Measurement based imaginary time evolution

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Quantum simulation

The aim of Quantum Simulation is to provide an alternative method to solving quantum many body problems to simulations on a classical computer.

Idea: Use quantum mechanics to simulate quantum mechanics!



Feynman, Int. J. Theo. Phys. **21**, 467 (1982)

Why aren't classical computers very good at simulation?

N=50 S=1/2 spins need a Hilbert space dimension of $\dim(H) = 2^N \approx 10^{15}$ (~PB)



Aims of quantum simulation

• Obtain the ground state (low energy state) of a Hamiltonian











Lloyd, Science 273, 1073 (1996)

Computational problems as optimization

Many difficult computation problems (including NP-complete problems) can be formulated as an optimization problem

Example

Consider the GPP, a known NP-complete problem. This may be equivalently formulated as a Hamiltonian

$$H_{GPP} = \sum_{i < j} J_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z$$
$$J_{ij} = \begin{cases} J & \text{if } i \text{ and } j \text{ connected} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$\sigma_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if site } i \text{ in group A} \\ -1 & \text{if site } i \text{ in group B} \end{cases}$$

Analogue quantum simulation

Application to quantum simulation:

Perform analogue of optical lattice superfluid to Mott insulator quantum phase transition experiment:

$$H_{BH} = -t \sum_{ij} \left(b_i^+ b_j^- + b_j^+ b_i^- \right) + \frac{U}{2} \sum_i n_i (n_i - 1)$$



M. Greiner et al. Nature **415**, 39 (2002)



Quantum phase estimation

The eigenspectrum can be obtained using the quantum phase estimation circuit



- 1) Initialize qubits in a state of high overlap with states of interest.
- 2) Perform phase estimation of $U(t) = \exp[-iHt]$
- 3) Obtain eigenvalue with probability

$$\left|\Psi_{init}\right\rangle = \sum_{n} \Lambda_{n} \left|E_{n}\right\rangle$$



High probability only for a good initial guess

Quantum annealing

Another central technique in quantum computing is adiabatic quantum computing

 $H_Z = \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^M J_{ij}\sigma_i^z\sigma_j^z + \sum_{i=1}^M K_i\sigma_i^z$ $H = (1 - \lambda)H_X + \lambda H_Z$ $H_X = -\sum^M \sigma_i^x$ Energy Energy thermal Ground state ← ← Minimum gap ∧ tunneling Time Minimum gain $t \sim 1 / \Lambda^d$ Time scaling Attractors



Quantum-Classical hybrid approaches

Basic idea: use quantum computer to estimate the energy of a ground state and use a classical feedback loop to optimize this



Variational Quantum Eigensolver

Perruzo et al. Nature Communications, 5, 4213 (2014)

QAOA





Ising machines

Ising machines are hardware devices that are specifically designed to solve the Ising model

1) Classical thermal annealing: Monte Carlo methods, physical stochastic systems

$$H = \sum_{i < j} J_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z$$

2) Dynamical system solvers: Oscillator based computing, Coherent Ising Machine, Chaotic dynamical systems

3) Quantum methods: Quantum annealing, Hybrid quantum-classical methods, Gibbs sampling

4) Other methods: Quantum inspired algorithms (simulated bifurcation), Machine learning



Ising machines as hardware solvers of combinatorial optimization problems Mohseni, McMahon, TB, Nature

Mohseni, McMahon, TB, Nature Reviews Physics 4, 363 (2022)

