

Efficient approximation of gapped spin chain ground states.

The unfrustrated case.

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School of Physics
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Honours Talks
2014

Simulation

Due to the computational complexity, simulations of quantum systems often have to employ heuristics:



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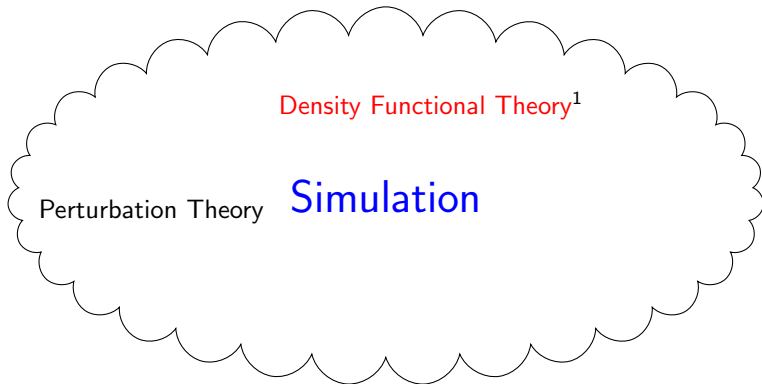
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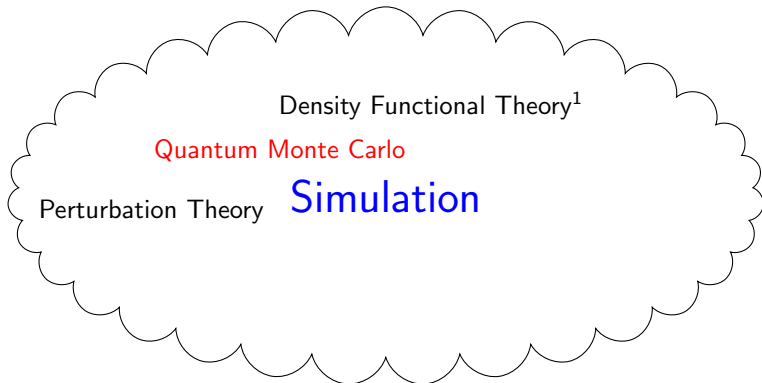
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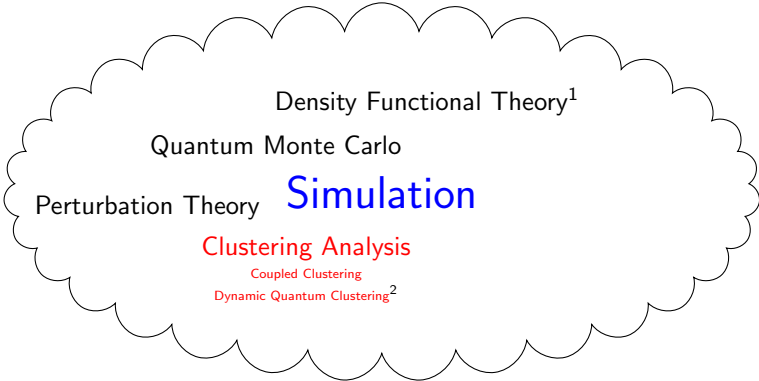
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Quantum Monte Carlo
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Clustering Analysis
Coupled Clustering
Dynamic Quantum Clustering²

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Renormalisation

Numerical Renormalisation Group³

Density Matrix Renormalisation Group⁴

Time Dependent Variational Principle

Time-Evolving Block Decimation⁵

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⁵G. Vidal, doi:10/c44j2t, arXiv:quant-ph/0301063, 2003

