

## IV. III. INTRODUCTION TO APPROXIMATION

### SCHEMES

Sections in these notes are now renumbered. New numbers are indicated in Courier font to the left.

## IV.1 III.1 Variational Principles

\* Recall: Let  $L(q_i, \dot{q}_i, t)$  ( $i=1, \dots, s$ ) be a function with  $q_i = q_i(t)$   
 $\dot{q}_i = \frac{dq_i}{dt}(t)$

The following two statements are equivalent:

(I)  $q(t) = (q_i(t))_{i=1}^s$  is an extremum of the functional

$$S[q] = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} L(q_i, \dot{q}_i, t) dt$$

i.e.  $\delta S = 0$  for small variations  $q_i \rightarrow q_i + \delta q_i$  with  $\delta q_i(t_1) = 0 = \delta q_i(t_2)$

(II)  $q(t)$  satisfies the Euler-Lagrange eqs.

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = 0 \quad \text{for } i=1, \dots, s$$

Example: In classical mechanics  $q(t) = \text{motion}$ ,  $L(q, \dot{q}, t) = \text{Lagrange fct.}$

$S = \text{action}$

\* This can be generalized to fields  $\psi_i(x_j) = \psi_i(t=x_0, x_1, \dots, x_N)$

$i=1, \dots, s$ . If  $\mathcal{L}(\psi_i, \frac{\partial \psi_i}{\partial x_j}, x_k)$  is the Lagrange density for the  $\psi_i$

then the following statements are equivalent:

(I) The  $\psi_i(x_j)$ ,  $i=1, \dots, s$  are an extremum of the functional

$$S[\psi] = \int_{\Gamma} \mathcal{L}(\psi_i, \frac{\partial \psi_i}{\partial x_j}, x_k) d^{N+1}x \quad \Gamma = \text{subvolume in } \mathbb{R}^{N+1}$$

i.e.  $\delta S = 0$  for small variations  $\psi_i \mapsto \psi_i + \delta \psi_i$  which vanish on the boundary  $\partial \Gamma$  of  $\Gamma$ .

(ii) The  $\psi_i(x_j)$  satisfy the Lagrange field equations

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \psi_i} - \sum_{j=1}^{NH} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\frac{\partial \psi_i}{\partial x_j})} = 0 \quad i=1, \dots, S$$

Proof: HW

\*  $\mathcal{L} = i\hbar \psi^* \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla \psi^* \cdot \nabla \psi - V \psi^* \psi$

is the Lagrange density of the Schrödinger field  $\psi(\vec{x}, t)$ .

Why? Lagrange field equations for  $\psi$  and  $\psi^*$ :

$$0 \stackrel{!}{=} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \psi^*} - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t})} - \sum_{j=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial x_j})} = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - V\psi + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \psi$$

t-dep. Schrödinger equation! The equation with derivatives w.r.t  $\psi$  yields its complex conjugate. Note:  $\psi$  complex  $\Rightarrow \text{Re } \psi, \text{Im } \psi$  (or  $\psi, \psi^*$ ) are counted as two independent field degrees of freedom.

\*  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{stat}} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla \psi^* \cdot \nabla \psi + V \psi^* \psi - E \psi^* \psi$

is the Lagrange density which has the t-indep. S.E. as its Lagrange field equations.

Why? Check.

[i.e.  $\delta(\text{functional}) = 0$ ]

\* The most important statement of stationarity in terms of approximation schemes is that for the energy functional  $\langle H \rangle$ .

for (not necessarily normalized) wave fct.  $\psi(\vec{r})$  the expectation value

of the Hamilton operator is

$$\langle H \rangle = \frac{\int \psi^* H \psi d^3r}{\int \psi^* \psi d^3r}$$

and can be interpreted as a functional depending on  $\psi$ .

Then:

$$\delta \langle H \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for } \sqrt{\text{small deviations from}} \psi(\vec{r}), \text{ i.e. } \langle H \rangle \text{ stationary at } \psi(\vec{r})$$