Performance of Ising machines

Ising machine/Algorithm	Acronym
Breakout local search	BLS
Chaotic amplitude control	CAC
Coherent Ising machine (NTT)	CIM1
Coherent Ising machine (Stanford)	CIM2
Coherent Ising machine	CIM3
D-Wave quantum annealer 2Q	DWAV1
D-Wave quantum annealer Advantage1.1	DWAV2
D-Wave quantum annealer 2KQ	DWAV3
D-Wave quantum annealer 2KQ	DWAV4
Fujitsu digital annealer	FDA1
Fujitsu digital annealer	FDA2
Hamze-de-Freitas-Selb	HFS
Memcomputing	MEM
Memristor annealing	MRT
Photonic recurrent Ising sampler	PRIS
Parallel tempering	PT1
Parallel tempering	PT2
Parallel tempering	PT3
Parallel tempering	PT4
Isoenergetic cluster moves+ parallel tempering	PT+ICM
Restricted Boltzmann machine	RBM
Simulated annealing	SA1
Simulated annealing	SA2
Simulated annealing	SA3
SATonGPU	SAT
Simulated quantum annealing	SQA1
Toshiba bifurcation machine	TBM1
Toshiba bifurcation machine	TBM2

Time to solution=Total time required to obtain the ground state with probability 99%, running the machine many times

$$T_{\rm sol} = \tau \frac{\ln 0.01}{\ln (1 - p_{\rm suc})}$$





Mohseni, McMahon, TB, Nature Reviews Physics 4, 363 (2022)

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Mohseni, McMahon, TB, Nature Reviews Physics 4, 363 (2022)

Deterministic Measurement-based Imaginary Time Evolution



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Y. Mao, M. Chaudhary, M. Kondappan, J. Shi, E. O. Ilo-Okeke, V. Ivannikov, TB, arxiv 2202.09100 M. Kondappan, M. Chaudhary, E. O. Ilo-Okeke, V. Ivannikov, TB, Phys. Rev. A 107, 042616 (2023) E. O. Ilo-Okeke, Y. Ji, P. Chen, Y. Mao, M. Kondappan, V. Ivannikov, Y. Xiao, TB Phys. Rev. A **106**, 033314 (2022)

Imaginary time evolution

Imaginary time evolution obtain the ground state, exponentially converging in time

 $e^{-Ht} |\Psi_{init}\rangle = \sum_{n} e^{-E_{n}t} \Lambda_{n} |E_{n}\rangle \qquad t \sim 1 / \Delta$

IF this was directly applicable it would be efficient in the number of gates

$$e^{-Ht} = \left(e^{-H_1 t/m} e^{-H_2 t/m} \cdots e^{-H_M t/m}\right)^m \qquad H = \sum_i H_i$$

In the same way that real time evolution can be performed efficiently in a quantum computer

$$e^{-iHt} = \left(e^{-iH_1t/m}e^{-iH_2t/m}\cdots e^{-iH_Mt/m}\right)^m$$

Unfortunately this doesn't really help in terms of getting the ground state

$$e^{-iHt} \left| \Psi_{init} \right\rangle = \sum_{n} e^{-iE_{n}t} \Lambda_{n} \left| E_{n} \right\rangle$$

Previous algorithms

S. McArdle,.., X. Yuan, npj Quantum Information 5, 1 (2019). M. Motta, ... G. K.-L. Chan, Nature Physics 16, 205 (2020). Colin P. Williams, Proc. SPIE 5436 (2004)



Measurement operators

Consider a measurement of the form

$$M_{0} = \langle 0|_{a}e^{-i\epsilon H\otimes Y}|+\rangle_{a} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\cos\epsilon H - \sin\epsilon H) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{n}(\cos\epsilon E_{n} - \sin\epsilon E_{n})|E_{n}\rangle\langle E_{n}| \approx \frac{e^{-\epsilon H}}{\sqrt{2}}$$
$$M_{1} = \langle 1|_{a}e^{-i\epsilon H\otimes Y}|+\rangle_{a} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\cos\epsilon H + \sin\epsilon H) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{n}(\cos\epsilon E_{n} + \sin\epsilon E_{n})|E_{n}\rangle\langle E_{n}| \approx \frac{e^{\epsilon H}}{\sqrt{2}}$$



Performing this measurement can be efficiently Performed:

$$e^{-HYt} = \left(e^{-H_1Yt/m}e^{-H_2Yt/m}\cdots e^{-H_MYt/m}\right)^m$$

The lucky outcome

Suppose we obtained the outcome M0 a total of t times:



 $p_0 = \left\langle \psi_0 \left| \left(M_0^{\dagger} \right)^t \left(M_0 \right)^t \right| \psi_0 \right\rangle \sim 1 / 2^L \quad \blacksquare$

Very unlikely outcome... how to make this deterministic?

