

Introduction to Quantum Simulation

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Outline

3 Review of Core Concepts

- Overview of Dirac notation
- Hamiltonians & Observables
- Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors
- Postulates of Quantum Mechanics

14 Quantum Simulation

- Eigenstate solvers
- Simulating dynamics
- Phase Transitions

28 Classical Approaches

32 Simulating Quantum Systems with QPUs

- Preparing quantum simulation algorithms
- Mapping to QPUs

35 Approaches to QPU-based Quantum Simulation

- Trotter Approximation
- Phase Estimation
- VQE
- SQD

Practical Example

Core Concept Review

Core Concept Review

Postulates of quantum mechanics

The entire formalism of quantum mechanics rests upon five basic postulates, which enable us to understand:

- *How a quantum state is described at any given time t*
- *How to calculate the various physical quantities from this quantum state*
- *How to follow the time evolution of a given quantum state*

The mathematical tools we describe later are what we will use to investigate how quantum systems evolve as well as how to characterize them

Core Concept Review

Postulates of quantum mechanics

Postulate 1 (State of a system):

The state of any physical system, at any time, is specified by a state vector $|\psi(t)\rangle$

in a Hilbert space: \mathcal{H}

The system is completely described by this state vector. And any superposition of state vectors is *also* a state vector.

Core Concept Review

Postulates of quantum mechanics

Postulate 1 (State of a system)

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Postulate 2 (Observables & Operators):

For every physically measurable quantity: A
(known as an **observable**), there is a corresponding
Hermitian operator: \hat{A}
whose eigenvectors form a complete basis.

Core Concept Review

Postulates of quantum mechanics

Postulate 1 (State of a system):

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Postulate 2

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Postulate 3 (Measurements & eigenvalues):

The measurement of an observable, may be represented formally by the action of \hat{A} on a state vector $|\psi(t)\rangle$

The only possible result of a measurement are one of the eigenvalues a_n of the operator \hat{A}

The resulting state immediately after is then:

$$|\psi_n\rangle \langle \psi_n | \psi(t) \rangle$$

Projection of $|\psi(t)\rangle$ onto eigenstate $|\psi_n\rangle$

Core Concept Review

Postulates of quantum mechanics

Postulate 1 (State of a system):

The state of a system is specified by a vector in a Hilbert space. The vector is also normalized to unity.

Postulate 2 (Time evolution):

For a system with a known Hamiltonian H , the state evolves according to the Schrödinger equation. Here, $|\psi(t)\rangle$ is the state at time t , and $|\psi(0)\rangle$ is the initial state.

Postulate 3 (Measurement):

The measurement of an observable A on a state $|\psi\rangle$ yields one of the eigenvalues a_n of A . The probability of obtaining a_n is given by $P_n(a_n) = |\langle\psi_n|\psi\rangle|^2$. The result of the measurement is a_n .

Postulate 4 (Probabilistic outcome of measurement):

When making a measurement on a state $|\psi(t)\rangle$, the probability of obtaining one of the nondegenerate eigenvalues a_n is given by:

$$P_n(a_n) = \frac{|\langle\psi_n|\psi\rangle|^2}{\langle\psi|\psi\rangle}$$

Core Concept Review

Postulates of quantum mechanics

Postulate 1 (State of a system):

The state of a system is specified by a state vector $|\psi\rangle$ in a Hilbert space. The state vector is also normalized.

Postulate 2 (Superposition):

For any two states $|\psi_1\rangle$ and $|\psi_2\rangle$, their linear combination (known as a superposition) is also a valid state. Here, c_1 and c_2 are complex numbers, and $|\psi_1\rangle$ and $|\psi_2\rangle$ are normalized state vectors.

Postulate 3 (Measurement & probabilities):

The measurement of an observable A on a state $|\psi\rangle$ yields one of the eigenvalues a_i of A . The probability of obtaining a_i is given by $|c_i|^2$, where c_i is the coefficient of the eigenstate $|a_i\rangle$ in the expansion of $|\psi\rangle$. The result of the measurement collapses the state to the corresponding eigenstate $|a_i\rangle$.

Postulate 4 (Dynamics of a closed system):

Postulate 5 (Time evolution):

The time evolution of the state vector is governed by the time-dependent **Schrödinger equation**

$$i\hbar \frac{d|\psi\rangle}{dt} = H|\psi\rangle$$

Which has the general solution:

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = e^{-iHt}|\psi(0)\rangle$$

Core Concept Review

Wavefunctions: *bras*, *kets*, and *state vectors*

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\langle\psi| = \alpha^*\langle 0| + \beta^*\langle 1| = (\alpha^* \quad \beta^*)$$

Basis states are *orthogonal*

$$\langle 0|1\rangle = \langle 1|0\rangle = 0$$

$$\langle 0|0\rangle = \langle 1|1\rangle = 1$$

Probability of measurement is based on *amplitude*

$$|\alpha|^2 = p_{|0\rangle} \quad |\beta|^2 = p_{|1\rangle}$$

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1 \quad \{\alpha, \beta\} \in \mathbb{C}$$

Core Concept Review

A *spanning set* (often called a *basis*) for a vector space is a set of vectors:

$$\{|v_1\rangle, |v_2\rangle, \dots, |v_n\rangle\}$$

such that any vector in the space can be written as a linear combination

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_i a_i |v_i\rangle$$

of vectors in that set

For example:

$$|v_1\rangle \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad |v_2\rangle \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$|v\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} = a_1 |v_1\rangle + a_2 |v_2\rangle$$

Linear operators also have a matrix representation (with input and output bases)

$$A|v_j\rangle = \sum_i A_{ij} |w_i\rangle$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{00} & A_{01} & \dots & A_{0N} \\ A_{10} & A_{11} & \dots & A_{1N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ A_{N0} & A_{N1} & \dots & A_{NN} \end{pmatrix}$$

Often times a system's *Hamiltonian* is written in this way

Core Concept Review

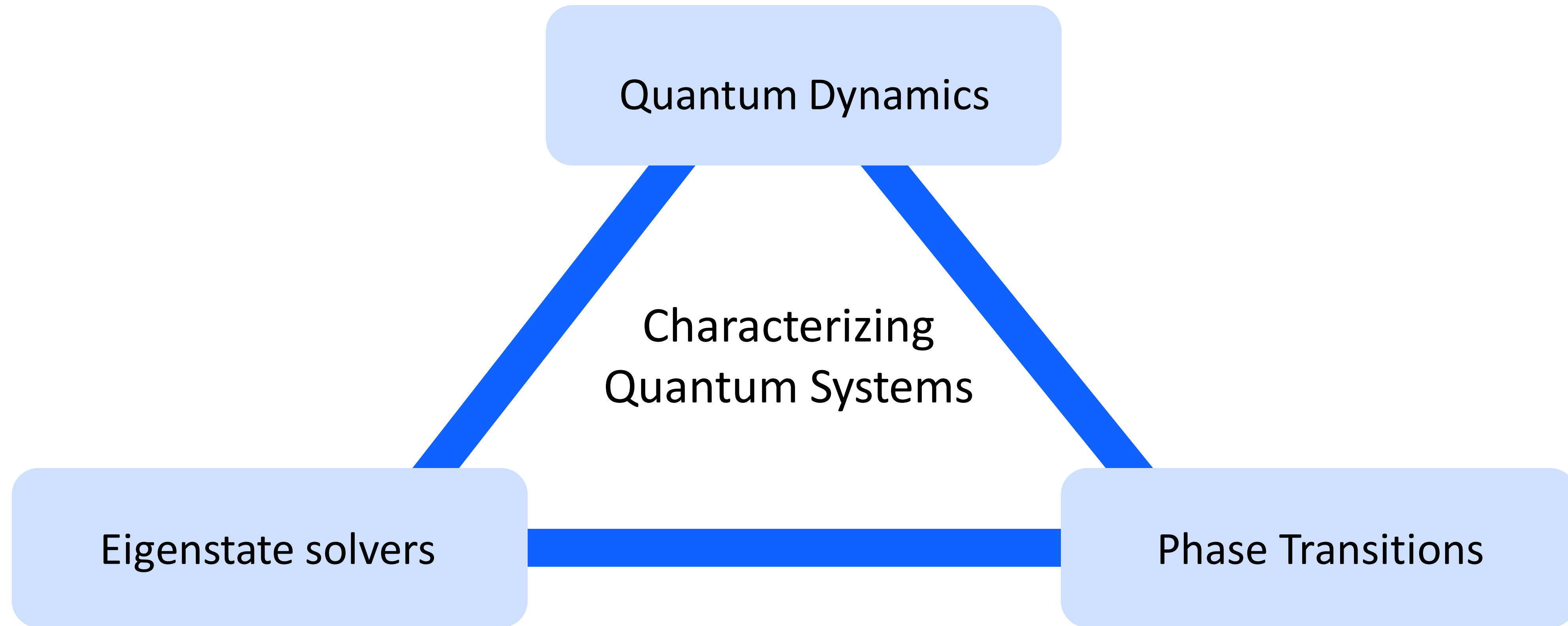
Notation for common operations

z^*	Complex conjugate $(1 + i)^* = 1 - i$
$ \psi\rangle$	Vector (aka a <i>ket</i>)
$\langle\psi $	Vector dual (aka a <i>bra</i>)
$\langle\phi \psi\rangle$	Inner product
$ \phi\rangle \otimes \psi\rangle \quad \phi\rangle \psi\rangle$	Tensor product

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} a^* & c^* \\ b^* & d^* \end{pmatrix}$$

$A^\dagger = (A^T)^*$	Hermitian conjugate (<i>adjoint</i>)
$\langle\phi A \psi\rangle$	Expectation value

Quantum Simulation



Quantum Simulation

Eigenstate solvers

Most straightforward approach, but quickly becomes intractable as system size grows

Quantum Simulation

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = \pm 1$$

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenstate solvers

Quantum Simulation

$$\lambda = \pm 1$$

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\psi_{z+} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\psi_{z-} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\psi_{x+} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Eigenstate solvers

Quantum Simulation

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

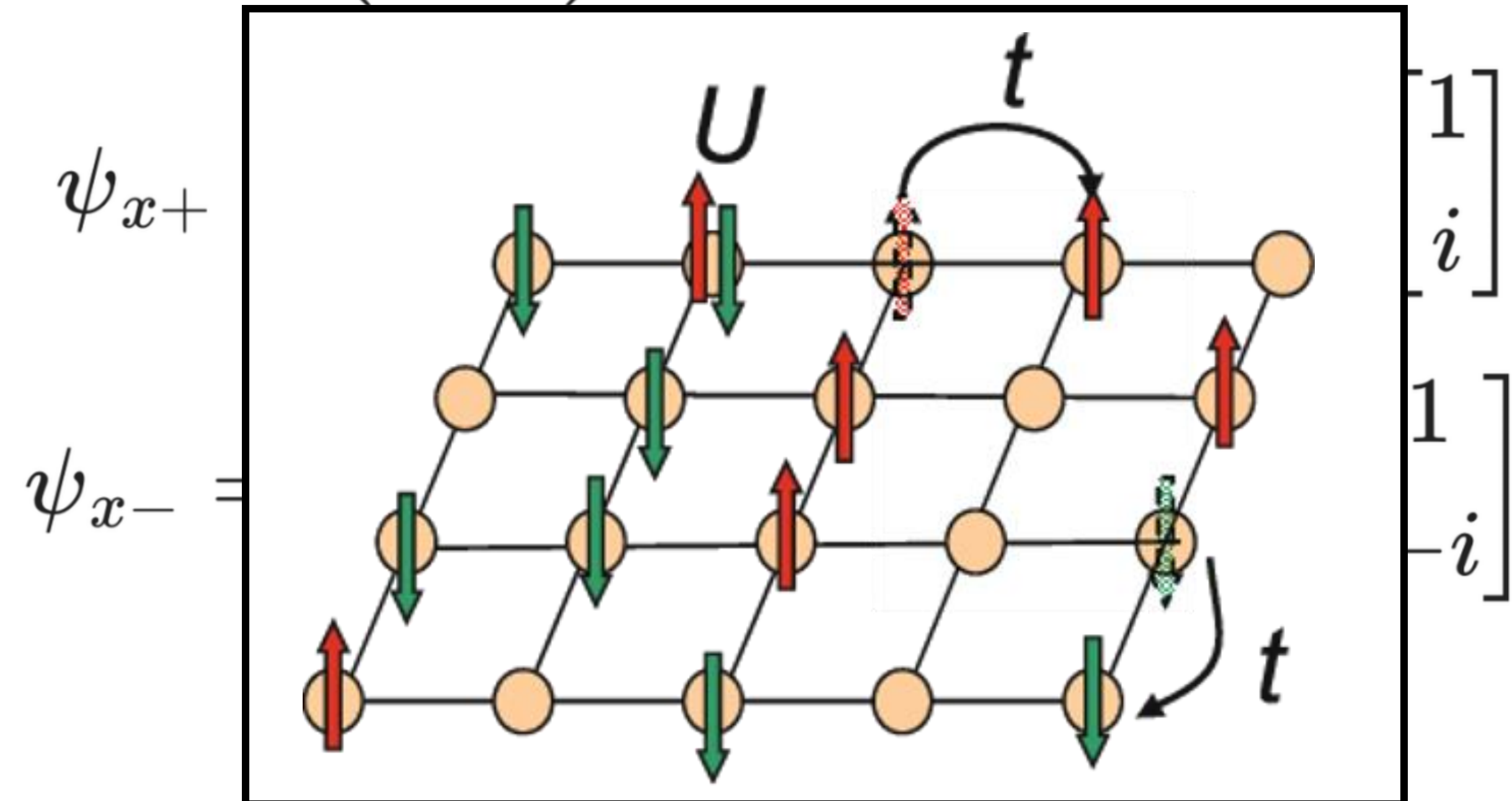
$$\psi_{z+} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Eigenstate solvers

$$\lambda = \pm 1$$

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

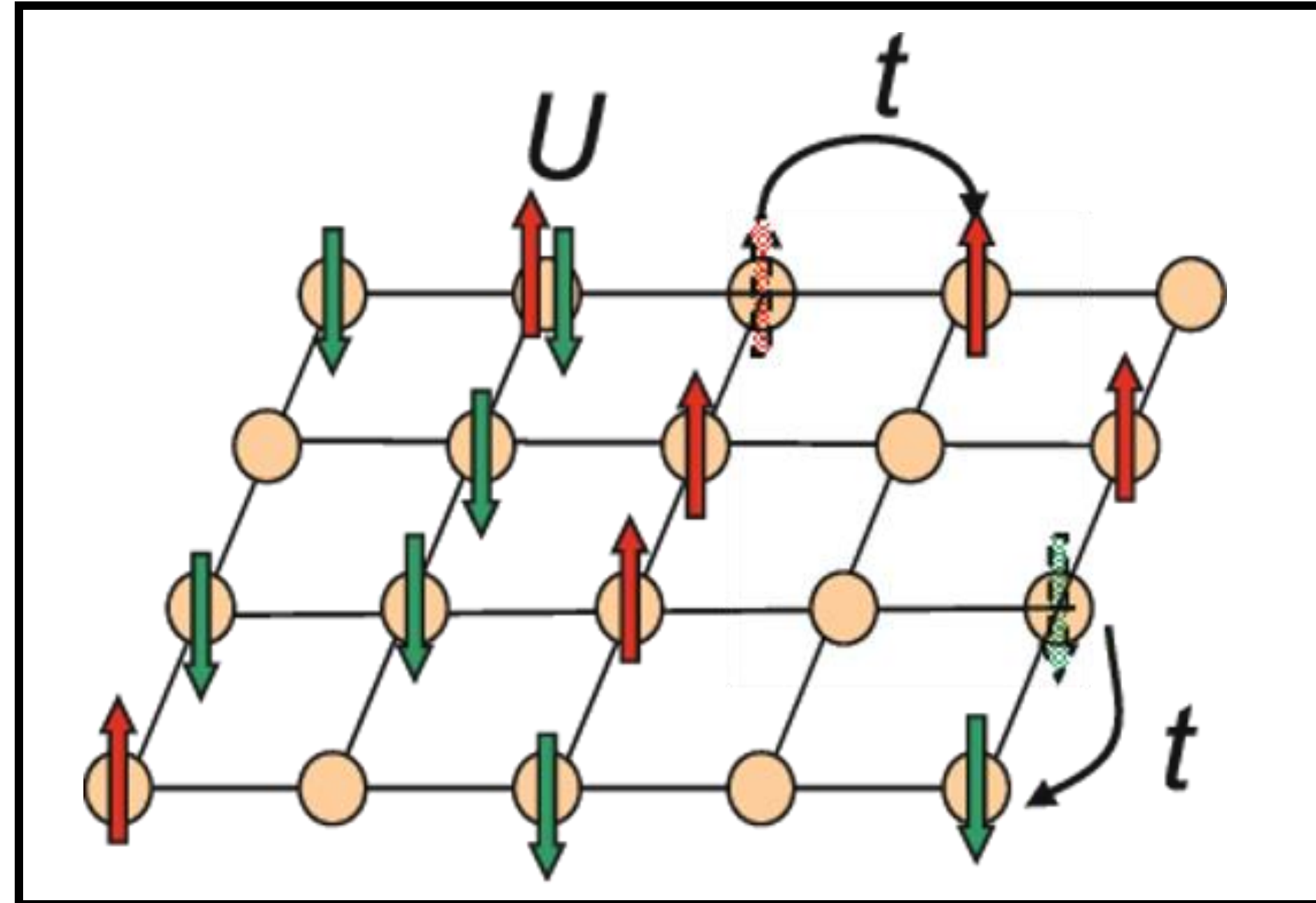


Susumu Yamada, et. al. *High Performance LOBPCG Method for Solving Multiple Eigenvalues of Hubbard Model: Efficiency of Communication Avoiding Neumann Expansion*