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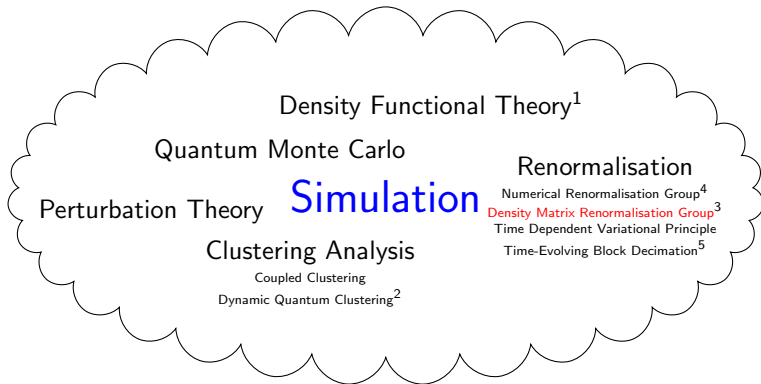
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- There exist systems for which running DFT¹ and DMRG² would require solving QMA³-hard problems, implying they are not always efficient.
- They are typically efficient however. Do there exist provable-efficient equivalents?
- The toy problem we are going to consider is ground state approximation of a spin system. This forms an important stepping-stone to more general low-temperature simulations.

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Question

Are there any non-trivial 'physically realistic' conditions under which 1D local systems can be simulated with provable efficiency?

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Role of entanglement

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Conclusion

- One main limiting factor is entanglement.
- Classical states can be specified on each subsystem piecewise, quantum systems however can exhibit any linear combination of such a product state (c.f. tensor products).

Variables in a classical state $\sim \text{poly}(\text{System size})$

Variables in a quantum state $\sim \exp(\text{System size})$

- Entanglement is a measure of information not contained in subsystems alone.

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Idea

A structural bound (limit on entanglement) implies a complexity bound (efficiency of approximation).

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- For a state $|\psi\rangle$, the full state and reduced state specified on a region A are given by

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| \qquad \rho_A = \text{Tr}_{\bar{A}} \rho$$

- The full state ρ is pure but ρ_A needn't be; the entropy of ρ_A is a measure of the entanglement between regions A and \bar{A} , e.g.:

$$R_\alpha(\rho_A) := \frac{\log \text{Tr} \rho_A^\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \qquad (\text{Rényi Entropy})$$

$$R_1(\rho_A) = -\text{Tr}(\rho_A \log \rho_A) = S(\rho_A) \qquad (\text{Entropy})$$

$$R_0(\rho_A) = \log \text{rank}(\rho_A) = \log B(\rho_A) \qquad (\text{Rank})$$

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- Local systems exhibit a light-cone (up to exponential corrections) given by the Lieb-Robinson¹ velocity v_{LR} :

$$\|[A, B]\| \leq e^{-c(d-v_{LR}t)} \|A\| \|B\|$$

where d/t are the distance/time between observables A and B .

¹E.H. Lieb and D.W. Robinson, doi:10/bphzp4, 1972.

²M.B. Hastings and T. Koma, doi:10/cddqgz, arXiv:math-ph/0507008, 2005.

Local and gapped Hamiltonians

Ground state approximation

C. T. Chubb

- Local systems exhibit a light-cone (up to exponential corrections) given by the Lieb-Robinson¹ velocity v_{LR} :

$$\|[A, B]\| \leq e^{-c(d-v_{LR}t)} \|A\| \|B\|$$

where d/t are the distance/time between observables A and B .

Definition (Spectral gap/Gapped Hamiltonian)

The **spectral gap** ΔE of a Hamiltonian is the difference between the ground and first excited energy. **Gapped Hamiltonians** are those for which the spectral gap is lower bounded by a constant $\Delta E = \Omega(1)$.

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¹E.H. Lieb and D.W. Robinson, doi:10/bphzp4, 1972.

²M.B. Hastings and T. Koma, doi:10/cddqgz, arXiv:math-ph/0507008, 2005.

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- Ground states exhibit exponential decay of correlations² with characteristic length ξ :

$$|\langle AB \rangle - \langle A \rangle \langle B \rangle| \leq e^{-d/\xi} \|A\| \|B\| \quad \xi := \frac{2v_{LR}}{\Delta E}$$

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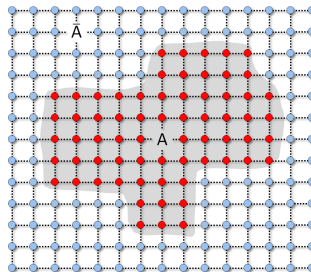
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In general the entanglement between A and \bar{A} can scale with the 'volume'¹ of the region

$$S = \mathcal{O}(|A|)$$

¹Number of spins contained within.