$\Leftrightarrow$

$\psi(\vec{r})$  is an eigenfct. of  $H$  and is normalized to 1 (w.r.t.  $L^2$  norm)

$$\text{Why? } \delta \langle H \rangle = \langle H \rangle_{\psi+\delta\psi} - \langle H \rangle_{\psi} = \frac{\int \psi^* H \psi d^3r + \int \psi^* H \delta\psi d^3r + \int \delta\psi^* H \psi d^3r}{\int \psi^* \psi d^3r + \int \psi^* \delta\psi d^3r + \int \delta\psi^* \psi d^3r} - \frac{\int \psi^* H \psi d^3r}{\int \psi^* \psi d^3r} + O(\delta\psi)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \left( \int \psi^* \psi d^3r \right) \delta \langle H \rangle = \left( \int \psi^* H \psi d^3r + \int \psi^* H \delta\psi d^3r + \int \delta\psi^* H \psi d^3r \right)$$

$$* \left( 1 - \frac{\int \psi^* \delta\psi d^3r + \int \delta\psi^* \psi d^3r}{\int \psi^* \psi d^3r} \right) - \int \psi^* H \psi d^3r + O(\delta\psi)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \left( \int \psi^* \psi d^3r \right)^2 \delta \langle H \rangle = \left( \int \psi^* \psi d^3r \right) \left( \int \psi^* H \delta\psi d^3r + \int \delta\psi^* H \psi d^3r \right)$$

$$- \int \psi^* H \psi d^3r \left( \int \psi^* \delta\psi d^3r + \int \delta\psi^* \psi d^3r \right) + O(\delta\psi)^2$$

Now  $\psi$  eigenfct. of  $H$  and  $\int \psi^* \psi d^3r = 1 \Rightarrow \delta \langle H \rangle = 0$

Conversely:  $\delta \langle H \rangle = 0$  for variation  $\delta\psi = \epsilon \left[ \left( \int \psi^* \psi d^3r \right) H \psi - \left( \int \psi^* H \psi d^3r \right) \psi \right]$

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$$\Rightarrow \langle H\psi | H\psi \rangle = \langle H\psi | \langle H \rangle \psi \rangle \Rightarrow H\psi = \langle H \rangle \psi$$

i.e.  $\psi$  is eigenfct. and  $\langle H \rangle$  eigenvalue.

(check!)

\* We can use this theorem to obtain the eigenstates or approximations thereof. Suppose you choose trial functions  $\psi(\mathbb{R}, \lambda_i)$  as functions of parameters  $\lambda_i$   $i=1, \dots, k$

Then the extrema found by  $\frac{\partial \langle H \rangle_\psi}{\partial \lambda_i}$ ,  $i=1, \dots, k$

are approximations to the true extrema in (infinite-dimensional) function space.

But by choosing "good" trial functions one can obtain quite close approximations.

\* Example 1: 1-parameter trial fcts. which include the true stationary state. Here: harmonic oscillator with trial fct.  $\psi_\lambda(x) = (\pi\sigma)^{-1/4} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\lambda^2}}$

I.e. we suspect a Gaussian but don't know the width; the  $\psi_\lambda$  are already  $L^2$ -normalized to 1.

$$\langle H \rangle_{\psi_\lambda} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \psi_\lambda^*(x) \left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 x^2 \right) \psi_\lambda(x) dx$$

$$= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( -\frac{1}{\lambda^2} + \frac{x^2}{\lambda^4} \right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi\sigma}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{\lambda^2}} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi\sigma}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^2 e^{-\frac{x^2}{\lambda^2}} dx$$

$$= \frac{\hbar^2}{4m} \frac{1}{\lambda^2} + \frac{1}{4} m \omega^2 \lambda^2$$

Extrema of functional:  $\frac{d\langle H \rangle_{\psi_\lambda}}{d\lambda} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{\lambda^3} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \lambda \stackrel{!}{=} 0$

$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 = \frac{\hbar}{m\omega}$  ; exact solution for harm. osc. ground state.

\* Example 2: 1-parameter trial fct. which does not include the true stationary state;  $V(x) = c|x|$ ; see HW VIII

\* Recall  $\langle H \rangle > E_0$  (ground state energy) for any expectation value

$\Rightarrow$  any approximation found for  $E_0$  with this method is an upper bound for  $E_0$ .

## IV.2 III.2 The Rayleigh - Ritz Method

\* Assume we have a set of  $n$  linearly independent basis functions  $X_i(\vec{r})$   $i=1, \dots, n$  in Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . Our trial functions for the functional  $\langle H \rangle$  will be 
$$\psi(\vec{r}) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i(\vec{r})$$

with  $n$  parameters  $c_i$ .