Quantum Simulation

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} H_{00} & H_{01} & \dots & H_{0N} \\ H_{10} & H_{11} & \dots & H_{1N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ H_{N0} & H_{N1} & \dots & H_{NN} \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenstate solvers

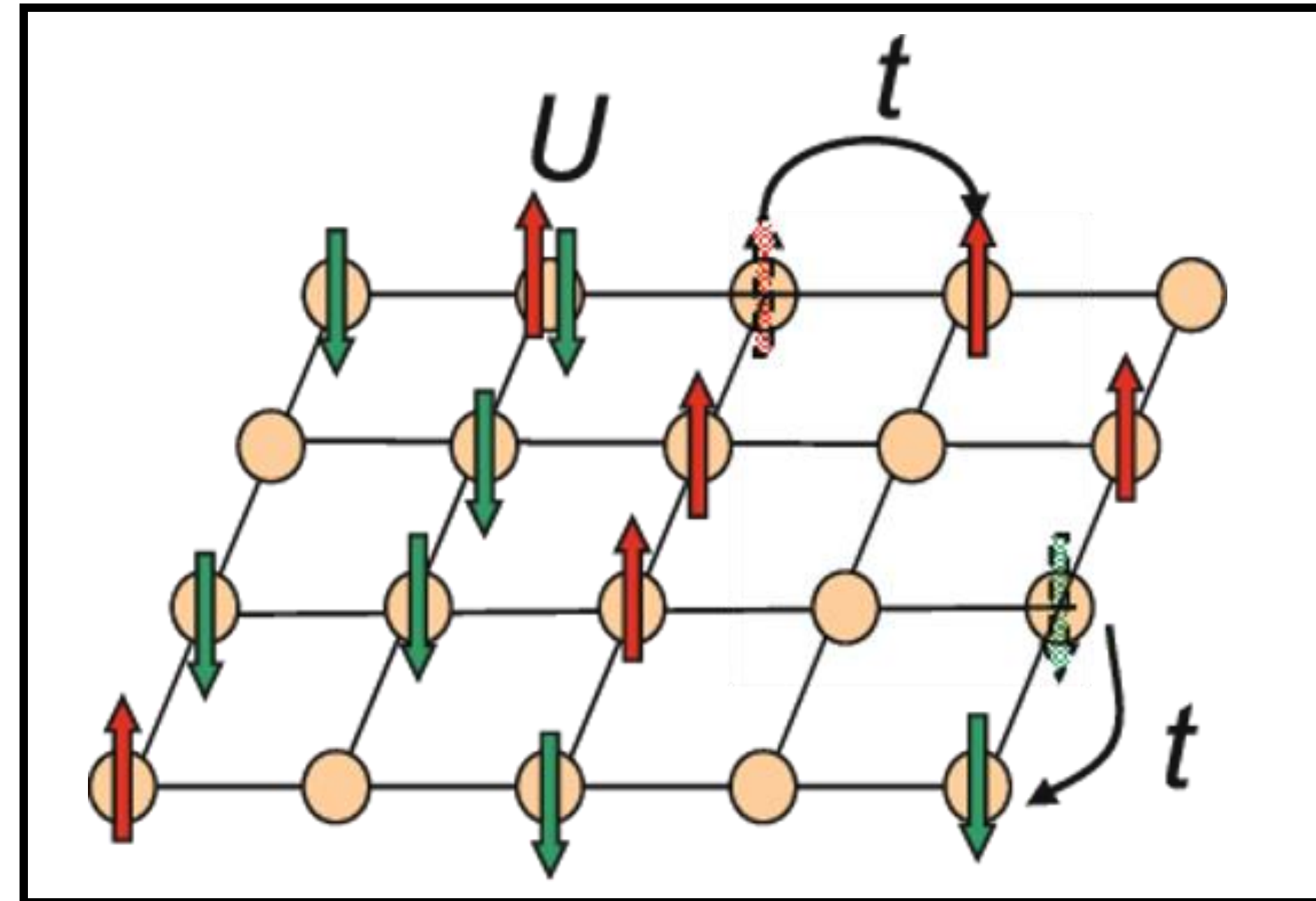


Susumu Yamada, et. al. *High Performance LOBPCG Method for Solving Multiple Eigenvalues of Hubbard Model: Efficiency of Communication Avoiding Neumann Expansion*

Quantum Simulation

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} H_{00} & H_{01} & \cdot & H_{0N} \\ H_{10} & H_{11} & \dots & H_{1N} \\ \vdots & \cdot & \vdots & \vdots \\ H_{N0} & H_{N1} & \cdot & H_{NN} \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenstate solvers



Susumu Yamada, et. al. *High Performance LOBPCG Method for Solving Multiple Eigenvalues of Hubbard Model: Efficiency of Communication Avoiding Neumann Expansion*

Quantum Simulation

Used to understand how quantum systems respond or change with time

Quantum Dynamics

Quantum Simulation

Used to understand how quantum systems respond or change with time

$$i\hbar \frac{d|\psi\rangle}{dt} = H|\psi\rangle$$

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = e^{-iHt}|\psi(0)\rangle$$

Quantum Dynamics

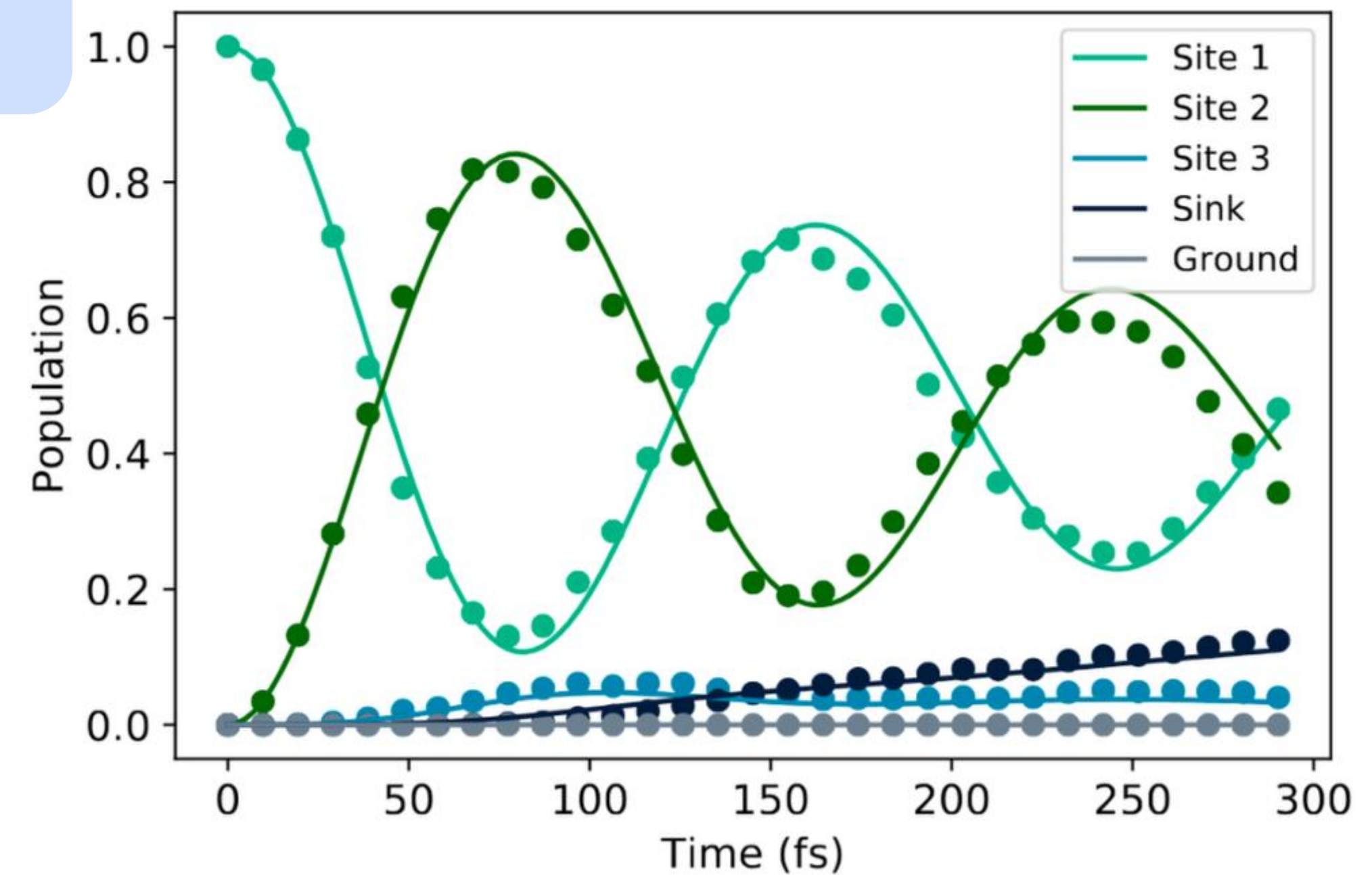
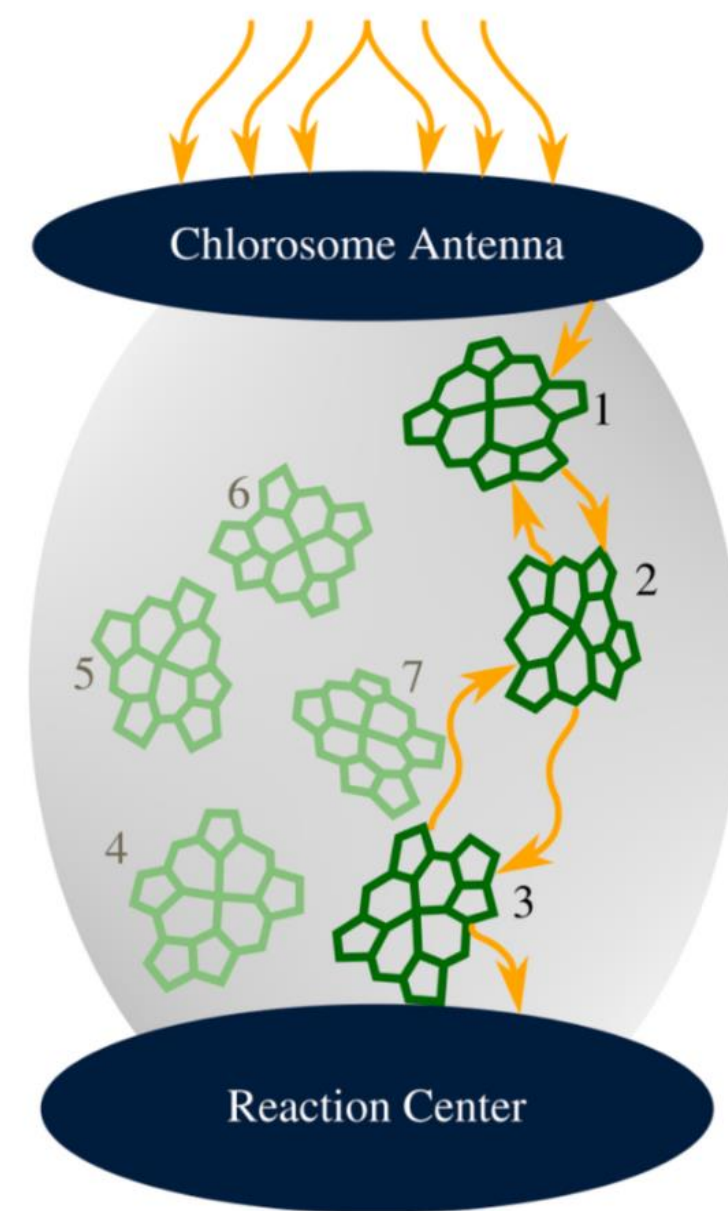
Quantum Simulation

Used to understand how quantum systems respond or change with time

$$i\hbar \frac{d|\psi\rangle}{dt} = H|\psi\rangle$$

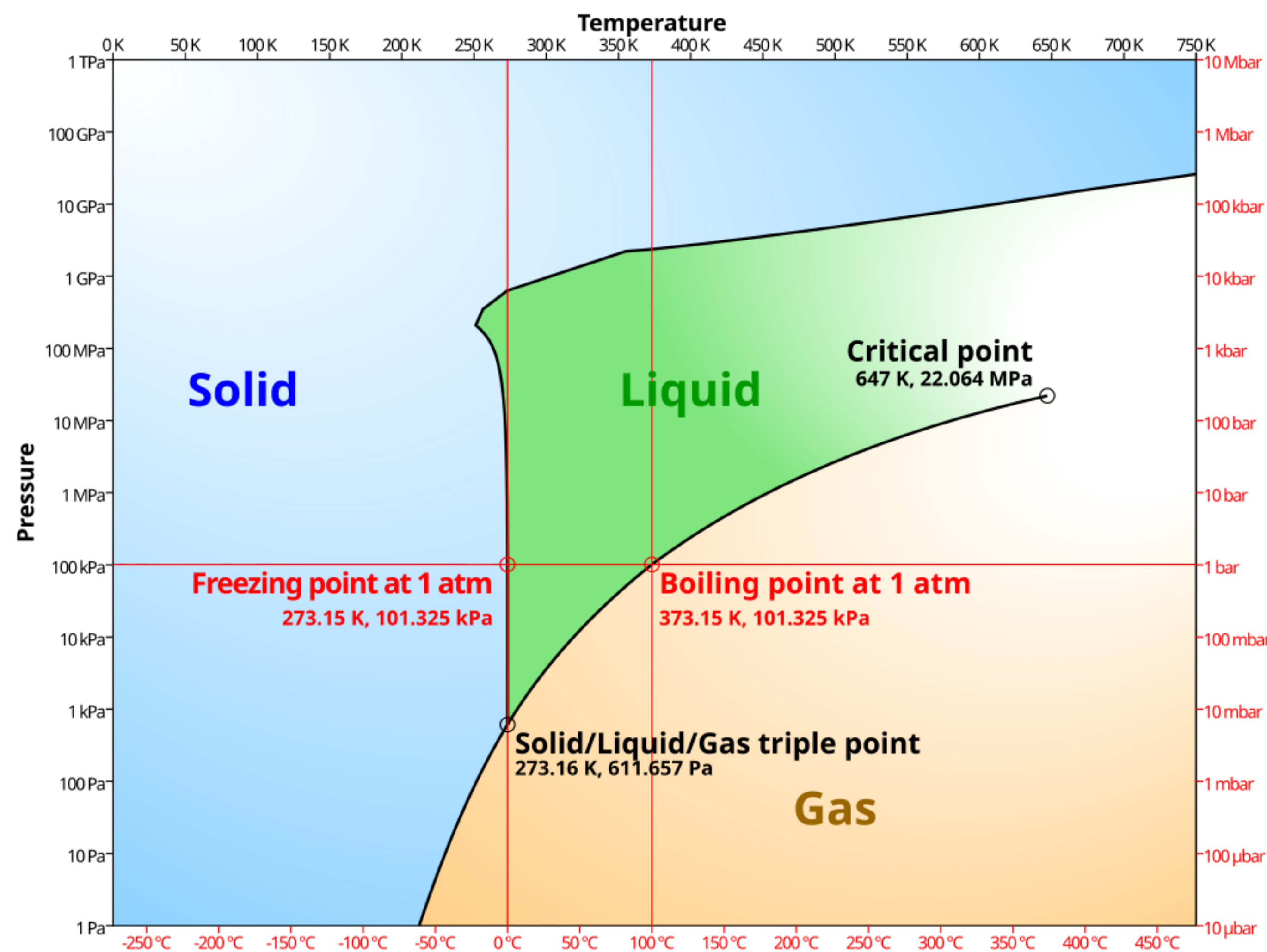
$$|\psi(t)\rangle = e^{-iHt}|\psi(0)\rangle$$

