hat{\gamma}_{\Psi_N}^\dagger$$

Application of spectral theory and functional calculus: one-body density matrices

Consider a system of **non-interacting** “electrons” with one-body Hamiltonian \hat{h}

Assume that \hat{h} has at least N eigenvalues $\varepsilon_1 \leq \varepsilon_2 \leq \dots \leq \varepsilon_N$ (counting multiplicities) and that $\varepsilon_N < \varepsilon_{N+1}$ (energy gap). Then

- NVE ground-state density matrix is

$$\hat{\gamma}_{\text{NVE}} = \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, \mu_{\text{F}}]}(\hat{h})$$

where μ_{F} is any number in the range $[\varepsilon_N, \varepsilon_{N+1})$ (Fermi level)

Assume that \hat{h} is diagonalizable: $\hat{h} = \sum_{j=1}^{+\infty} \varepsilon_j |\varphi_j\rangle\langle\varphi_j|$, $\langle\varphi_j|\varphi_{j'}\rangle = \delta_{jj'}$

- NVT (canonical) ground-state density matrix:

$$\hat{\gamma}_{\text{NVT}} = f_{\beta}(\hat{h} - \mu), \quad \mu \text{ such that } \text{Tr}(\hat{\gamma}_{\text{NVT}}) = N, \quad f_{\beta}(\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta\varepsilon}}$$

- μ V T (grand-canonical) ground-state density matrix:

$$\hat{\gamma}_{\mu\text{VT}} = f_{\beta}(\hat{h} - \mu)$$