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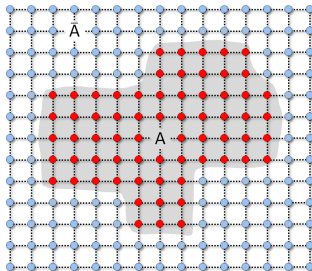
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In general the entanglement between A and \bar{A} can scale with the ‘volume’¹ of the region

$$S = \mathcal{O}(|A|)$$

Is this typical of ground states? The two previous notions of locality seem to suggest otherwise.

¹Number of spins contained within.

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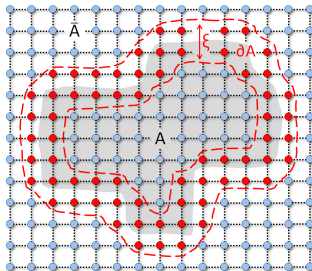
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We might suspect $S(\rho_A) \lesssim \xi |\partial A|$.

¹Number of spins along the boundary.

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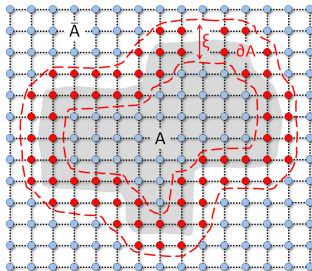
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We might suspect $S(\rho_A) \lesssim \xi |\partial A|$.

Conjecture (Area Law of entanglement entropy)

Ground states of local and gapped systems obey an 'are'¹ law

$$S(\rho_A) = \mathcal{O}(|\partial A|)$$

¹Number of spins along the boundary.

Proofs of the 1D area law

Ground state approximation

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- For 1D local states with a gap lower bounded by ϵ :

Year	Result	Notes
2007 ¹	$S \leq e^{\mathcal{O}(\epsilon^{-1})}$	Combinatorial
2012 ²	$S \leq \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(\epsilon^{-3})$	Unfrustrated only
2013 ³	$S \leq \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(\epsilon^{-3/2})$	Frustrated
2014 ⁴	$R_\alpha \leq \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(\alpha^{-3}\epsilon^{-1})$	One ground of a degen. system

¹M.B. Hastings, doi:10/ccx4md, arXiv:0705.2024, 2007.

²I. Arad, Z. Landau, and U. Vazirani, doi:10/v34, arXiv:1111.2970, 2012.

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- For our purposes we are going to assume an area law for all degenerate ground states.

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Matrix Product States

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Conclusion

- One consequence of the area law is the existence of a $1/\text{poly}(n)$ -accurate approximate ground state with entanglement rank bounded

$$B \leq \exp \left(\mathcal{O} \left(\epsilon^{-1/4} \log^{3/4} n \right) \right) = n^{o(1)}$$

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$$B \leq \exp \left(\mathcal{O} \left(\epsilon^{-1/4} \log^{3/4} n \right) \right) = n^{o(1)}$$

- As such we can utilise the Matrix Product State ansatz



- This ansatz allows for any state with the given entanglement rank to be represented by $n^{o(1)}$ complex numbers; efficient representation.

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Our algorithm is based on the unique ground state algorithm of Landau, Vazirani and Vidick. This class of ground state algorithms works by constructing viable sets.

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Definition

A (i,s,δ) -**viable set** is a set of states such that:

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- These states are defined on the first i spins.

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- The cardinality of this set is s .

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A (i,s,δ) -**viable set** is a set of states such that:

- These states are defined on the first i spins.
- The cardinality of this set is s .
- This set's span supports the reduced density matrix of a **witness state** $|\psi\rangle$, which has ground state overlap at least $1 - \delta$.

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- The cardinality of this set is s .
- This set's span supports the reduced density matrix of a **witness state** $|\psi\rangle$, which has ground state overlap at least $1 - \delta$.

If we can construct a $(n, \text{poly}(n), \eta)$ -viable, then by minimise the Hamiltonian on this set we can efficiently find a state with $1 - \eta$ ground state overlap.

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- The idea behind the proof is inductive.

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Conclusion

- The idea behind the proof is inductive.
- We start with a $(i - 1, s, \delta)$ -viable set and give a procedure to generate a (i, s, δ) -viable set from it, for given values of s and δ .