 $\left|\psi_{t}\right\rangle = \frac{\left(M_{0}\right)^{\prime}\left|\psi_{0}\right\rangle}{\Gamma} \approx \frac{e^{-\varepsilon tH}}{\Gamma}$





How to choose $U_C = X$? Basically need off-diagonal in energy basis: $|\langle E_n | U_C | E_m \rangle| > 0$

Repeated weak measurement case

$$\begin{split} M_0 M_1 M_0 M_1 \dots M_1 M_0 M_0 \left| \psi_0 \right\rangle &= \\ M_0^{k_0} M_1^{k_1} \left| \psi_0 \right\rangle &= \sum_n A_{k_0 k_1} (\epsilon E_n) \langle E_n | \psi_0 \rangle | E_n \rangle \\ M_0 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n - \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_n (\cos \epsilon E_n + \sin \epsilon E_n) | M_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2$$

Х

Gaussian measurements

$$M_0^{k_0} M_1^{k_1} |\psi_0\rangle = \sum_n A_{k_0 k_1} (\epsilon E_n) \langle E_n |\psi_0\rangle |E_n\rangle$$

The k0,k1 readouts estimate the energy



$$A_{k_0k_1}(x) \propto \exp(-\frac{(x-x_{k_0k_1}^{\max})^2}{2\sigma^2})$$

More measurements collapse the state:



The MITE routine

Since the measurement operators only cause a partial collapse we modify the procedure as



The unitary correction operator

How to choose $\ U_{C}$?

This is applied after a partial collapse on a high energy state.

Ideally we redistribute the population back to the ground state.

A simpler strategy is simply to choose U_C such that $|\langle E_n | U_C | E_m
angle| > 0, orall n, m$

This ensures that eventually convergence occurs on a state with $E_{est} \leq E_{th}$

This is typically not very hard to satisfy since the energy eigenstates are some complex superposition.

e.g. for transverse Ising model choose random local unitaries



$$U_C = \bigotimes_{n=1}^{L} e^{2\pi i (\phi_n^x X_n + \phi_n^y Y_n + \phi_n^z Z_n)}$$

Qubit Hamiltonian

 $H = Z \qquad \qquad U_C = X \qquad \epsilon = 0.2.$



Mao et al. arxiv 2202.09100

Transverse field Ising model



Mao et al. arxiv 2202.09100

AKLT state

$$H_{AKLT} = \sum_{i} P_{i,i+1} \qquad \text{(S=1 operators)}$$
$$P_{i,i+1} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{S}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{S}_{i+1} + \frac{1}{6} (\mathbf{S}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{S}_{i+1})^{2} + \frac{1}{3}$$

Since the ground state satisfies $P_{i,i+1} | AKLT \rangle = 0$ We may apply these in sequence 4 site PBC



Tianqi Chen, ..., TB (in preparation)

Scaling

How many steps are required to get to convergence?

Consider a prototype example: Uniformly spaced non-degenerate Hamiltonian:

 $|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \sum_{n=1}^{D-1} |E_n\rangle.$

From a uniformly distributed initial state

The probability of getting k consecutive M0 outcomes is

$$p_{k} = \langle \psi_{0} | (M_{0}^{\dagger})^{k} M_{0}^{k} | \psi_{0} \rangle$$

= $\frac{1}{D} \sum_{n=0}^{D-1} \cos^{2k} (\epsilon E_{n} + \pi/4) = \frac{1}{4^{k}} {\binom{2k}{k}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{k\pi}}$

NOT $1/2^k$ As from a random distribution

"Self-enhancing" effect

How big should k be such that convergence is attained?