Quantum Dynamics



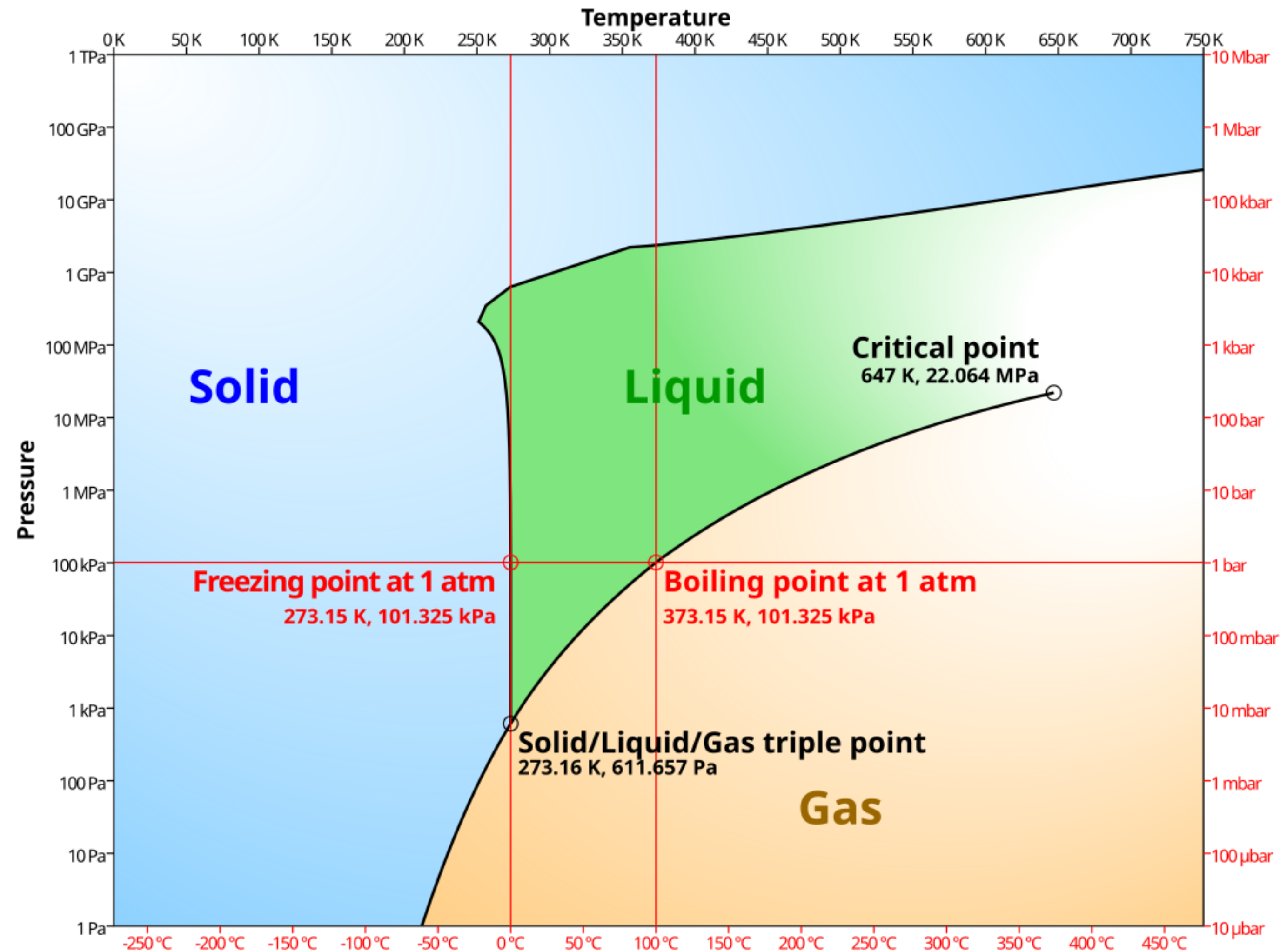
Quantum 6, 726 (2022)

Quantum Simulation



Phase Transitions

Quantum Simulation



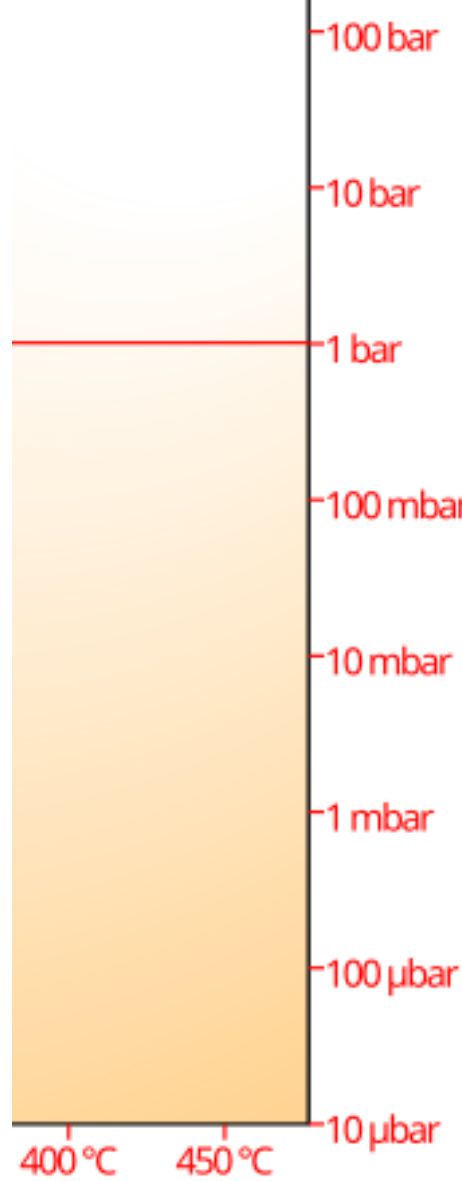
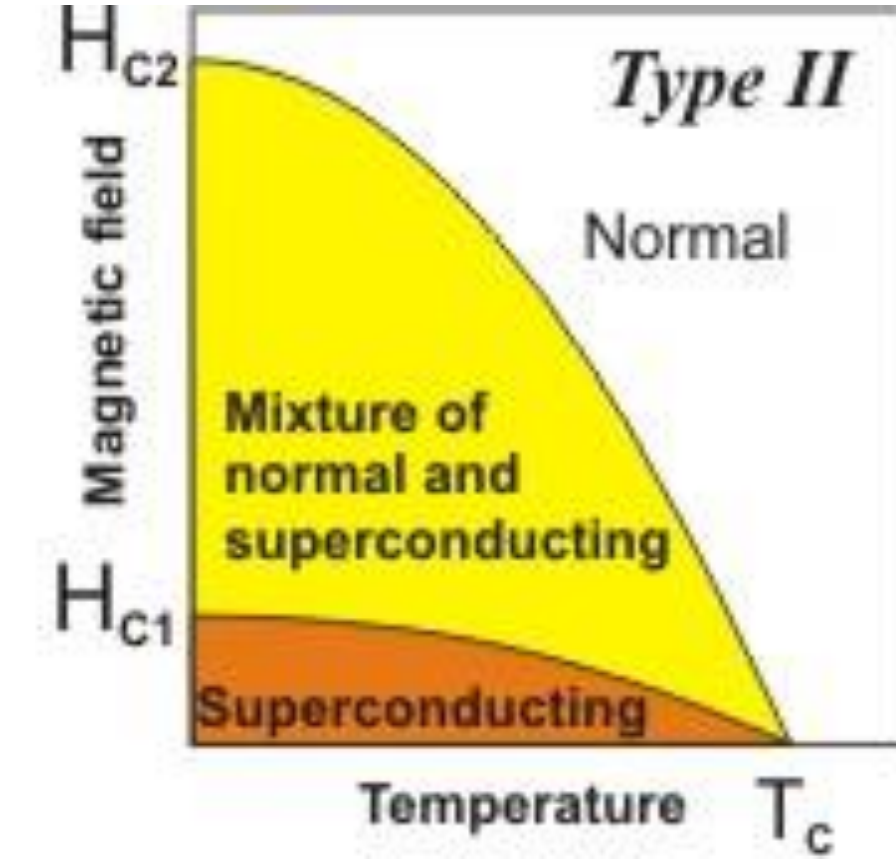
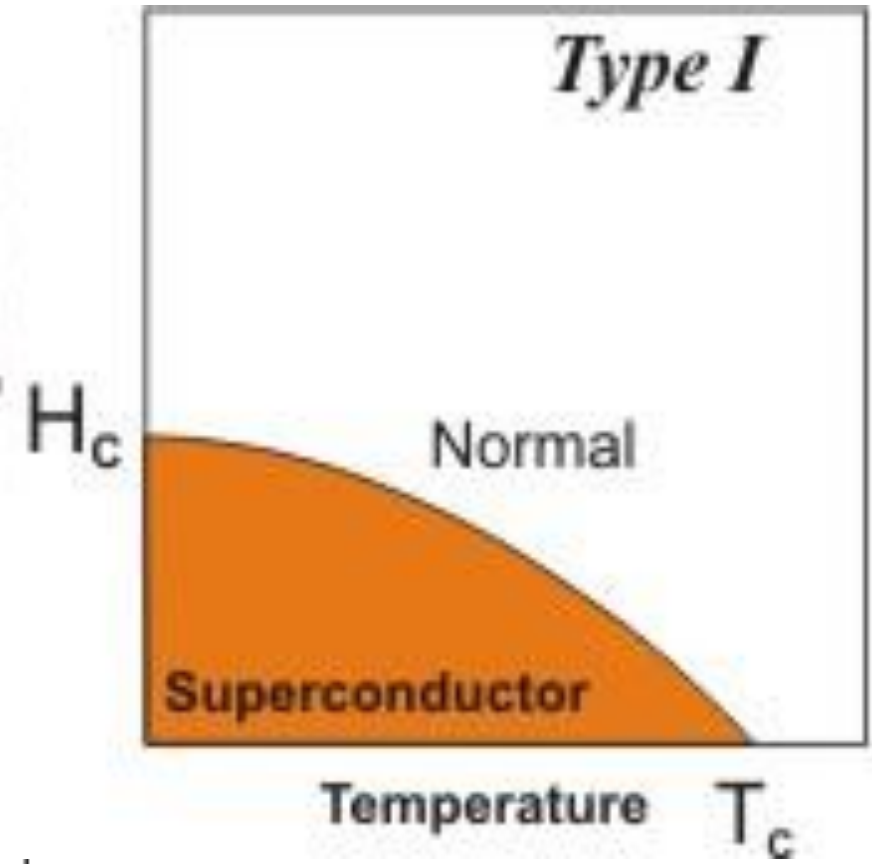
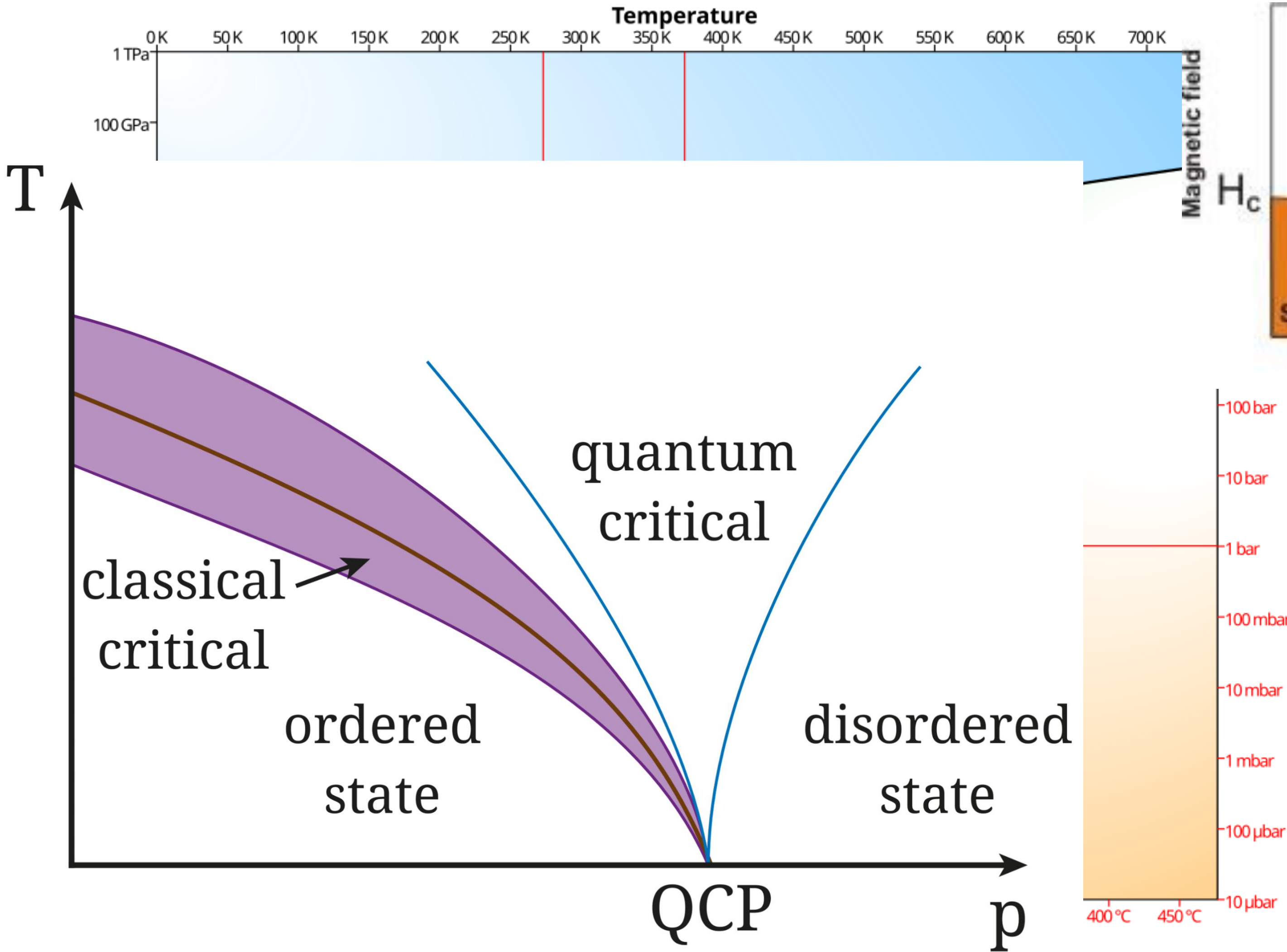
Unlike classical phase transitions, *quantum phase* transitions describe abrupt changes in the ground state of a system.