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- By induction this gets us from the trivial $(0, 1, 0)$ -viable set $\{1\}$ to the desired set.

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- By induction this gets us from the trivial $(0, 1, 0)$ -viable set $\{1\}$ to the desired set.
- Each step alters one of the viability parameters in turn.

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- Firstly we want to increment the number of spins. Take S_{i-1} to be the viable set on $i - 1$ spins.

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- Construct $S_i^{(1)}$ by:

Algorithm Step 1: Extension

Taking $\{|j\rangle\}$ to be the computational basis on the i th spin

$$\text{Return } S_i^{(1)} := \{ |s\rangle \otimes |j\rangle \mid |s\rangle \in S_{i-1}, 1 \leq j \leq d \}.$$

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- This will send a $(i-1, s, \delta)$ -viable set to a (i, ds, δ) -viable set, where d is the local dimension of each spin.
- Extension alone will tend to exponentially grow the cardinality, so the next step is to trim the cardinality back down.

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Algorithm Step 2: Size Trimming

Take σ to be a density matrix supported on $\text{Span} \left(S_i^{(1)} \right) \otimes \mathbb{C}^B$ given as the solution to the size-trimming convex program:

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \text{Tr}(H_j \sigma) \\ \text{such that} \quad & \text{Tr}(\sigma) = 1, \quad \sigma \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

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Take $|u\rangle$ to be the highest eigenvector of σ , and decompose this state as $|u\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^B |u_j\rangle |j\rangle$.

$$\text{Return } S_i^{(2)} := \{|u_j\rangle \mid \forall j\}.$$

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$$\text{Return } S_i^{(2)} := \{|u_j\rangle \mid \forall j\}.$$

- This sends a $(i, \text{ds}, \delta = c\epsilon^2/n)$ -viable set to a $(i, \text{p}_1, 1/12)$ -viable set, where $p_1 = n^{2^{\mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon)}}$ is the number of optimisations.

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- The main idea here is to use approximate ground state projectors (AGSP).

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- The main idea here is to use approximate ground state projectors (AGSP).
- An AGSP P is an operator for which
 - For any ground state $|\Gamma\rangle$, $P|\Gamma\rangle = |\Gamma\rangle$.
 - For any state $|\Gamma^\perp\rangle$ orthogonal to the ground, $\|P|\Gamma^\perp\rangle\|$ is small.
 - **The entanglement P generates is not too large.**

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Algorithm Step 4: Error Reduction

Take the decomposition of the approximate AGSP $K = \sum_k A_j \otimes B_j$.

$$\text{Return } S_i^{(4)} := \left\{ A_j |s\rangle \mid \forall j, |s\rangle \in S_i^{(3)} \right\}.$$

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- This sends a $(i, p_1, 1/2)$ -viable set to a $(i, pp_1, c\epsilon^2/n)$ -viable set, where $p = n^{\mathcal{O}(1)}$ is related to the entanglement rank of the AGSP.

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Stage	i	s	B	δ
Iteration 0	0	1	0	0
	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
Iteration $i - 1$	$i - 1$	pp_1	pp_2	$c\epsilon^2/n$
Iteration i:				
Extension	i	dpp_1	pp_2	$c\epsilon^2/n$
Size Trimming	i	p₁	$dp^2p_1p_2$	1/12
Bond Trimming	i	p_1	p₂	1/2
Error Reduction	i	pp_1	pp_2	$c\epsilon^2/n$
Iteration $i + 1$	$i + 1$	pp_1	pp_2	$c\epsilon^2/n$
	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
Iteration $n - 1$	n	pp_1	pp_2	$c\epsilon^2/n$
Final iteration	n	p_0p_1	p_0p_2	η

All the parameters are $\text{poly}(n)$ (ignoring ϵ -dependence) and each step run in $\text{poly}(n)$ time. The final run-time of this algorithm is

$$T = n^{2^{\mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon)}} \cdot \text{poly}(n/\eta)$$

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- For simplicity we consider a two-fold degeneracy.

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- For simplicity we consider a two-fold degeneracy.
- A viable set is redefined to contain two orthogonal witnesses.