Here: suppose the  $X_i$  are an orthonormal basis (linearly independent vectors can always be made orthonormal). For Rayleigh-Ritz without this constraint see Herzberger, ch. 8.4

\* Plugging into  $\langle H \rangle$ : 
$$\langle H \rangle = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n c_j^* c_i \langle j|H|i \rangle}{\sum_{i=1}^n c_j^* c_i \underbrace{\langle j|i \rangle}_{\delta_{ji}}}$$

where we defined the notation  $\langle j|H|i \rangle = \langle X_j | H X_i \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} X_j^* H X_i d^3r$

Since the  $c_i$  can be complex we have  $2n$  conditions for the extrema:

$$\frac{\partial \langle H \rangle}{\partial c_i} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \langle H \rangle}{\partial c_i^*} = 0, \quad i=1, \dots, n$$

However, since  $H$  is Hermitian we only get  $n$  independent equations. (check!)

$$\frac{\partial \langle H \rangle}{\partial c_k^*} = \frac{(\sum_i |c_i|^2) (\sum_i c_i \langle k|H|i \rangle) - c_j (\sum_i c_j^* c_i \langle j|H|i \rangle)}{(\sum_i |c_i|^2)^2} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n \langle j|H|i \rangle c_i - \langle H \rangle c_j = 0 \quad \text{for } j=1, \dots, n$$

For the optimal choice of  $c_i$   $\langle H \rangle$  will be an approximation for an energy eigenvalue  $E$ . Thus we need to solve the linear system

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (\langle j|H|i \rangle - E \delta_{ji}) c_i = 0 \quad j=1, \dots, n$$

\* Hence finding the approximate solutions and eigenvalues is equivalent to solving the finite-dimensional eigenvalue problem for the matrix  $\langle j|H|i \rangle$ .

Non-trivial solutions for the  $c_i$  exist if

$$D_n(E) = \det (\langle j|H|i \rangle - E \delta_{ji}) = 0$$

The roots of the characteristic polynomial  $D_n(E)$  give the eigenvalues of  $\langle j|H|i \rangle$  which are the approximations of the energy eigenvalues of  $H$ .

For each eigenvalue  $E_i$ ,  $i=1, \dots, n$  we can determine the coefficients  $c_j^{(i)}$   $j=1, \dots, n$  and the eigenfunction  $\psi^{(i)} = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j^{(i)} \chi_j(\vec{r})$ .  
approximation to the real

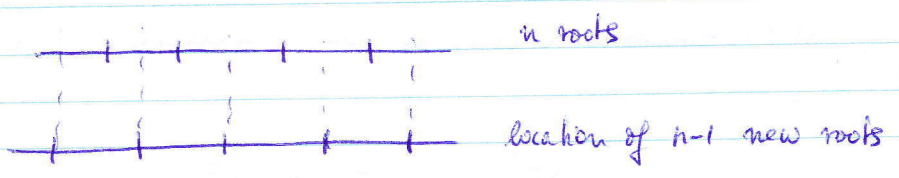
\* Since  $H$  is Hermitian the matrix  $\langle j | H | i \rangle$  is also Hermitian, i.e.

$$\langle j | H | i \rangle = \langle i | H | j \rangle^* \quad (\text{check!})$$

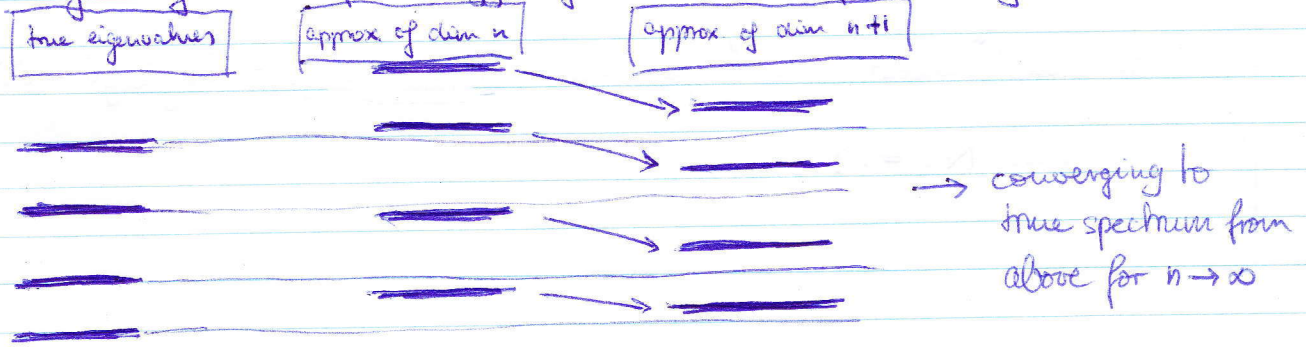
$\Rightarrow$  Sets of coefficients  $c^{(i)}$  and  $c^{(j)}$  to different eigenvalues  $E_i, E_j$  are orthogonal as vectors  $\Rightarrow$  the functions  $\psi^{(i)}$  and  $\psi^{(j)}$  are orthogonal.