Typically induced by varying a magnetic field, temperature, or some other *order parameter*

Phase Transitions

Quantum Simulation

Phase transition from conductor to superconductor



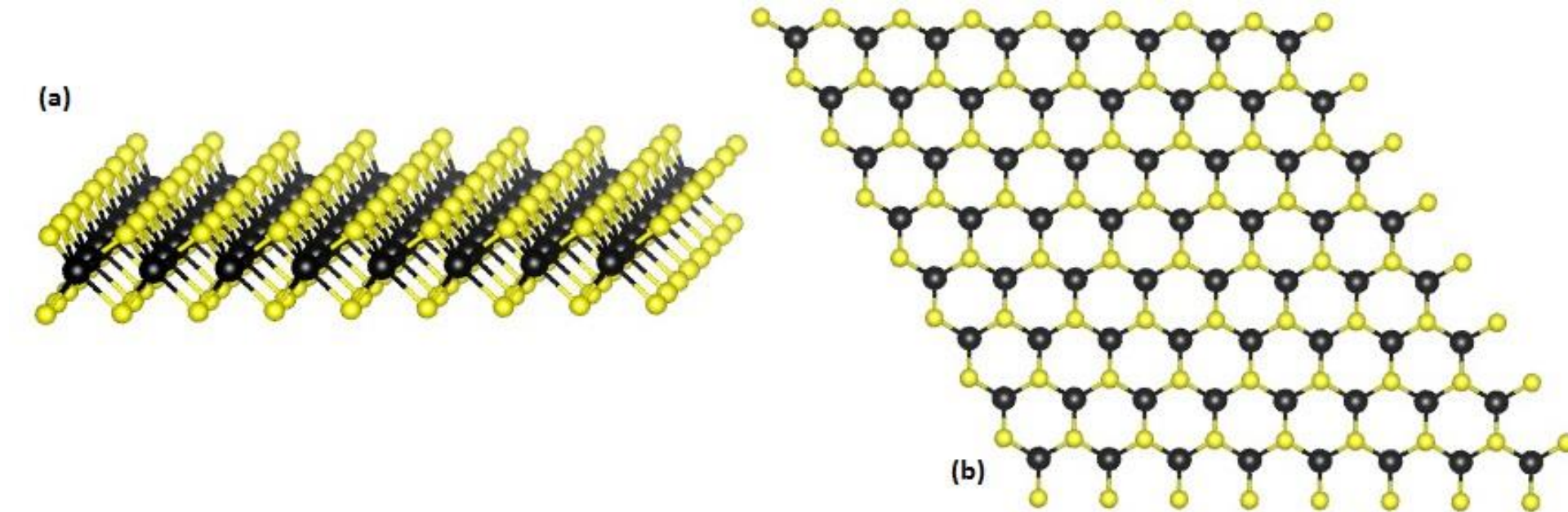
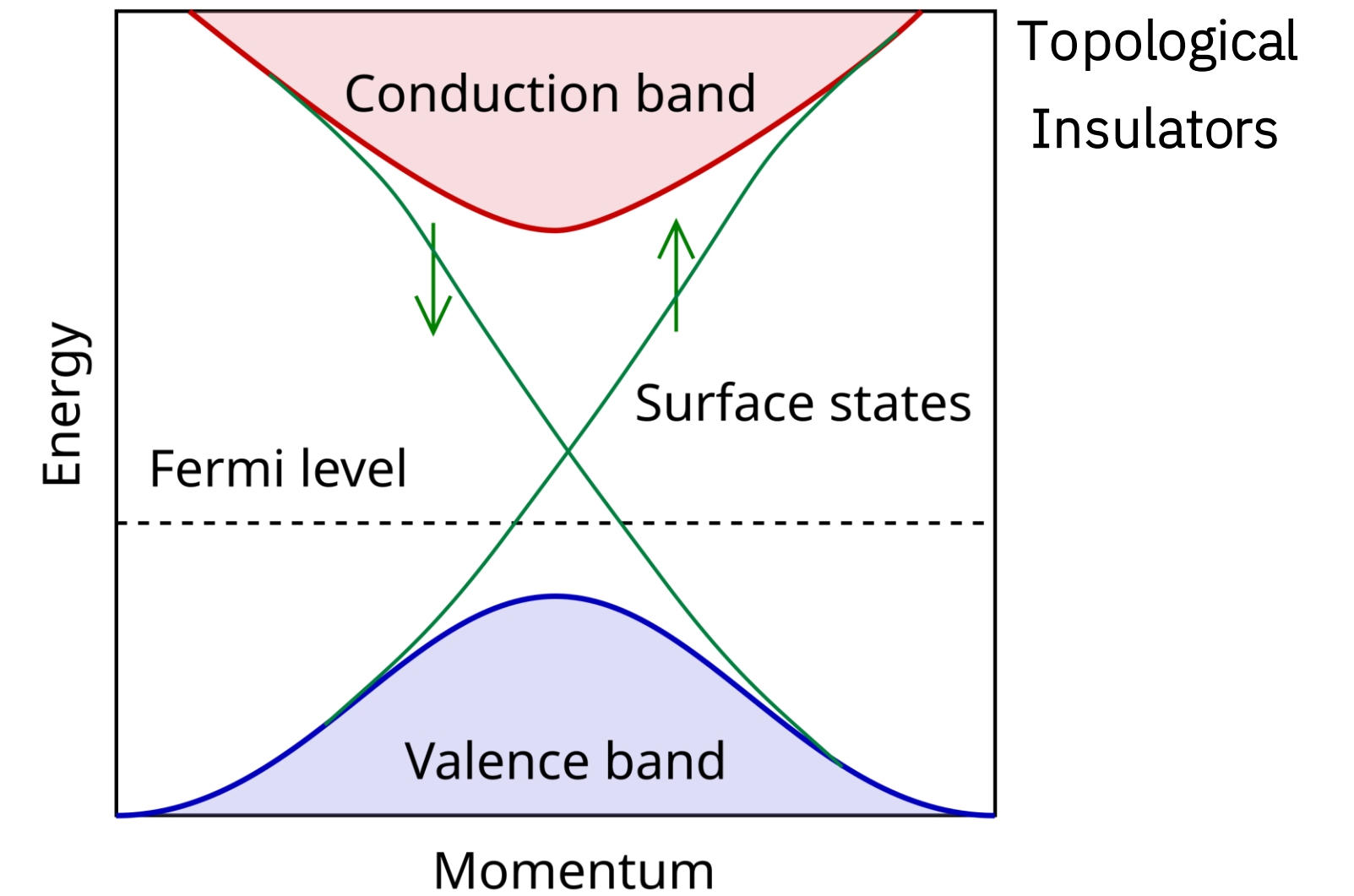
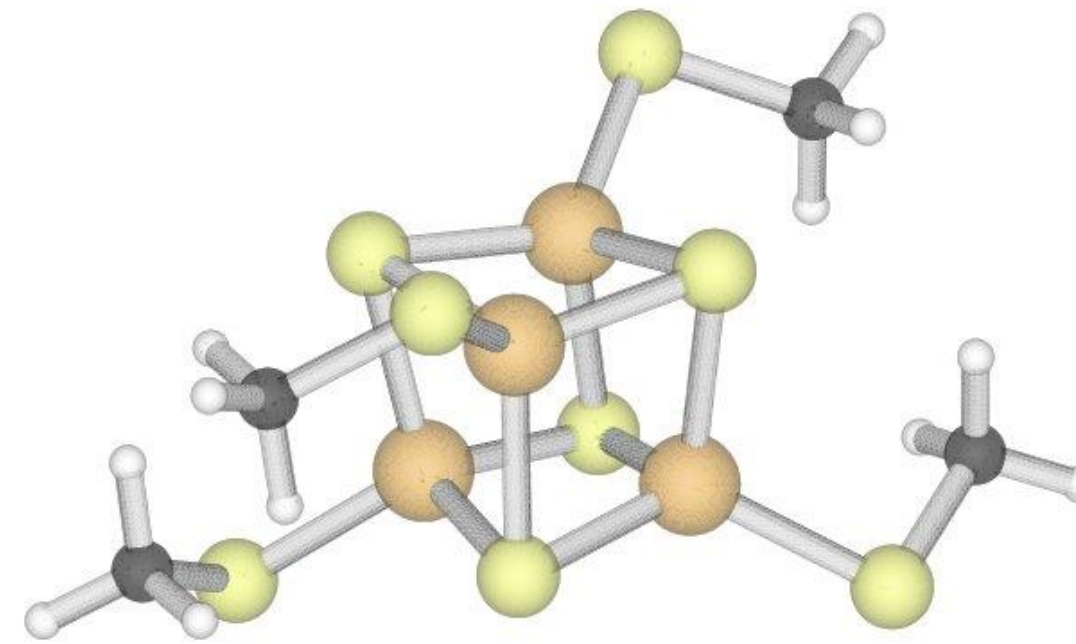
Phase Transitions

Classical Approaches

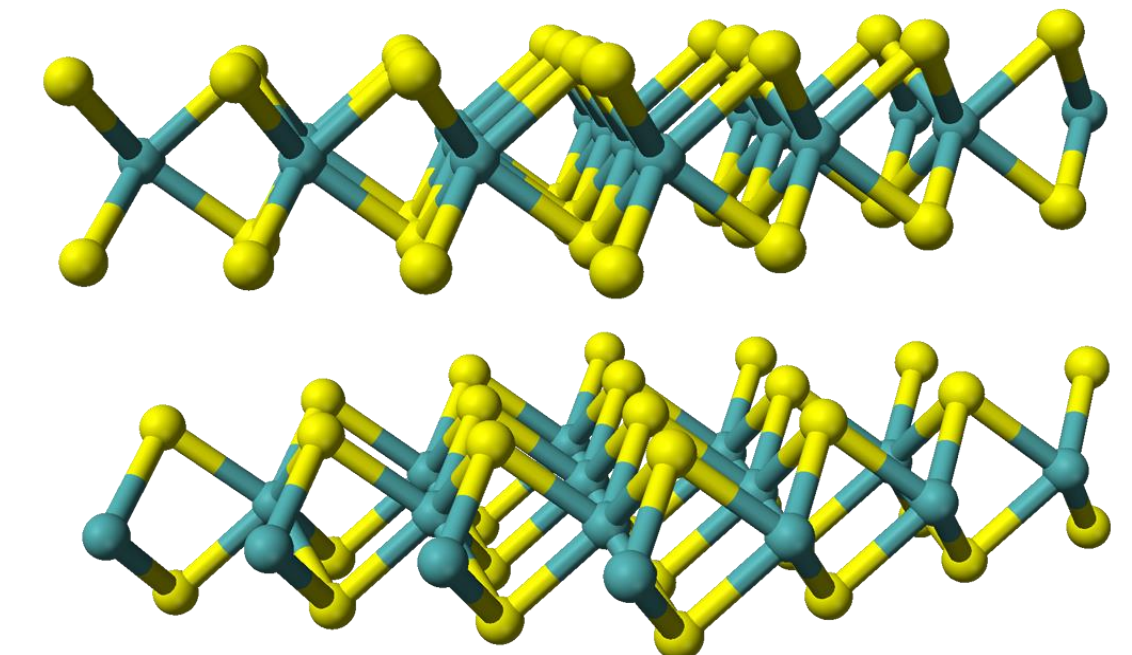
Classical Approaches to Quantum Simulation

Most classical approaches to quantum simulation involve tradeoffs

So we make useful approximations!



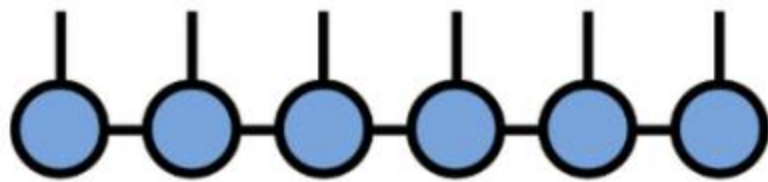
MoS2



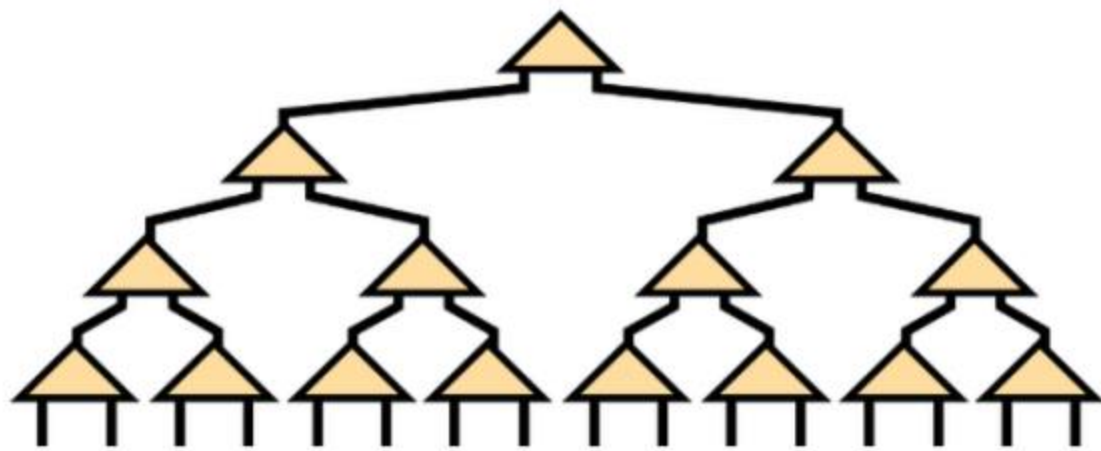
Classical Approaches to Quantum Simulation