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- For simplicity we consider a two-fold degeneracy.
- A viable set is redefined to contain two orthogonal witnesses.
- The majority of the described algorithm can be generalised to include degeneracy relatively painlessly.
- Size-trimming optimisations need to be overhauled and poses two problems:

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 - The local energy contributions may not be minimal (frustration) and they may not be identical for different ground states.

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 - ~~The local energy contributions may not be minimal (frustration) and they may not be identical for different ground states.~~
Assume Hamiltonian is unfrustrated.

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- Size-trimming optimisations need to be overhauled and poses two problems:
 - ~~The local energy contributions may not be minimal (frustration) and they may not be identical for different ground states.~~
Assume Hamiltonian is unfrustrated.
 - The optimisations are only guaranteed to give a single witness state.

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- Whilst the two ground states are orthogonal on the whole system, their components on the first i spins need not be.

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- Whilst the two ground states are orthogonal on the whole system, their components on the first i spins need not be.
 - Consider the example of the states

$$|\Gamma_1\rangle = |000\rangle \qquad |\Gamma_2\rangle = |011\rangle$$

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- Whilst the two ground states are orthogonal on the whole system, their components on the first i spins need not be.
 - Consider the example of the states

$$|\Gamma_1\rangle = |000\rangle \quad |\Gamma_2\rangle = |011\rangle$$

- On the first spin the states 'look' identical

$$|\Gamma_1\rangle = |0^{**}\rangle \quad |\Gamma_2\rangle = |0^{**}\rangle$$

so any set which is $(1,s,\delta)$ -viable for Γ_1 is $(1,s,\delta)$ -viable for Γ_2 also.

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so any set which is $(1,s,\delta)$ -viable for Γ_1 is $(1,s,\delta)$ -viable for Γ_2 also.

- On the first two spins however the states 'look' orthogonal

$$|\Gamma_1\rangle = |00^*\rangle \quad |\Gamma_2\rangle = |01^*\rangle$$

so viability for Γ_1 doesn't imply any viability for Γ_2 .

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The non-degenerate optimisation gives the first witness state. We then measure the magnitude of the second state captured by the first optimisation by:

Definition (Left-Distinguishability)

We define the **left-distinguishability** to be $D = 1 - \text{Tr}(\rho_L P)$ where ρ_L is the left-reduced density operator of the desired second witness, and P is the projection onto the span of the current viable vectors.

$D = 0$ corresponds to entirely indistinguishable.

$D = 1$ corresponds to entirely distinguishable.

Degenerate Size-Trimming: Low D Case

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- In this case a viable set for the first witness is also a viable set for the second witness.
- As D grows the error of the second witness grows.

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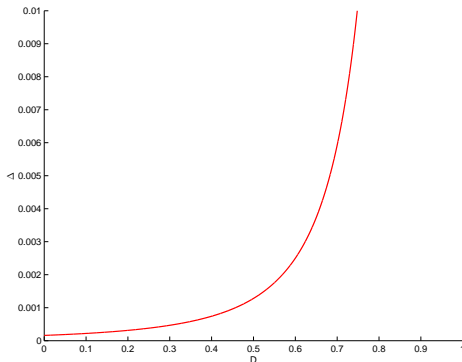
High D

All D

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Conclusion

- In this case a viable set for the first witness is also a viable set for the second witness.
- As D grows the error of the second witness grows.



Degenerate Size-Trimming: High D Case

Ground state approximation

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In this case we want to 'project away' from the current viable set.

Algorithm Step 2.2: Degenerate Size Trimming

Take σ_2 supported on $\text{Span} \left(S_i^{(1)} \right) \otimes \mathbb{C}^B$ given as the solution to the degenerate size-trimming convex program:

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & \text{Tr}(\sigma_2 P) \\ \text{such that} \quad & \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \text{Tr}(H_j \sigma) \leq \sqrt{c} \epsilon \\ & \text{Tr}(\sigma) = 1, \quad \sigma \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Again taking $|u_2\rangle \sum_{j=1}^B |u_{2,j}\rangle |j\rangle$ to be the highest eigenvector of σ_2 .