 $\varepsilon\Delta \sim 2/\sqrt{k}$

Such that the gaussian suppresses the first excited state



What is the average length of a failed sequence before we get k M0's?

$$M_{0} \qquad M_{0} \qquad M_{0} \qquad M_{0} \qquad SUCCESS! \quad P_{k}$$

$$M_{0} \qquad M_{1} \qquad FAIL (length=k) \quad p_{k-1}p_{1|k-1}$$

$$P_{k} = \frac{1}{4^{k}} \binom{2k}{k}$$

$$p_{1|k} = 1 - p_{0|k} = \frac{1}{2(k+1)}$$
FAIL (length=1)

Average length of a failed sequence
$$T_k^{\text{fail}} = \sum_{k'=1}^k k' p_{1|k'-1} p_{k'-1} = \frac{k}{4^k} \binom{2k}{k} \approx \sqrt{\frac{k}{\pi}}$$

Then the total number of failed sequences is

$$T = \frac{T_k^{\text{fail}}}{p_k} + k \approx 2k$$

 $T \approx \frac{8}{\epsilon^2 \Delta^2}$

Numerical simulation:

Putting this together with the necessary k we have

Spinor quantum computing

The analogy between spin coherent states and qubits suggests we try and encoding like



We scale up by having many spin coherent states, which are in general entangled with each other



Mohseni ... TB, npj Quantum Information 7, 71 (2021).

Natural way to perform error suppression!

Applications

Actually the measurement can be any kind of weak measurement, including QND measurements:



The ITE operation can be used to deterministically produce a maximally entangled state (macroscopic singlet state)



Ilo-Okeke ... TB, Phys. Rev. A 106, 033314 (2022) Chaudhary, .. TB, arxiv 2302.07526 Kondappan, ... TB, Phys. Rev. A 107, 042616 (2023)



Ilo-Okeke... TB, Nature Partner Journal Quantum Information 4, 40 (2018)

Summary and conclusions

- Imaginary time evolution is a versatile general algorithm to find the ground state of a Hamiltonian.
- For a simple uniform density of states model the scaling is found to be $T \propto \frac{1}{(\epsilon \Delta)^2}$
- Useful for state preparation and can be used with any energy estimation measurement (e.g. QND).

References

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QUANTUM ATOM OPTICS

Theory and Applications to Quantum Technology

TIM BYRNES EBUBECHUKWU O. ILO-OKEKE Prepublication version: https://arxiv.org/abs/2007.14601



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Postdoc positions available in Machine Learning and other topics!

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Methods to perform imaginary time evolution

Variational Imaginary Time evolution

S. McArdle,.., X. Yuan, npj Quantum Information 5, 1 (2019).

Using a parameterized state, use a hybrid quantum-classical approach to measure the parameters A, C of the evolution equations

$$\sum_{j} A_{ij} \dot{\theta}_{j} = C_{ij} \qquad \qquad |\phi(\theta(\tau))\rangle \\ \vec{\theta}(\tau) = (\theta_{1}(\tau), \theta_{2}(\tau), \dots, \theta_{N}(\tau))$$

Quantum Imaginary Time evolution

M. Motta, ... G. K.-L. Chan, Nature Physics 16, 205 (2020).

Decompose Hamiltonian into Trotter steps

Find unitary corresponding to Trotter step

$$e^{-H_1t/m} \rightarrow U$$

Probabilistic Imaginary Time evolution

Colin P. Williams, "Probabilistic nonunitary quantum computing" Proc. SPIE 5436 (2004)

Perform measurement in basis of H and repeat until success



$$e^{-Ht} = \left(e^{-H_1t/m}e^{-H_2t/m}\cdots e^{-H_Mt/m}\right)^m$$

Low success rate for large systems