Tensor networks

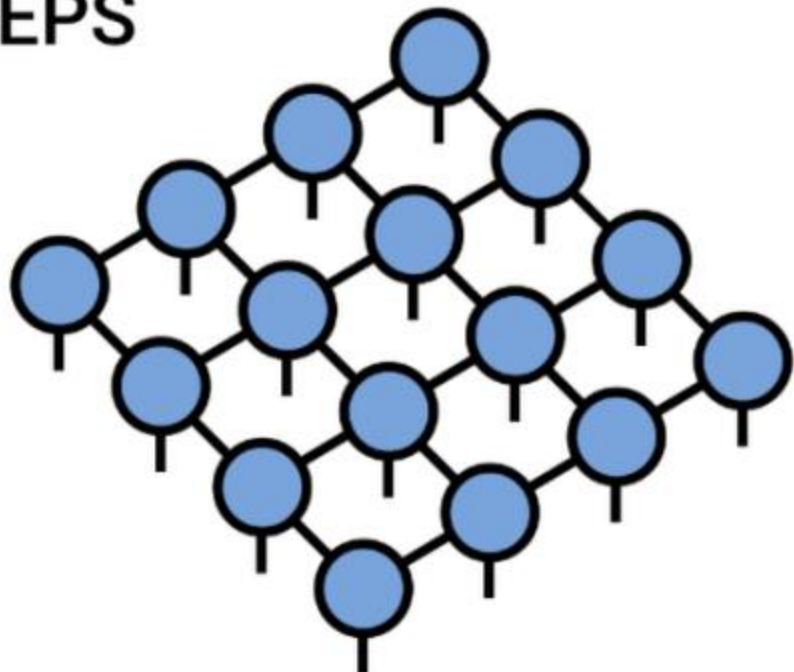
Matrix Product State /
Tensor Train



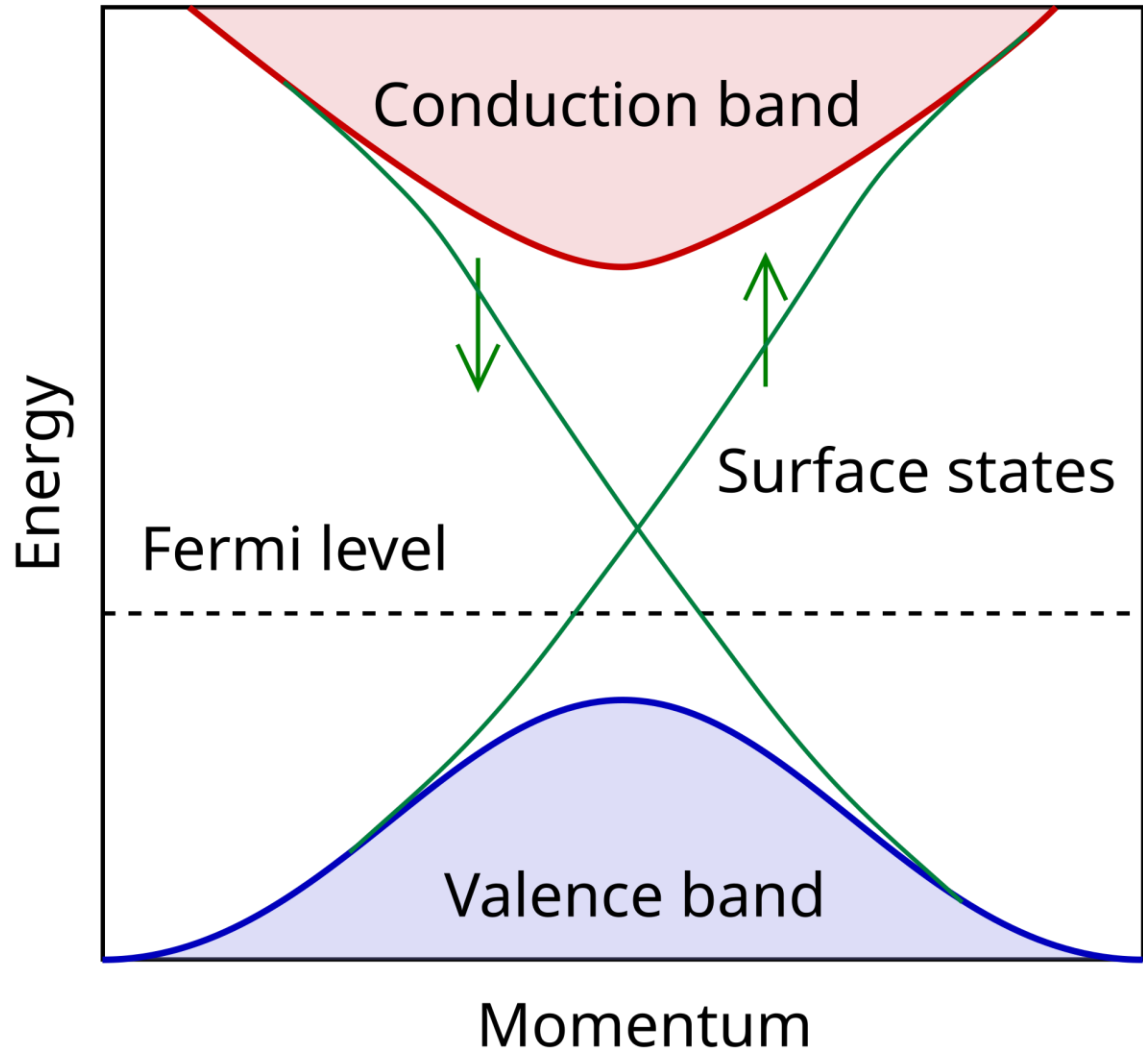
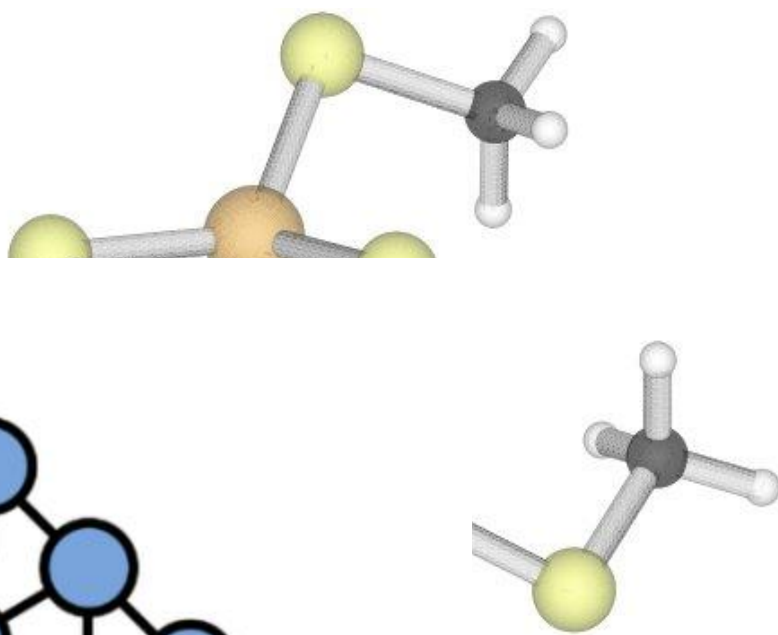
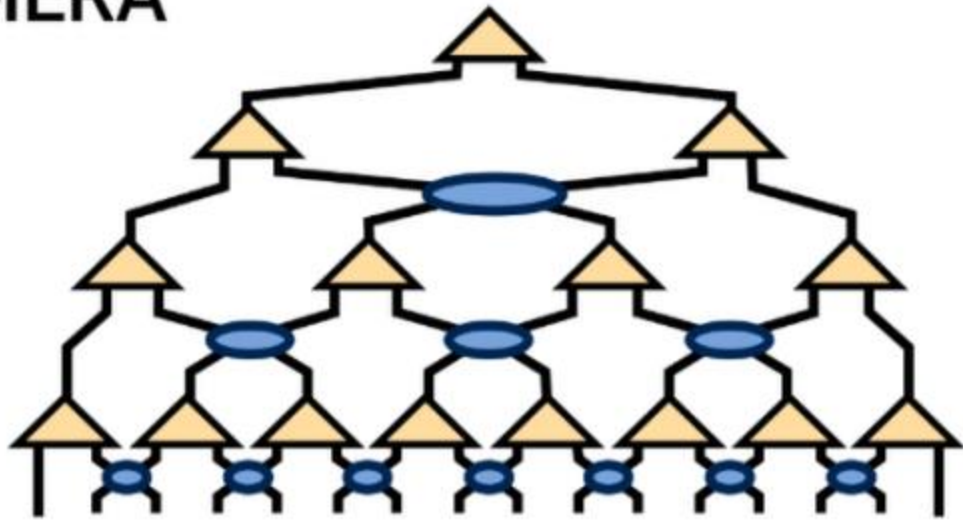
Tree Tensor Network /
Hierarchical Tucker



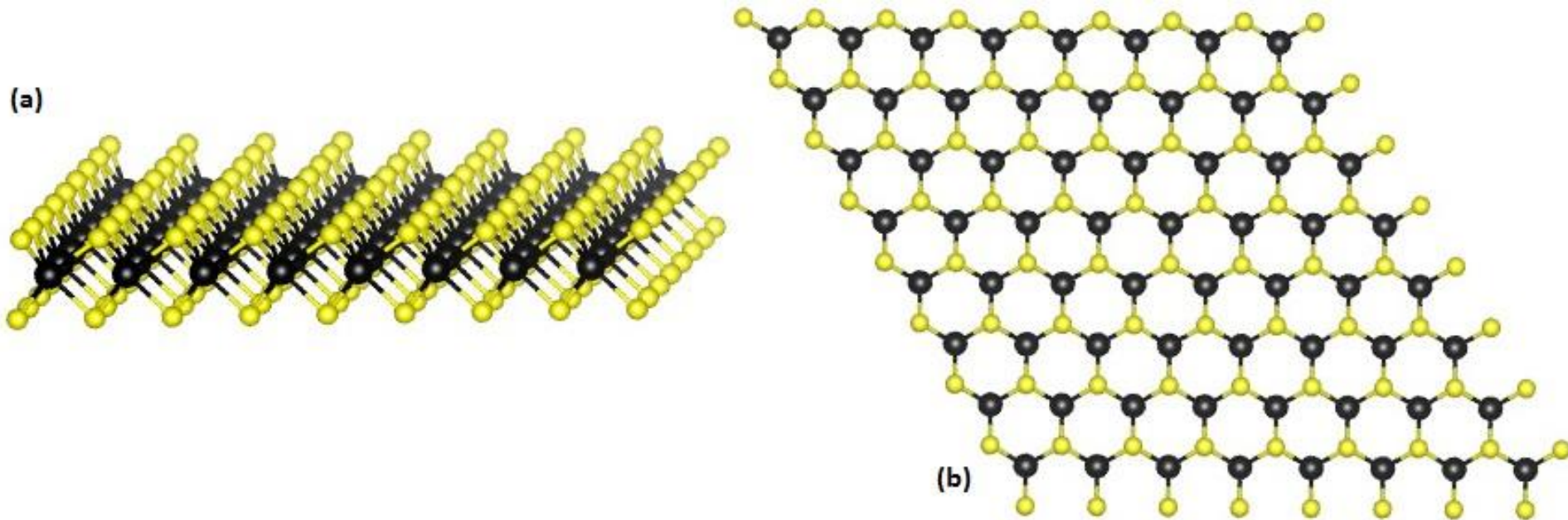
PEPS



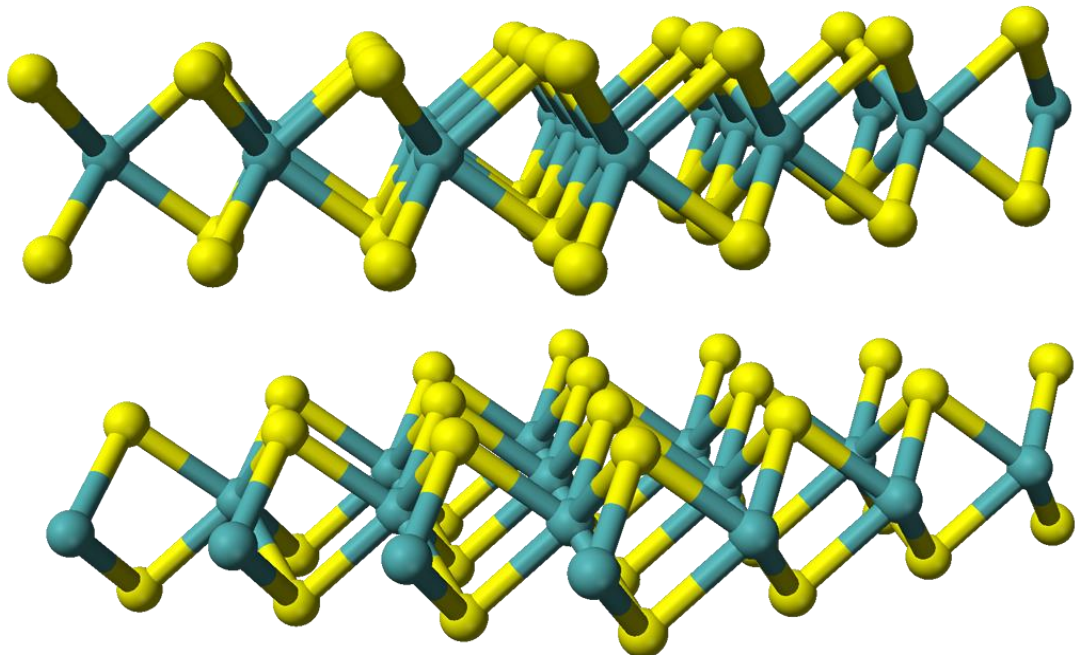
MERA



Topological
Insulators

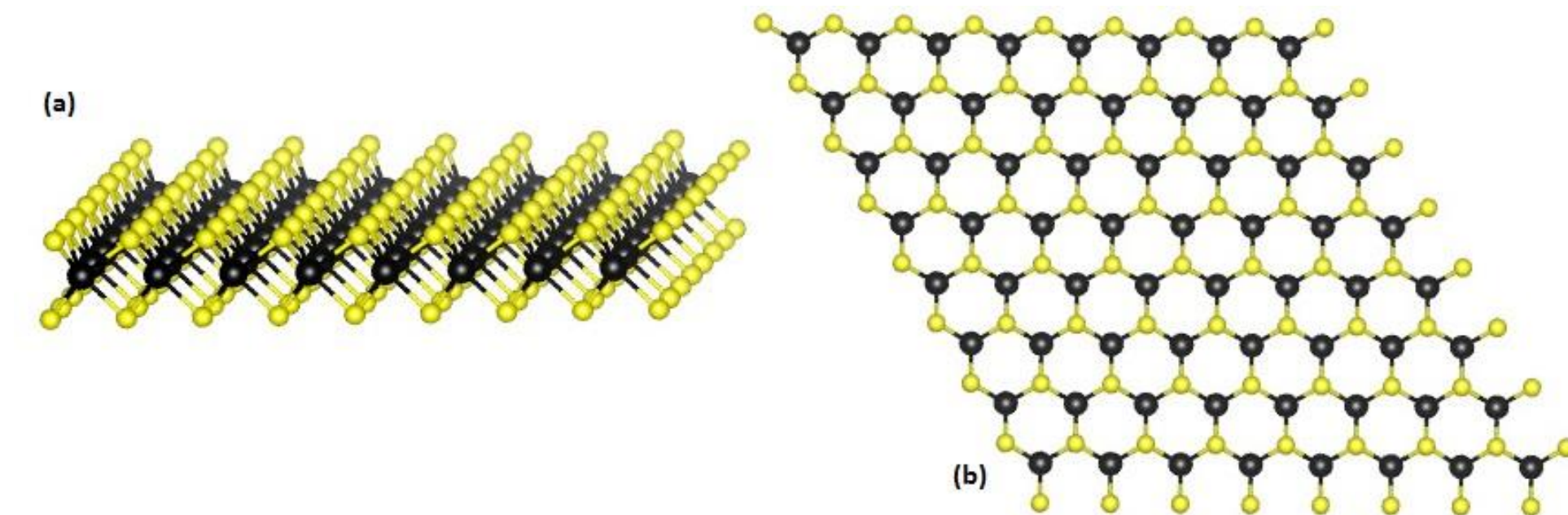
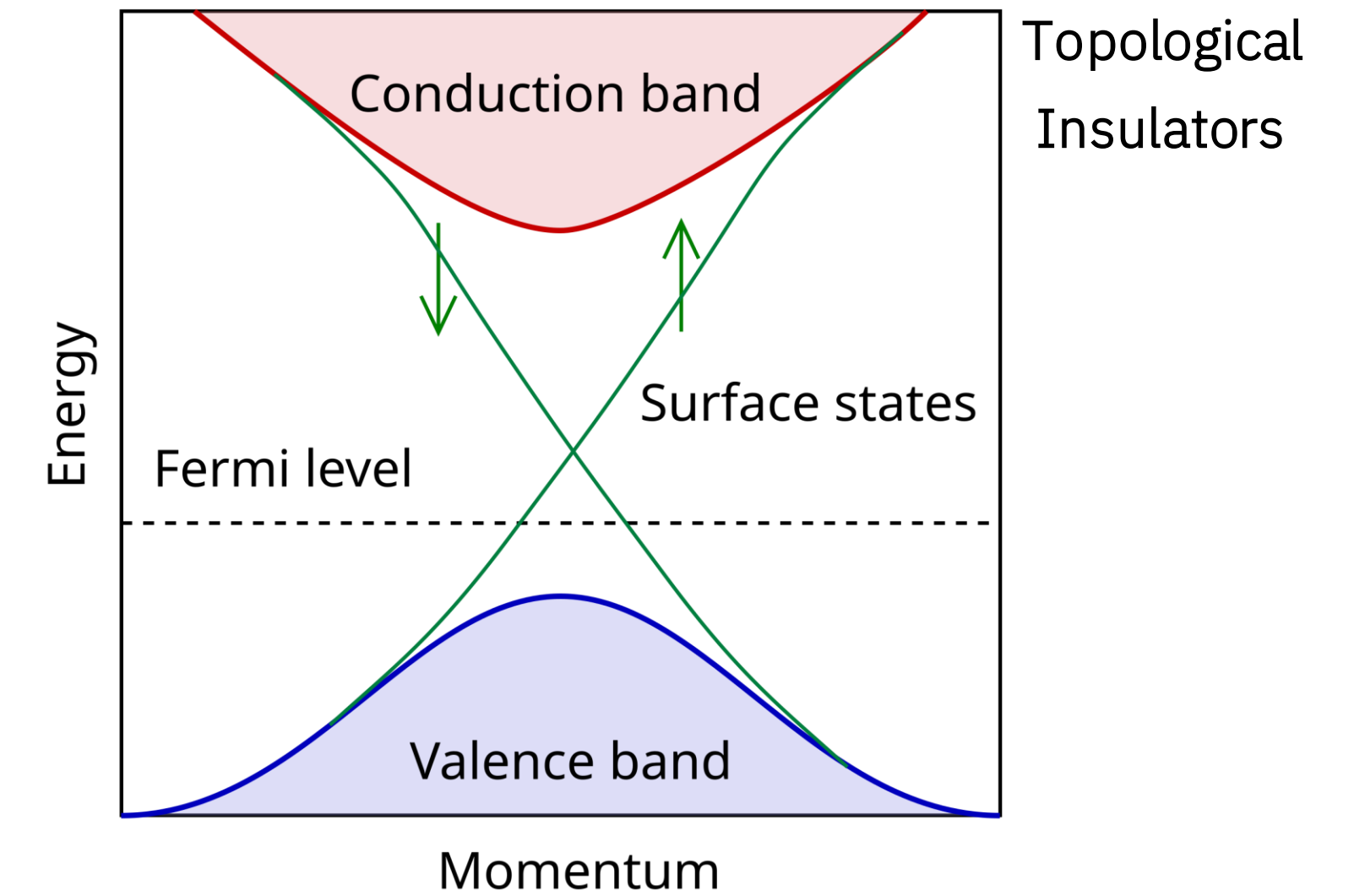
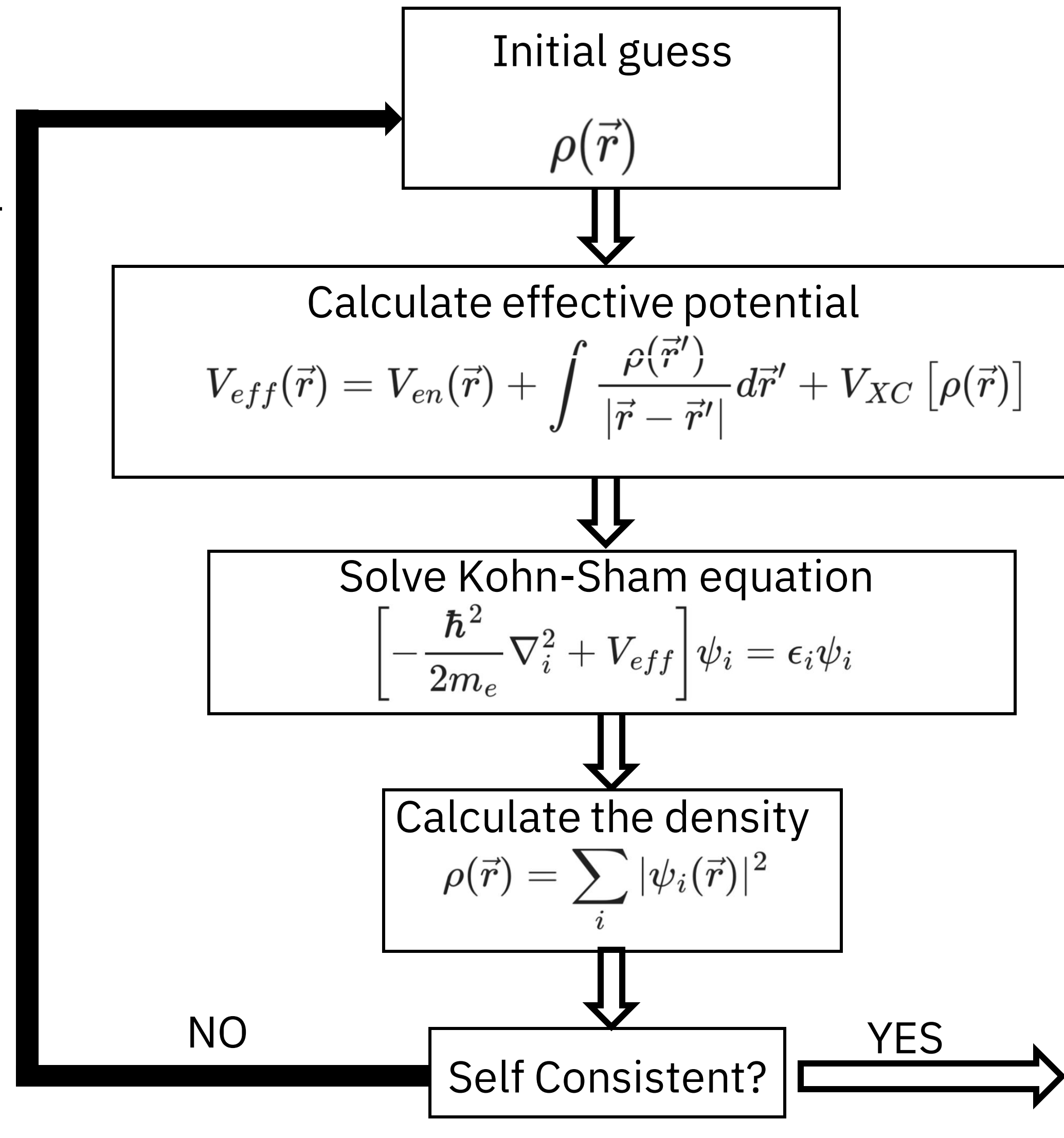


