Kohn–Sham density functional theory (KS-DFT) [1] is a widely applied electronic structure method. Standard approximate functionals yield accurate ground-state energies and electron densities for many systems of interest [2], but often fail when electrons are strongly correlated. Ground-state properties can be qualitatively incorrect [3], and convergence can be very slow [4, 5]. To remedy this, several popular schemes augment Kohn–Sham theory, such as LDA+U [6]. Others seek to improve approximate functionals [7] within the original formulation. But what if the exact functional does not exist for strongly correlated systems? Even if it does, what if the method fails to converge? Either plight would render KS-DFT useless for strongly correlated systems, and render fruitless the vast efforts currently underway to treat e.g., oxide materials [8], with KS-DFT.

The Kohn–Sham (KS) approach employs a fictitious system of non-interacting electrons, defined to have the same density as the interacting system of interest. The potential characterizing this KS system is unique if it exists [9]. Because the KS potential is a functional of the density, in practice one must search for the density and KS potential together using an iterative, self-consistent scheme [10]. The converged density is in principle the ground-state density of the original, interacting system, whose ground-state energy is a functional of this density.

Motivated by concerns of convergence and existence, we have been performing KS calculations with the exact functional for one-dimensional (1d) continuum systems [11, 12]. Even when correlations are strong, we never find a density whose KS potential does not exist, consistent with the results of Ref. [13]. Nor do we find any system where the KS scheme does not converge, although convergence can slow by orders of magnitude as correlation is increased, just as in approximate calculations [4, 5].

Exact statements about the unknown density functional inform the construction of all successful DFT approximations [14–17]. More importantly, they distinguish between what a KS-DFT calculation can possibly do, and what it cannot. The most notorious example is the demonstration that the KS band-gap of a semiconductor does not equal the true charge gap, even when the exact functional is used [11, 18]. Our key result is an analytic proof that a simple algorithm guarantees convergence of the KS equations for all systems, weakly or strongly correlated, independent of the starting point. Thus multiple stationary points and failures to converge are artifacts of approximate functionals. Studies of convergence are well-known in applied mathematics; but almost all concern simple approximations, such as LDA [19], Hartree-Fock [20], etc., and not those in current use in many calculations.

The basic idea lies in a single step of the KS scheme, which proceeds from an input density to produce an output density. For a strongly correlated system as in Fig. 1.a, the output density can differ strongly from the input density, and be further from the true ground-state density. Nevertheless, by proving that the initial slope is always negative as in Fig. 1.b, we show there is always a linear combination of the input and output densities that lowers the energy. By sufficiently damping each KS step, the energy is always reduced each iteration, yielding the ground-state density and energy to within a given...
tolerance in a finite number of iterations.

The KS algorithm is designed to minimize the energy as a functional of the electron density, \( n(\mathbf{r}) \). For an \( N \)-electron system with a reasonable [21] external potential \( v(\mathbf{r}) \), the energy functional is [1]:

\[
E_v[n] = T_v[n] + \int d^3 r \, n(\mathbf{r}) v(\mathbf{r}) + E_{\text{HXC}}[n],
\]

where \( T_v[n] \) is the kinetic energy of non-interacting (NI) electrons having density \( n(\mathbf{r}) \), and \( E_{\text{HXC}}[n] \) is the Hartree-exchange-correlation (HXC) energy [22, 23]. The KS equations are, in atomic units,

\[
-\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \phi_j(\mathbf{r}) + \left( v(\mathbf{r}) + v_{\text{HXC}}[n](\mathbf{r}) \right) \phi_j(\mathbf{r}) = \epsilon_j \phi_j(\mathbf{r}),
\]

where \( v_{\text{HXC}}[n](\mathbf{r}) = \delta E_{\text{HXC}}[n]/\delta n(\mathbf{r}) \) is the HXC potential, \( \phi_j(\mathbf{r}) \) are the electron orbitals, and \( \epsilon_j \) their eigenvalues. (In this work, we consider spin-unpolarized systems for simplicity.) An output density \( n'(\mathbf{r}) \) is found by doubly occupying the lowest-energy orbitals:

\[
n'(\mathbf{r}) = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{N} \delta \phi_j(\mathbf{r}),
\]

where \( 0 \leq f_j \leq 1 \) and \( \sum_j f_j = N/2 \). Fractional occupation is only allowed for the highest occupied orbitals if they are degenerate, where \( f_j \) is chosen to minimize the difference between \( n(\mathbf{r}) \) and \( n'(\mathbf{r}) \) [24].