$$\begin{aligned} S_i^{(2,2)} &:= \{|u_{2,j}\rangle \mid \forall j\} \\ \text{Return } S_i^{(2)} &:= S_i^{(2,1)} \cup S_i^{(2,1)} \end{aligned}$$

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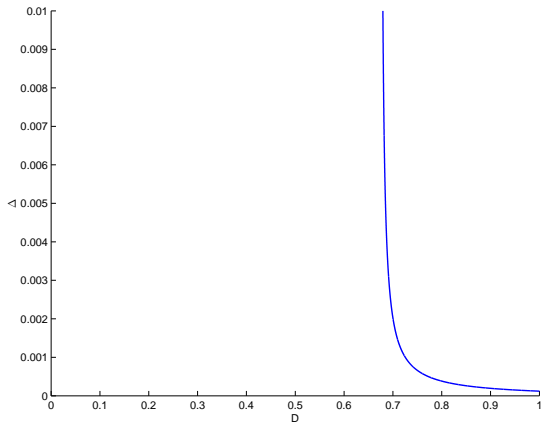
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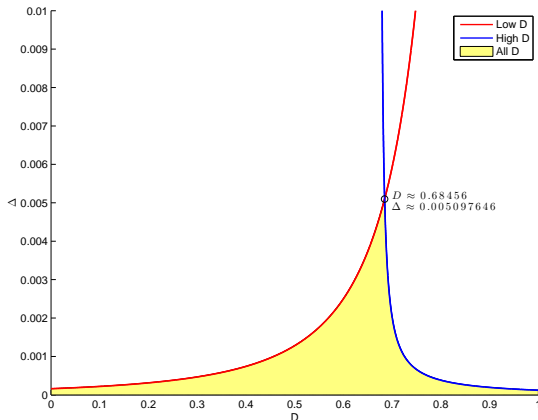
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Combining the two bounds gives a D -independent bound on the error

$$\Delta < 1/100$$

Degenerate parameter table

Ground state approximation
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Stage	i	s	B	δ	Δ
Iteration 0	0	1	0	0	0
	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
Iteration $i - 1$	$i - 1$	pp_1	pp_2	—	$c\epsilon^3$
Iteration i:					
Extension	i	dpp_1	pp_2	—	$c\epsilon^3$
Size Trimming	i	p₁	$dp^2p_1p_2$	1/100	—
Bond Trimming	i	p_1	p₂	1/4	—
Error Reduction	i	pp_1	pp_2	—	cϵ^3
Iteration $i + 1$	$i + 1$	pp_1	pp_2	—	$c\epsilon^3$
	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
Iteration $n - 1$	n	pp_1	pp_2	—	$c\epsilon^3$
Final iteration	n	p_0p_1	p_0p_2	η	η

Run-time improved to

$$T = \begin{cases} \text{poly}(n/\eta) \cdot n^{\mathcal{O}(\epsilon^{-1})} & \text{for } \eta^{-1} = \text{poly}(n) \\ \text{poly}(n/\eta) & \text{for } \eta^{-1} = 2^{\mathcal{O}(\log n)} \end{cases}$$

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- Introducing frustration is the most obvious next step.

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Conclusion

- Introducing frustration is the most obvious next step.
- Full area law proof also outstanding.

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Conclusion

- Introducing frustration is the most obvious next step.
- Full area law proof also outstanding.
- Algorithm is technically efficient, but not practical.

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Conclusion

- Introducing frustration is the most obvious next step.
- Full area law proof also outstanding.
- Algorithm is technically efficient, but not practical.
 - Poorly optimised, could be rewritten with semi-definite programs.

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Conclusion

- Introducing frustration is the most obvious next step.
- Full area law proof also outstanding.
- Algorithm is technically efficient, but not practical.
 - Poorly optimised, could be rewritten with semi-definite programs.
 - Could boost heuristic methods such as DMRG.

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Conclusion

- Gives example of Structural Complexity implying Computational Complexity.

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Conclusion

- Gives example of Structural Complexity implying Computational Complexity.
- More general area laws, higher dimensions or different conditions.

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Conclusion

- Gives example of Structural Complexity implying Computational Complexity.
- More general area laws, higher dimensions or different conditions.
- More general forms of simulation e.g. time-evolution.