MoS2

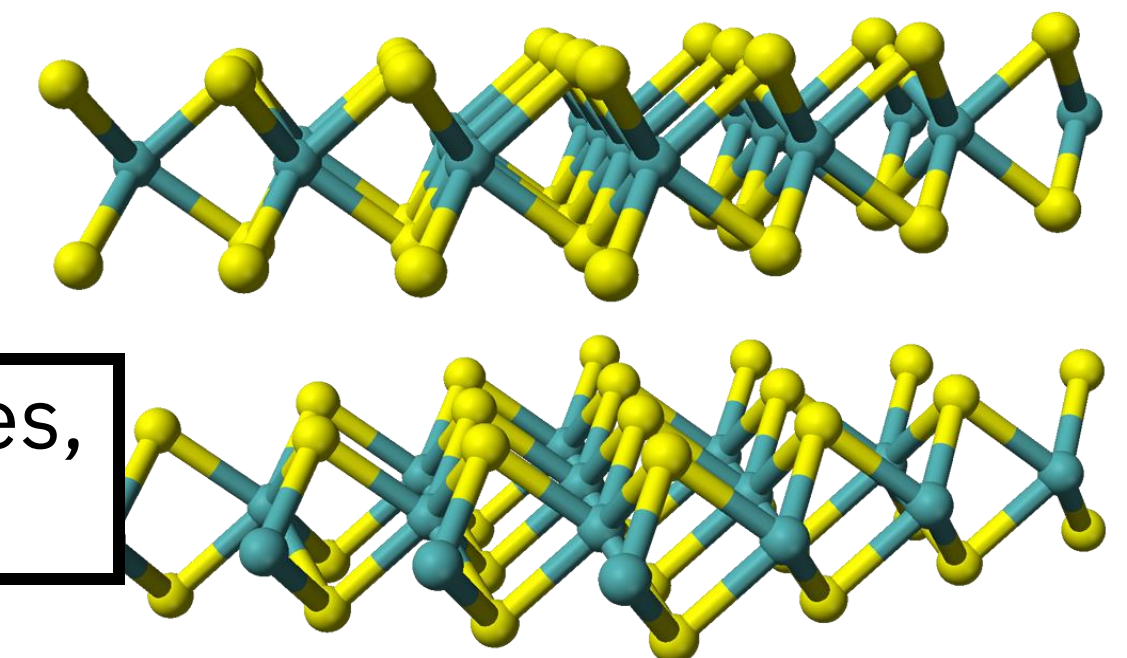


Classical Approaches to Quantum Simulation

Density Functional Theory



MoS2



Simulating Quantum Systems

Anatomy of a Quantum Simulation Algorithm

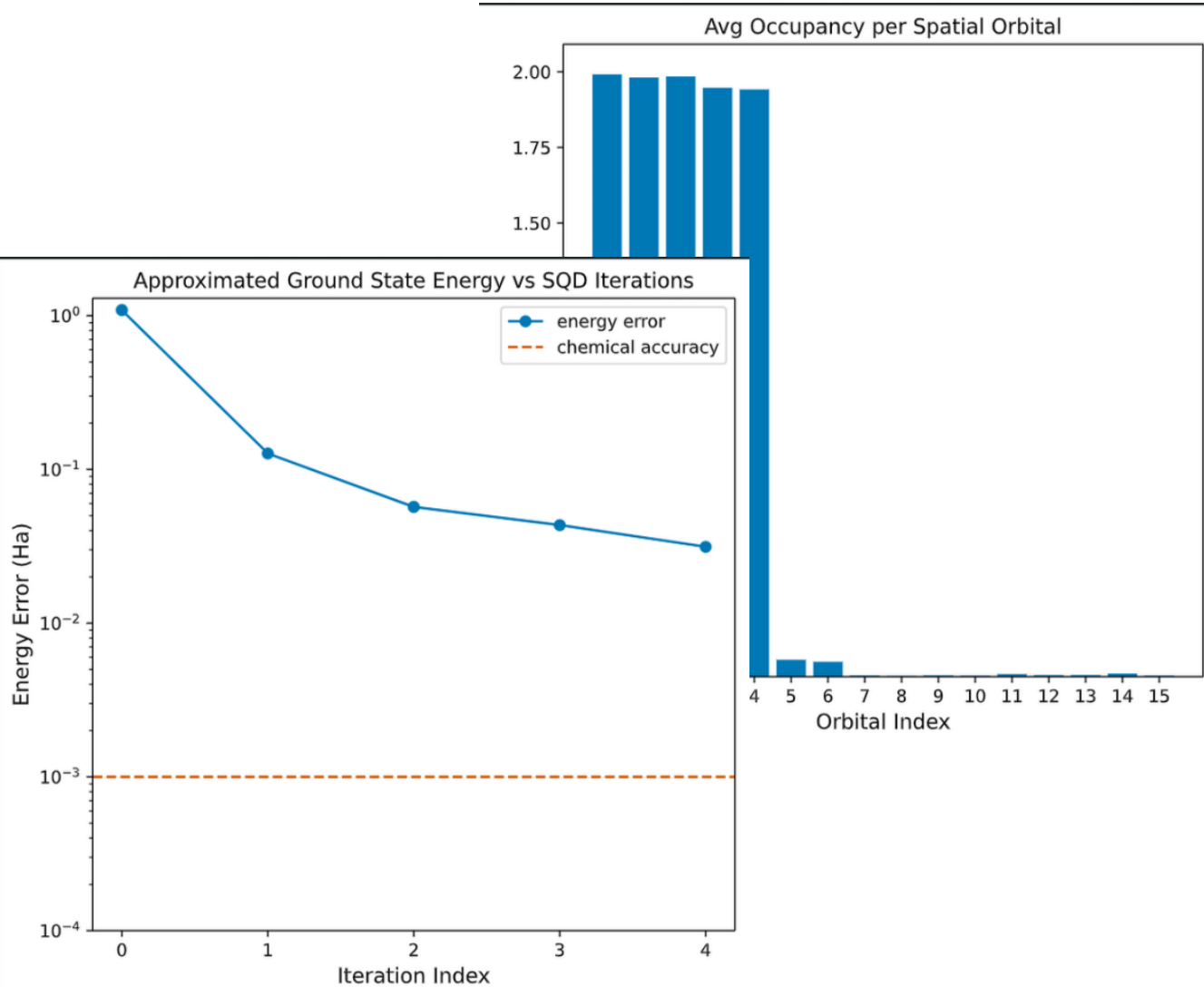
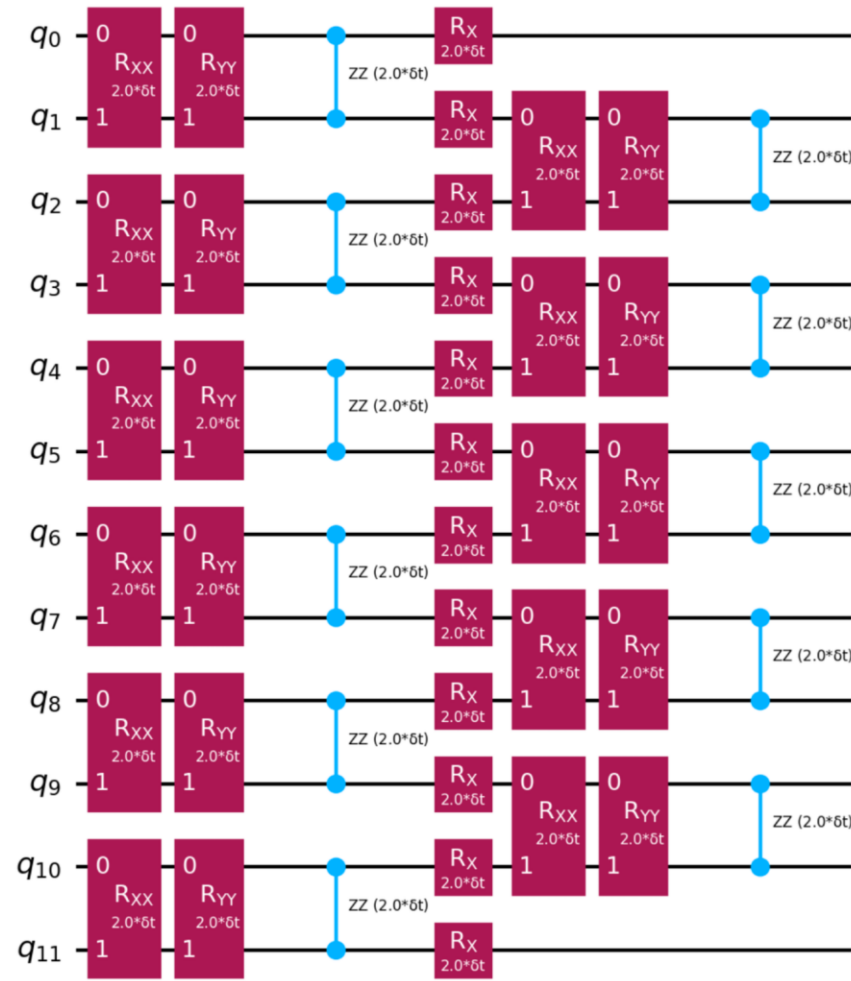
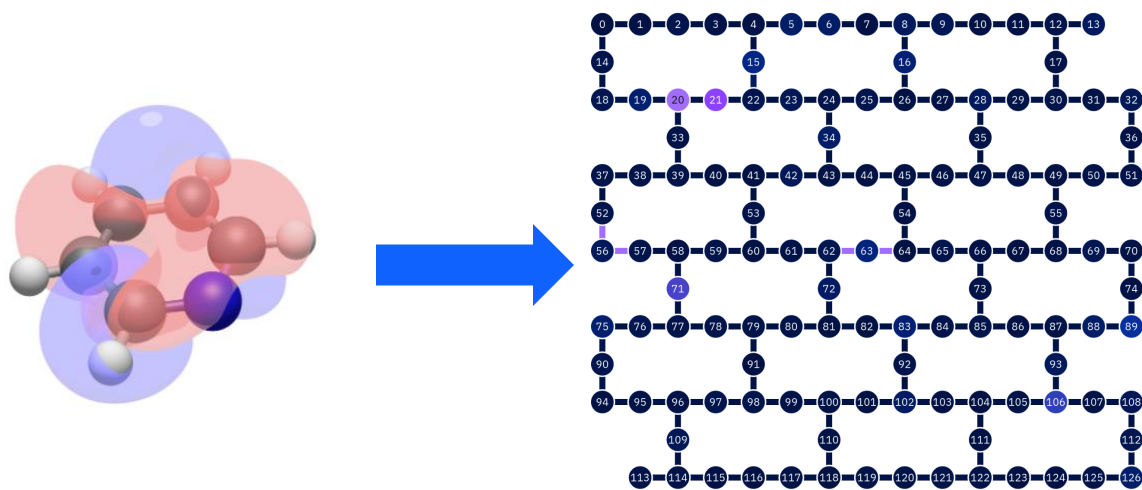
Choose a quantum system to simulate/characterize.
Determine attributes such as the Hamiltonian and any important observables to measure.

Map the Hamiltonian, and the chosen set of basis vectors to a quantum computing environment. This includes rewriting the Hamiltonian in terms of Pauli operators, as well as mapping the states to the computational basis.