\* Summary: For given  $n$  the  $\psi^{(1)}, \dots, \psi^{(n)}$  are a finite-dimensional approximation to the true eigenfcts. with  $E^{(i)}$  which are upper bounds for the true eigenvalues.

If one basis fct is added to the existing ones,  $n \mapsto n+1$  one can show that the roots of the characteristic polynomial evolve in a simple way with  $n$ :



I.e. by adding a basis fct. energy eigenvalues move qualitatively like this:



IV.3 III.3 Introduction to Perturbation Theory

\* Suppose we would like to solve a quantum mechanical problem

with potential energy  $V(\vec{r})$ : 
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta\psi + V\psi = E\psi$$

It is too difficult to solve analytically but we know the solutions for

a similar system with pot. energy  $V_0(\vec{r})$ : 
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta\psi^{(0)} + V_0\psi^{(0)} = E^{(0)}\psi^{(0)}$$

and the difference between  $V$  and  $V_0$  is small:

$$V(\vec{r}) = V_0(\vec{r}) + \delta V(\vec{r})$$

We call  $E^{(0)}$ ,  $\psi^{(0)}$  the eigenvalues and -functions of the "unperturbed" problem and  $\delta V$  the perturbation to  $V_0$ .

\* From III.1:  $\langle H \rangle_{\psi^{(0)}} = \int \psi^{(0)*} H \psi^{(0)} d^3r$  with  $H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta + V$

is an approximation to the true eigenvalue of  $H$ . The quality of the approximation depends on the "smallness" of  $\delta V$ .<sup>(1)</sup>

Thus

$$\langle H \rangle_{\psi^{(0)}} = E^{(0)} + \Delta E \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta E = \int \psi^{(0)*} \delta V \psi^{(0)} d^3r$$

\* This "lowest order" perturbation theory is just Rayleigh-Ritz

with  $n=1!$

<sup>(1)</sup> quantified below



\* If  $E^{(0)}$  is a degenerate eigenvalue of degeneracy  $d$  we have to go back to Rayleigh-Ritz with  $n=d$  to determine the  $d$  perturbed eigenvalues. They might no longer be degenerate or only partially degenerate.

\* Example for  $d=2$  (will also serve to quantify the quality of perturbation theory)

Assume two eigenvalues  $E_1^{(0)}, E_2^{(0)}$  of  $H_0 = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta + V_0$  with  $E_1^{(0)} \leq E_2^{(0)}$  (orthonormal eigenkets  $\psi_1^{(0)}, \psi_2^{(0)}$ )

Rayleigh-Ritz ( $n=2$ ).

denote  $\langle \psi_i^{(0)} | H | \psi_j^{(0)} \rangle$  as  $\langle i | H | j \rangle$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \langle 1 | H | 1 \rangle - E & \langle 1 | H | 2 \rangle \\ \langle 2 | H | 1 \rangle & \langle 2 | H | 2 \rangle - E \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \langle 1 | \delta V | 1 \rangle + E_1^{(0)} - E & \langle 1 | \delta V | 2 \rangle \\ \langle 2 | \delta V | 1 \rangle & \langle 2 | \delta V | 2 \rangle + E_2^{(0)} - E \end{pmatrix}$$

Determinant = 0  $\Rightarrow$

$$E_{1,2} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ E_1^{(0)} + E_2^{(0)} + \langle 1 | \delta V | 1 \rangle + \langle 2 | \delta V | 2 \rangle \pm \sqrt{(E_2^{(0)} + \langle 2 | \delta V | 2 \rangle - E_1^{(0)} - \langle 1 | \delta V | 1 \rangle)^2 + 4 |\langle 1 | \delta V | 2 \rangle|^2} \right]$$

(check!)

- First assume non-degeneracy,  $E_1^{(0)} < E_2^{(0)}$ . Rayleigh-Ritz with  $n=1$  would be sufficient if  $|\langle 1 | \delta V | 2 \rangle| \ll E_2^{(0)} + \langle 2 | \delta V | 2 \rangle - E_1^{(0)} - \langle 1 | \delta V | 1 \rangle$  i.e. the "overlap" of  $\psi_1^{(0)}$  and the next energy level through  $\delta V$  (i.e. the number  $|\langle 1 | \delta V | 2 \rangle|$ ) should be small compared to the energy difference between  $E_1^{(0)}$  and  $E_2^{(0)}$ . This is the "smallness"

constraint on  $\delta V$  that makes perturbation theory valid.