Consider convergence of the following simple algorithm. Given an input density \( n(\mathbf{r}) \), solve the KS equations to obtain the output density \( n'(\mathbf{r}) \). Define

\[
\eta = \frac{1}{N^2} \int d^3 r \, (n'(\mathbf{r}) - n(\mathbf{r}))^2.
\]

Choose some small \( \delta > 0 \), and if \( \eta < \delta \), then the calculation has converged. Otherwise, the next input is

\[
n_\lambda(\mathbf{r}) = (1 - \lambda) \, n(\mathbf{r}) + \lambda \, n'(\mathbf{r}),
\]

for some \( \lambda \in (0,1) \), and repeat. An ensemble-representable \( n(\mathbf{r}) \) is the ground-state density (or an ensemble mixture of degenerate ground-state densities) for some local potential \( v[n](\mathbf{r}) \) [26, 27]. For NI electrons, this potential is \( v_5[n](\mathbf{r}) \). We call \( n(\mathbf{r}) \) physical when both potentials exist, and we require all \( n_\lambda(\mathbf{r}) \) to be physical. We refer to a single iteration of Eqs. (2)-(5) as one step of the KS algorithm. Taking full steps with \( \lambda = 1 \) does not usually lead to a fixed point. But taking damped steps with \( \lambda < 1 \) ensures the algorithm converges, as we now prove.

**Lemma.** Consider two finite [28] systems of \( N \) electrons, with ground-state densities \( n(\mathbf{r}) \), \( n'(\mathbf{r}) \), and potentials \( v[n](\mathbf{r}) \neq v[n'](\mathbf{r}) \), by which we mean the potentials differ by more than a constant. Then [9]

\[
\int d^3 r \, \left( v[n'](\mathbf{r}) - v[n](\mathbf{r}) \right) (n'(\mathbf{r}) - n(\mathbf{r})) < 0.
\]

**Proof.** Following Ref. [9], we apply the variational principle. Since \( n(\mathbf{r}) \) is the ground-state density of the potential \( v[n](\mathbf{r}) \), we have \( E_v[n](\mathbf{r}) < E_v[n'](\mathbf{r}) \), or

\[
\int d^3 r \, v[n](\mathbf{r}) (n'(\mathbf{r}) - n(\mathbf{r})) < F[n'] - F[n],
\]

where \( F[n] = T_v[n] + E_{\text{HXC}}[n] \). It is also true that \( E_v[n'](\mathbf{r}) < E_v[n](\mathbf{r}) \), so we may switch primes with un-primes in Eq. (7). Adding the resulting equation to the original yields Eq. (6). □

**Theorem.** Given an arbitrary physical density \( n(\mathbf{r}) \) as input into the KS algorithm,

\[
E_v'[\eta] = \frac{dE_v[n_\lambda]}{d\lambda} \bigg|_{\lambda=0} \leq 0,
\]

for a physical density, the functional derivative is [27]

\[
\frac{\delta E_v[n]}{\delta n(\mathbf{r})} = -v_5[n](\mathbf{r}) + v(\mathbf{r}) + v_{\text{HXC}}[n](\mathbf{r}).
\]

Since \( v(\mathbf{r}) + v_{\text{HXC}}[n](\mathbf{r}) \) defines \( v[n'](\mathbf{r}) \) (\( n'(\mathbf{r}) \) is the output density of Eq. (2)), we have:

\[
\frac{\delta E_v[n]}{\delta n(\mathbf{r})} = v_5[n'](\mathbf{r}) - v_5[n](\mathbf{r}).
\]

Combining Eq. (11) and Eq. (9) gives:

\[
E_v'[\eta] = \int d^3 r \, \left( v_5[n'](\mathbf{r}) - v_5[n](\mathbf{r}) \right) (n'(\mathbf{r}) - n(\mathbf{r})).
\]

Two cases arise: if \( v_5[n'](\mathbf{r}) \neq v_5[n](\mathbf{r}) \), use the lemma applied to NI systems: then \( E_v'[\eta] \) must be less than zero. Otherwise, \( v_5[n'](\mathbf{r}) = v_5[n](\mathbf{r}) \), so both \( E_v'[\eta] \) and the RHS of Eq. (11) are zero, and \( n(\mathbf{r}) \) is a stationary point of \( E_v[n] \). □ We illustrate the theorem in Fig. 1.b, where we plot \( E_v[n_\lambda] \) and its linear-response approximation for the input density of Fig. 1.a.

**Corollary 1.** The KS algorithm described above is guaranteed to converge to a stationary point of the functional, if (1) only physical densities are encountered, (2) the energy functional is convex, and (3) appropriate values for \( \lambda \) are used, e.g. from the algorithm of Ref. [29], because it is effectivley a gradient-descent algorithm [30].

