

### 4.3: Linear Variational Method

A widely used example of Variational Methods is provided by the so-called **linear variational method**. Here one expresses the trial wave function a linear combination of so-called basis functions  $\{c_j\}$ .

$$\psi = \sum_j c_j \chi_j.$$

Substituting this expansion into  $\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle$  and then making this quantity stationary with respect to variations in the  $c_i$  subject to the constraint that  $\psi$  remains normalized

$$1 = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \sum_i \sum_j c_i^* \langle \chi_i | \chi_j \rangle c_j$$

gives

$$\sum_j \langle \chi_i | H | \chi_j \rangle c_j = E \sum_j \langle \chi_i | \chi_j \rangle c_j.$$

This is a generalized matrix eigenvalue problem that we can write in matrix notation as

$$\mathbf{H}\mathbf{C} = E\mathbf{S}\mathbf{C}.$$

It is called a generalized eigenvalue problem because of the appearance of the overlap matrix  $\mathbf{S}$  on its right hand side. This set of equations for the  $c_j$  coefficients can be made into a conventional eigenvalue problem as follows:

1. The eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}_k$  and eigenvalues  $s_k$  of the overlap matrix are found by solving

$$\sum_j S_{i,j} v_{k,j} = s_k v_{k,i}$$

All of the eigenvalues  $s_k$  are positive because  $\mathbf{S}$  is a **positive-definite matrix**.

2. Next one forms the matrix  $\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}$  whose elements are

$$S_{i,j}^{-1/2} = \sum_k v_{k,i} \frac{1}{\sqrt{s_k}} v_{k,j}$$

(another matrix  $\mathbf{S}^{1/2}$  can be formed in a similar way replacing  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{s_k}}$  with  $\sqrt{s_k}$ ).

3. One then multiplies the generalized eigenvalue equation on the left by  $\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}$  to obtain

$$\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{C} = E\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{C}.$$

4. This equation is then rewritten, using  $\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{S}^{1/2}$  and  $1 = \mathbf{S}^{-1/2}\mathbf{S}^{1/2}$  as

$$\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}(\mathbf{S}^{1/2}\mathbf{C}) = E(\mathbf{S}^{1/2}\mathbf{C}).$$

This is a conventional eigenvalue problem in which the matrix is  $\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}$  and the eigenvectors are  $(\mathbf{S}^{1/2}\mathbf{C})$ .

The net result is that one can form  $\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}$  and then find its eigenvalues and eigenvectors. Its eigenvalues will be the same as those of the original generalized eigenvalue problem. Its eigenvectors  $(\mathbf{S}^{1/2}\mathbf{C})$  can be used to determine the eigenvectors  $\mathbf{C}$  of the original problem by multiplying by  $\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}$

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{S}^{-1/2}(\mathbf{S}^{1/2}\mathbf{C}).$$

Although the derivation of the matrix eigenvalue equations resulting from the linear variational method was carried out as a means of minimizing  $\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle$ , it turns out that the solutions offer more than just an upper bound to the lowest true energy of the Hamiltonian. It can be shown that the  $n$ th eigenvalue of the matrix  $\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}$  is an upper bound to the true energy of the  $n$ th state of the Hamiltonian. A consequence of this is that, between any two eigenvalues of the matrix  $\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{S}^{-1/2}$  there is at least one true energy of the Hamiltonian. This observation is often called the bracketing condition. The ability of linear variational

methods to provide estimates to the ground- and excited-state energies from a single calculation is one of the main strengths of this approach.

### Contributors and Attributions

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