- Now  $E_1^{(0)} = E_2^{(0)}$ , i.e. degenerate unperturbed energy level.

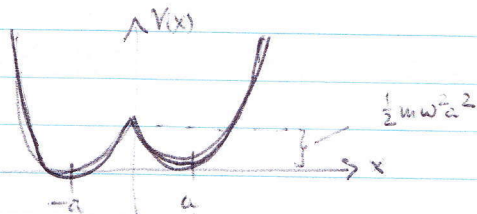
$$\Rightarrow E_{1,2} = E^{(0)} + \frac{1}{2} \left[ \langle 1|\delta V|1\rangle + \langle 2|\delta V|2\rangle \pm \sqrt{(\langle 1|\delta V|1\rangle - \langle 2|\delta V|2\rangle)^2 + 4|\langle 1|\delta V|2\rangle|^2} \right]$$

Energy level remains degenerate under perturbation only if

$$\langle 1|\delta V|1\rangle = \langle 2|\delta V|2\rangle \text{ and } \langle 1|\delta V|2\rangle = 0.$$

#### IV.4 III.4 Double Well Potentials

\* Here double harmonic oscillator with  $V(x) = \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2(|x|-a)^2$



Analytic solution possible: see Herzberger p. 156 ff

For most such potentials however be devise trial fets based on the underlying symmetry for approximating solutions.

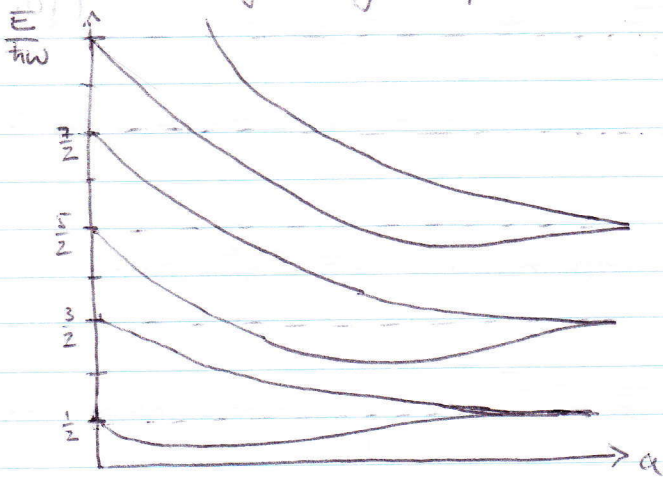
\* Qualitative behavior clear:

- For  $a = 0$   $V(x)$  becomes the usual harm. osc. with

energy eigenvalues  $E_n = (n + \frac{1}{2})\hbar\omega$ ; degeneracy = 1 for each eigenvalue

- For  $a \rightarrow \infty$  the potential resembles two independent harmonic osc. and the energy spectrum must again be  $(n + \frac{1}{2})\hbar\omega$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

now with degeneracy 2 for each eigenvalue



\* It commutes with the parity operator  $\Rightarrow$  stationary states (energy eigenfcts.)

can be chosen even or odd.

$\Rightarrow$  probability density  $|\psi_n|^2$  even and the same in both wells

$\Rightarrow$  for  $E_n < \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 a^2 = V_0$  the particle must be tunnelling through the classically forbidden potential barrier.

\* Symmetry and asymptotic limits for a large or vanishing suggest trial fcts.

$$\psi_{\pm}^n = N_{\pm}^n \left[ \psi_n(x-a) \pm \psi_n(x+a) \right]$$

with  $\psi_n(x) =$  harmonic osc. eigenfunctions

$\psi_{\pm}^n$  is  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{even} \\ \text{odd} \end{array} \right\}$  for  $n$  even and  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{odd} \\ \text{even} \end{array} \right\}$  for  $n$  odd.

The estimated energy eigenvalues from these trial fets are obtained

from 
$$\langle H \rangle_{n\pm} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \psi_{\pm}^{n*} H \psi_{\pm}^n d^3r$$

Normalization: 
$$N_{\pm}^n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(1 \pm C_n)}} \quad \text{where } C_n = \int \psi_n(x+a) \psi_n(x-a) dx$$

is the overlap integral of the two well fets.

\* Example: for  $n=0$  and large  $a$  (i.e.  $\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{\hbar}} a \gg 1$ )

$$\langle H \rangle_{0\pm} \approx \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega \mp \frac{\hbar \omega}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-\alpha^2} \quad \text{Why? maybe HW IX}$$

Even trial fet  $\cong$  ground state, energy dips below  $\frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega$ .