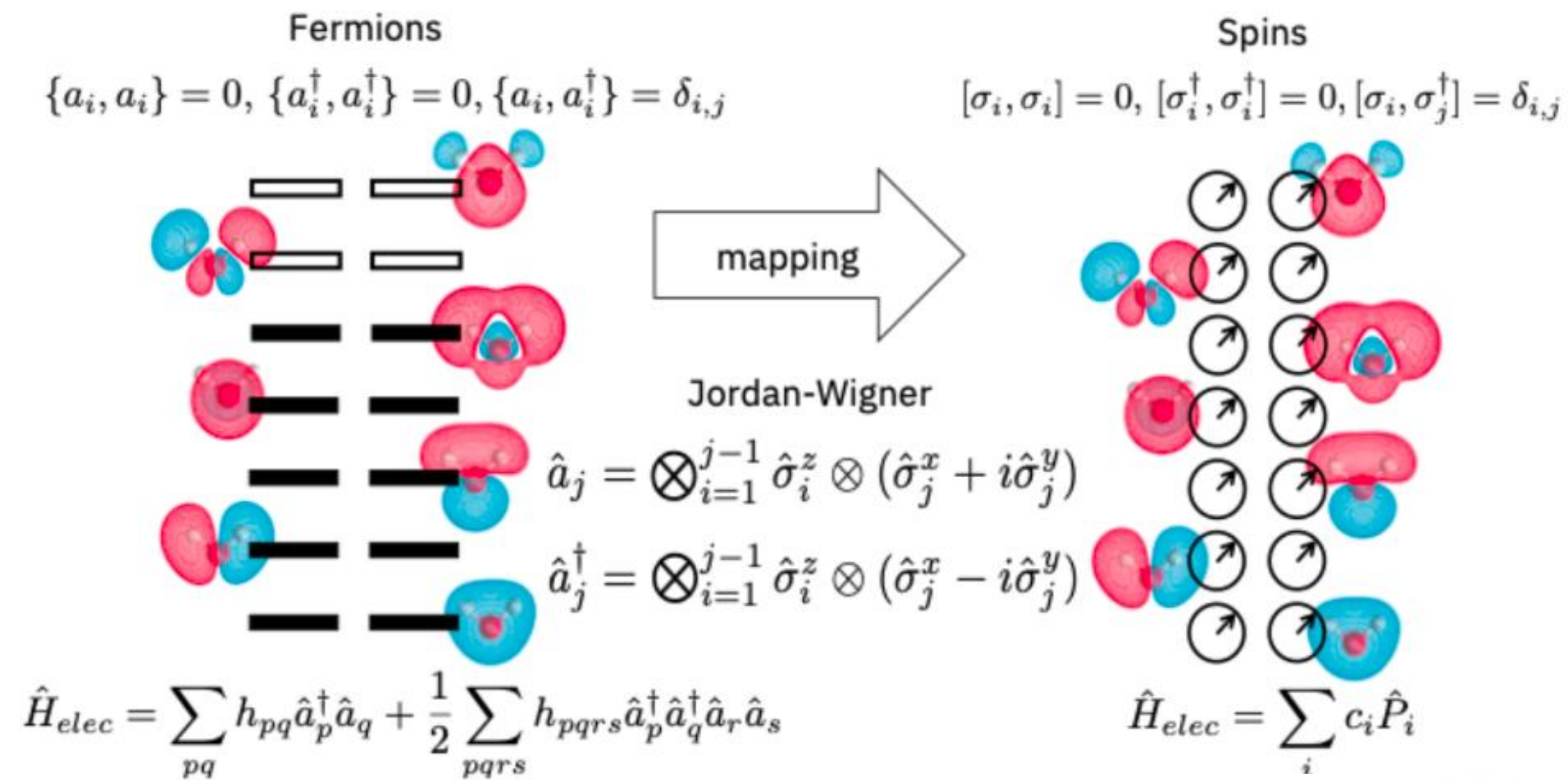
Prepare the quantum circuits which will be used for the simulation. This might include choosing an ansatz or creating a time evolution circuit.

Once the experiments have completed, run any necessary post-processing for error mitigation or analysis of raw data.

$$H = \sum_i H_i$$



Mapping a problem to QPUs

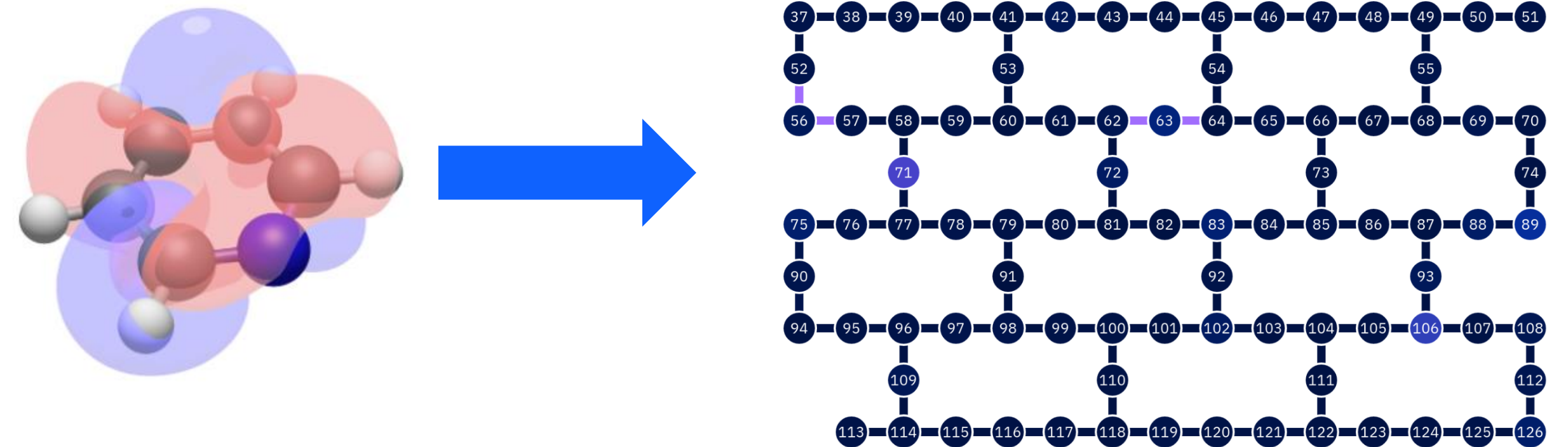


Carefully consider the arrangement of fermionic modes

$$\hat{a}_j = \bigotimes_{i=1}^{j-1} \hat{\sigma}_i^z \otimes (\hat{\sigma}_j^x + i\hat{\sigma}_j^y)$$

$$\hat{a}_j^\dagger = \bigotimes_{i=1}^{j-1} \hat{\sigma}_i^z \otimes (\hat{\sigma}_j^x - i\hat{\sigma}_j^y)$$

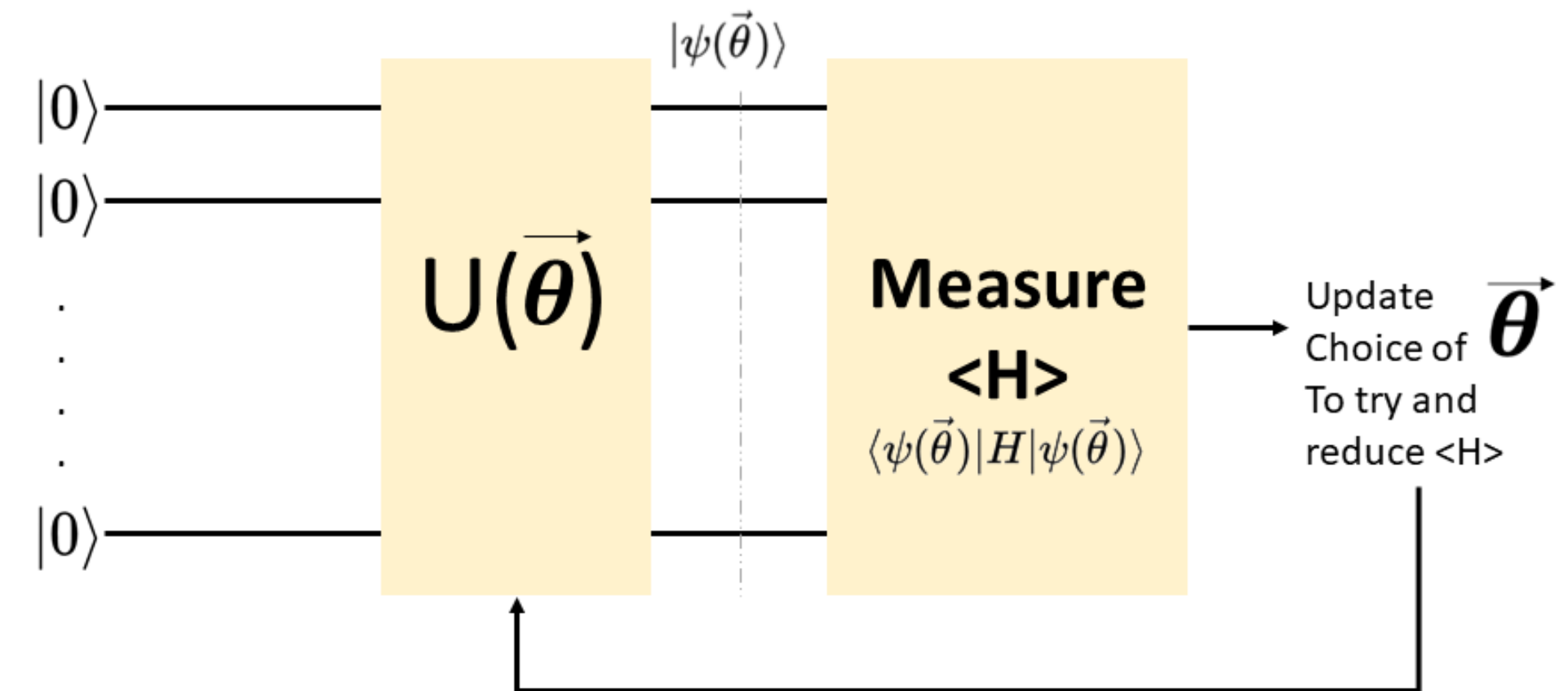
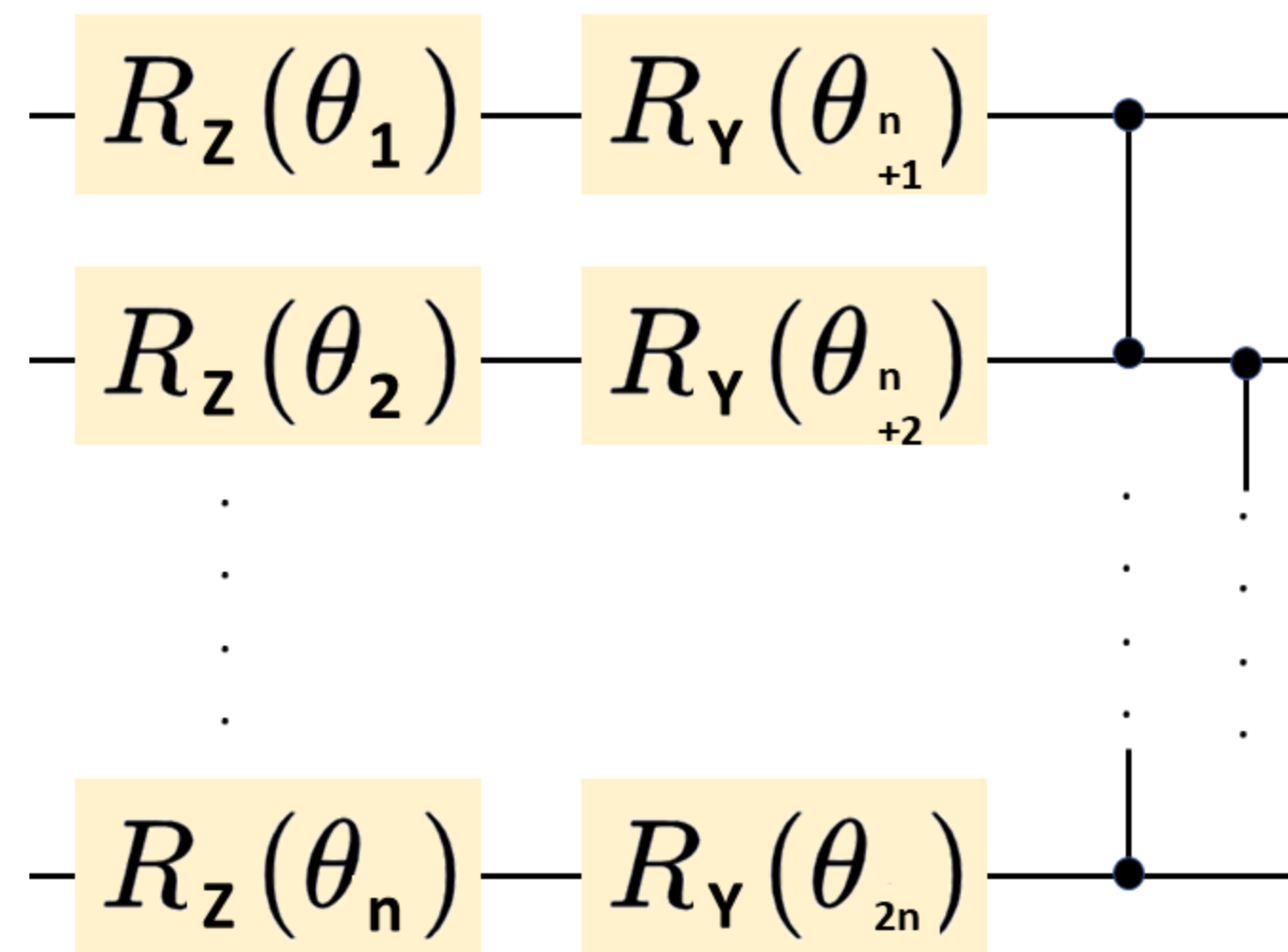
Most common is the Jordan-Wigner transform, but there are many others.



Simulating Quantum Systems

Variational Quantum Eigensolver (VQE)

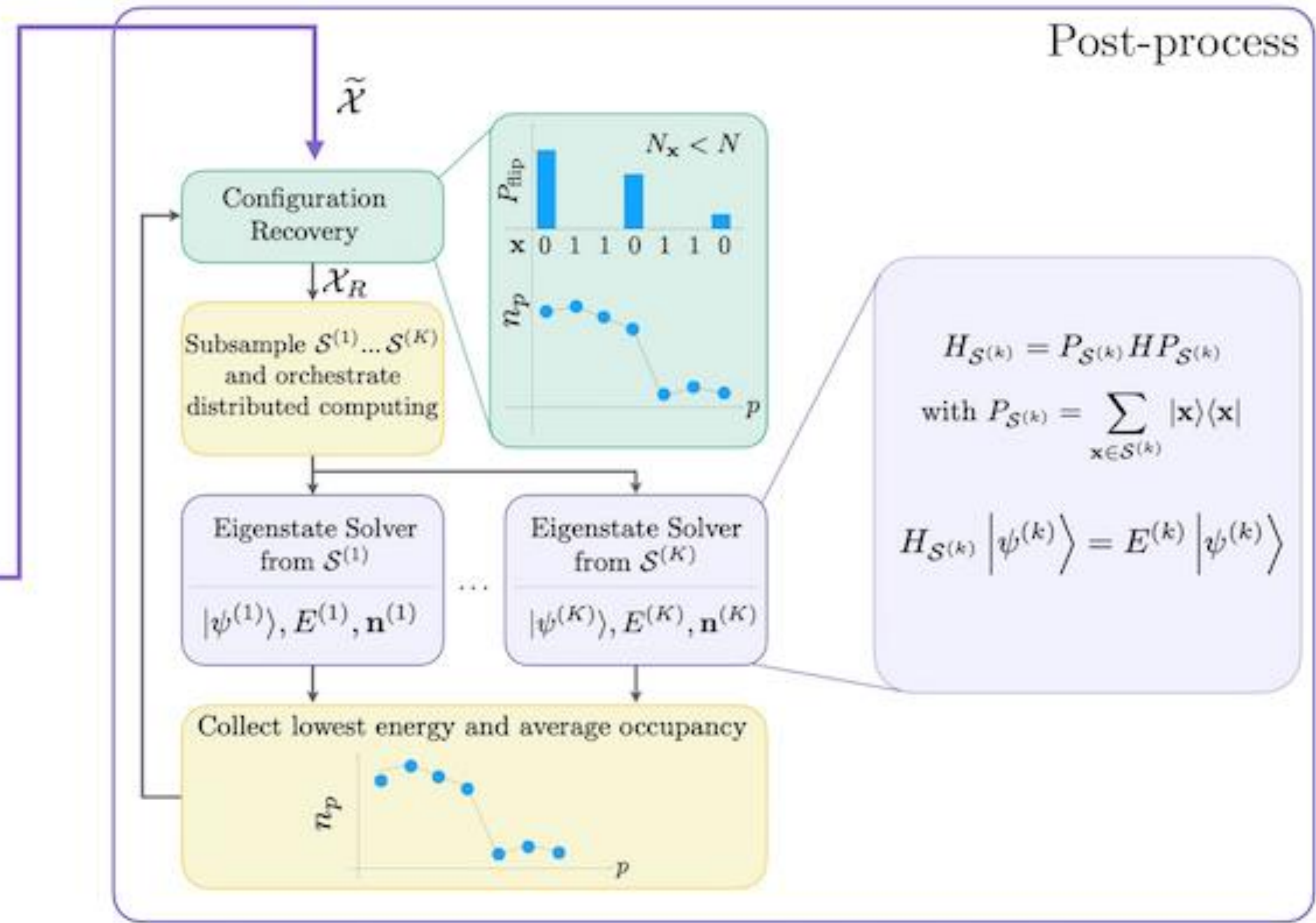
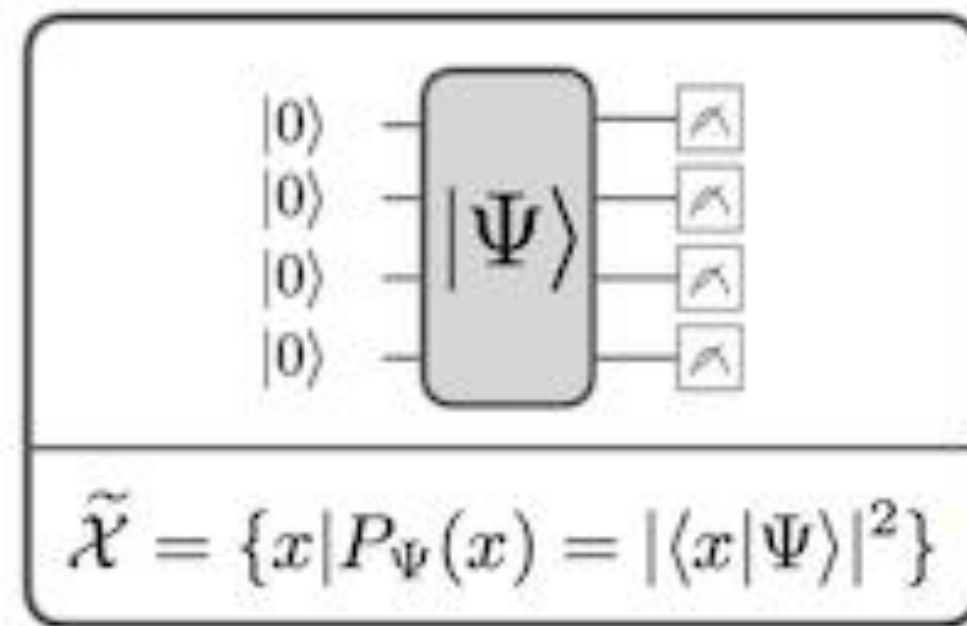
$$U(\theta)|\psi_0\rangle = |\psi(\theta)\rangle$$



$$\lambda_{min} \leq \lambda_{\theta} \equiv \langle \psi(\theta) | H | \psi(\theta) \rangle$$