**Corollary 2.** When using the exact functional, the KS algorithm using appropriate \( \lambda \)'s converges to the exact ground-state density, as long as the first input density is a physical density. This is because we can choose each subsequent input density as a physical density [31], and
the exact ensemble-functional [22, 33] is convex. The only stationary point of the exact functional, when considering physical densities, is the ground-state density [34].

**Numerical implementation.** To find the KS energy functional exactly when there is no degeneracy, we must find the many-electron wavefunction $\Psi[n]$ that minimizes $\langle \Psi | \hat{T} + \hat{V}_{\text{ee}} | \Psi \rangle$ (the kinetic and electron-electron repulsion energies) with density $n(r)$ [22, 35]. To perform this very demanding [36] interacting inversion, start with a guess for the potential, $\hat{v}(r)$. Then solve the many-body system for the ground-state wavefunction $\tilde{\Psi}$ and density $\tilde{n}(r)$. Using a quasi-Newton method [37], modify $\tilde{v}(r)$ and repeat, minimizing the difference between $\tilde{n}(r)$ and the target density $n(r)$. Once converged, the procedure is repeated for NI electrons. The HXC energy is then

$$E_{\text{HXC}}[n] = \langle \tilde{\Psi}[n] | \tilde{\hat{T}} + \tilde{\hat{V}}_{\text{ee}}[\tilde{n}] | \tilde{\Psi}[n] \rangle - T[n],$$  \hfill (13)

and the HXC potential is

$$v_{\text{HXC}}[n](r) = v_{\text{ee}}[n](r) - v[n](r).$$  \hfill (14)

We implement these functionals for 1d continuum systems [11, 12], obtaining highly-accurate many-body solutions with the density matrix renormalization group [38, 39]. These are the first such inversions for systems with more than 2 electrons [40, 41]. Because, in 1d, degeneracy (beyond spin) does not occur, we find pure states $\Psi[n]$. More generally, one should invert using an ensemble $\Gamma[n]$ and take a trace in Eq. (13) [22, 33].

To illustrate convergence of the damped KS algorithm using the exact functional, we plot the output densities and KS potentials for a four-electron, four-atom system in Fig. 2. We choose the interatomic spacing $R = 3$ to be roughly twice the equilibrium spacing of $\text{H}_2$ (when the interaction between nuclei is the same as that between electrons), making this a moderately correlated system. Taking $\lambda = 0.30$, the algorithm converges to the exact density (computed separately using DMRG) to $\eta < 10^{-6}$ using Eq. (4), within 13 steps.

Consider the KS scheme applied to a simple 1d $\text{H}_2$ molecule with bond length $R$ [12]. Initialize the algorithm with an asymmetric input density, an $\text{H}^+$ density centered on the left atom. Of course, no sensible KS calculation starts with such a density, but we do this to amplify convergence issues. In Fig. 3, we quantify the convergence of the KS algorithm using $\eta$ from Eq. (4) as well as energy differences from the ground-state. For the equilibrium bond length ($R = 1.6$), $\Delta$ may be chosen quite large ($\approx 0.5$); but as the atoms are stretched to $R = 3$ (see Fig. 3), $\lambda$ must be $\lesssim 0.2$. When $R = 5$, even $\lambda = 0.01$ is too large to converge the calculation (not shown). Thus, as the bond is stretched and the system develops strong static correlation [12], convergence becomes increasingly difficult. As more atoms are added to the chain (not shown), such as stretched $\text{H}_4$, even a reasonable initial state converges very slowly.

**Consequences for real calculations.** For approximate XC functionals, the corresponding $E_{\text{xc}}[n]$ is not, in general, convex for every $v(r)$, and our corollaries do not hold. Consider $\text{H}_2$ in the local spin-density approximation. At and near equilibrium bond lengths, only one stationary solution exists. The approximate functional may or may not be convex. But when the bond is stretched beyond the infamous Coulson–Fischer point [43, 44], an unrestricted solution of lower energy appears [12], as in Fig. 4, so the corresponding $E_{\text{xc}}[n]$ is not convex and convergence with our simple algorithm is not guaranteed. While the restricted solution is a saddle point, the unre-
restricted solution behaves locally like the solution with the exact functional, providing further rationale [44] for preferring such a solution over any restricted one. On the other hand, slowing of convergence as correlations become stronger is a real effect, and not an artifact of approximations.

We chose our simple algorithm to prove convergence, but many are more sophisticated and efficient (see e.g. [4, 5]). Mixing KS potentials instead of densities [45] can similarly be proven to converge, with the advantage that all densities encountered are Ni v-representable.

Finally, we expect that orbital degeneracies in 3d require the ensemble treatment [22, 25, 26, 33]. Further, extending the KS approach to use fractional occupation of electron orbitals (even in the case of non-degeneracy) may speed convergence [46] and allow KS-DFT to more naturally handle static correlation [47].

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