Simulating Quantum Systems

Sample-based Quantum Diagonalization



Simulating Quantum Systems

Approximating time evolution

Goal is to implement:

$$U(t) = e^{-iHt}$$

$$H = \sum_i H_i$$

However, things are complicated if not all terms in the Hamiltonian commute:

$$e^{-iHt} \neq \prod_i e^{-iH_i t}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(e^{iAt/n} e^{iBt/n} \right)^n = e^{i(A+B)t}$$

Trotter approximation

$$e^{i(A+B)\Delta t} = e^{iA\Delta t} e^{iB\Delta t} + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2)$$

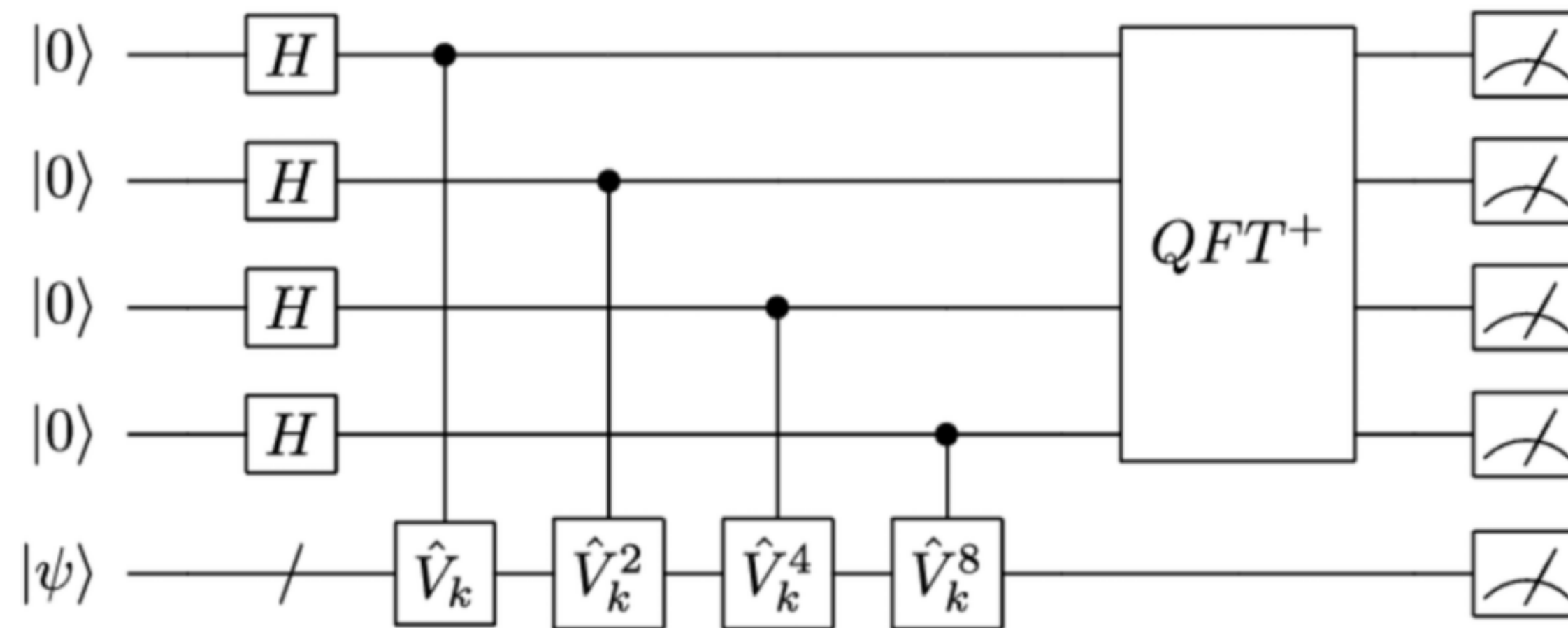
Trotter-Suzuki approximation

$$e^{i(A+B)\Delta t} = e^{iA\Delta t/2} e^{iB\Delta t} e^{iA\Delta t/2} + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^3)$$

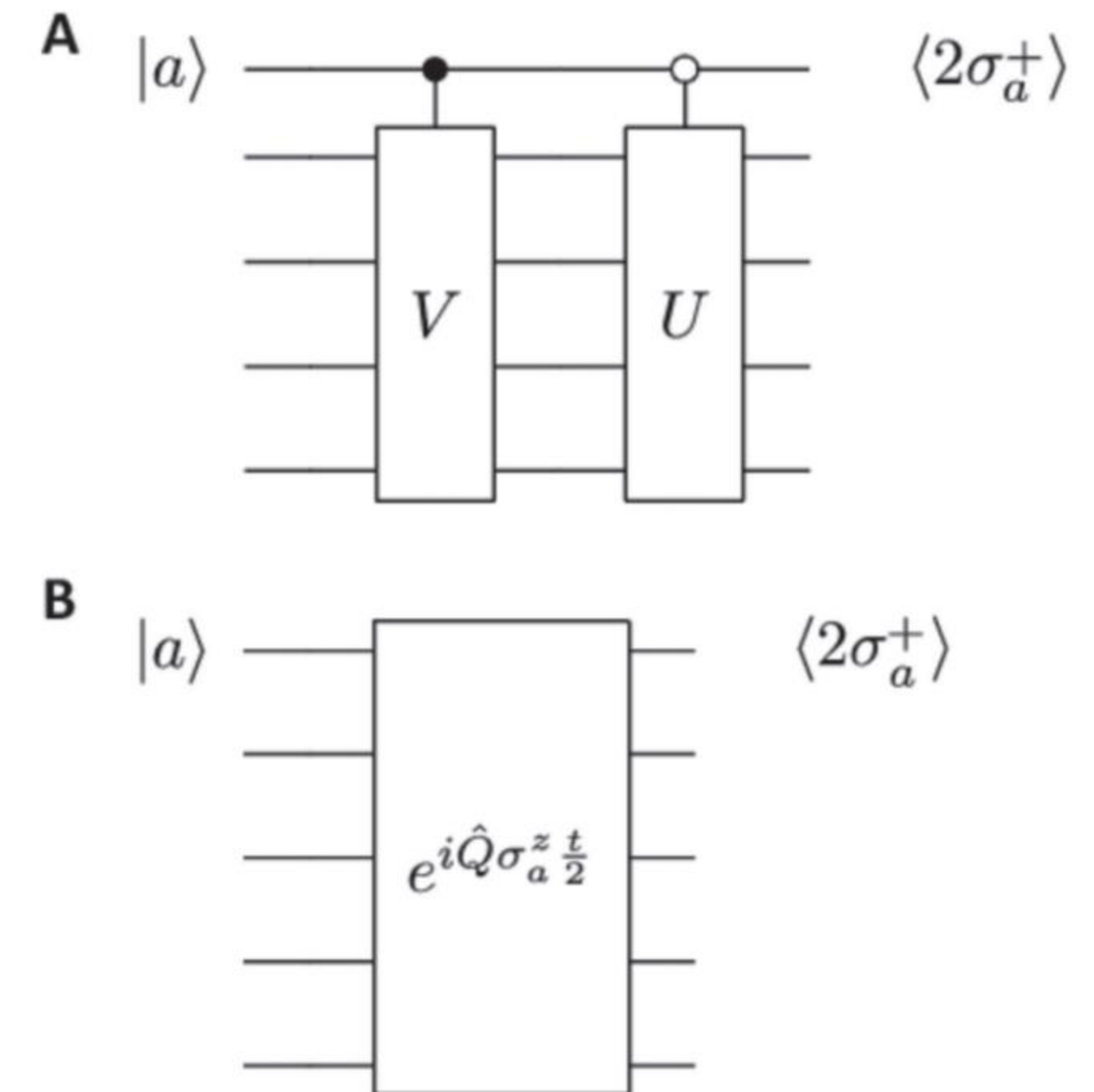
Simulating Quantum Systems

Phase Estimation of observables

Several different ways of doing this:
(QPE, iterative QPE with phase kickback, etc.)



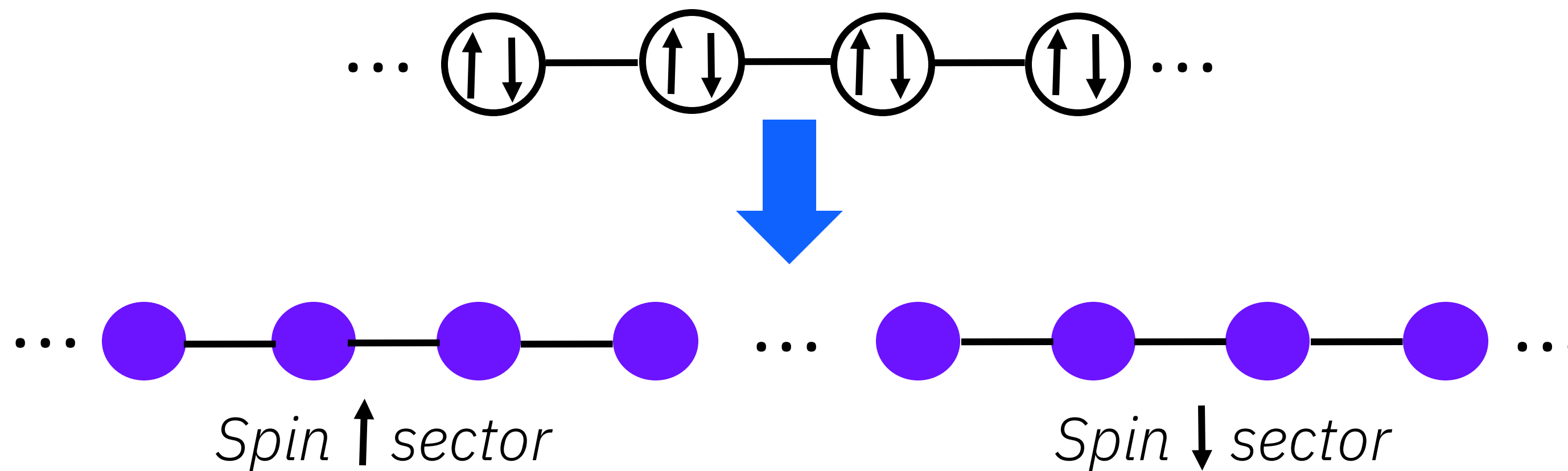
Aspuru-Guzik, A. et. Al. *Science* 309, 1704–1707



Practical Example

Practical Example

*Time evolution of 1D
Hubbard model*



$$H = -t \sum_{i,\sigma} \left(c_{i,\sigma}^\dagger c_{i+1,\sigma} + c_{i+1,\sigma}^\dagger c_{i,\sigma} \right) + U \sum_i n_{i\uparrow} n_{i\downarrow}$$

"Hopping" energy

Repulsion energy

$$n_{i,\sigma} = c_{i,\sigma}^\dagger c_{i,\sigma}$$

Number operator

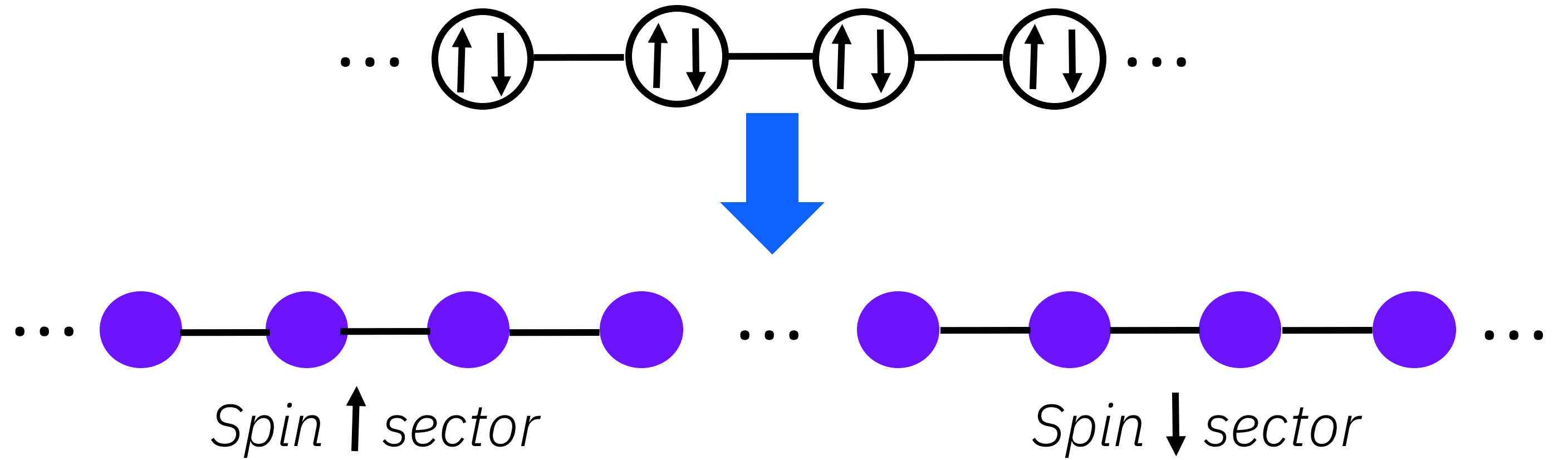
Jordan Wigner Transform

$$c_i^\dagger = Z_0 \dots Z_{i-1} \left(\frac{X_i - iY_i}{2} \right) I_{i+1} \dots I_N$$

$$c_i = Z_0 \dots Z_{i-1} \left(\frac{X_i + iY_i}{2} \right) I_{i+1} \dots I_N$$

Practical Example

*Time evolution of 1D
Hubbard model*



$$H = -t \sum_{i,\sigma} \left(c_{i,\sigma}^\dagger c_{i+1,\sigma} + c_{i+1,\sigma}^\dagger c_{i,\sigma} \right) + U \sum_i n_{i\uparrow} n_{i\downarrow}$$

$$c_i^\dagger c_{i+1} + c_{i+1}^\dagger c_i = (X_i X_{i+1} + Y_i Y_{i+1})$$

$$n_{i\uparrow} n_{i\downarrow} = c_{i,\uparrow}^\dagger c_{i,\downarrow} = \left(I_i^\uparrow - Z_i^\uparrow \right) \left(I_i^\downarrow - Z_i^\downarrow \right)$$

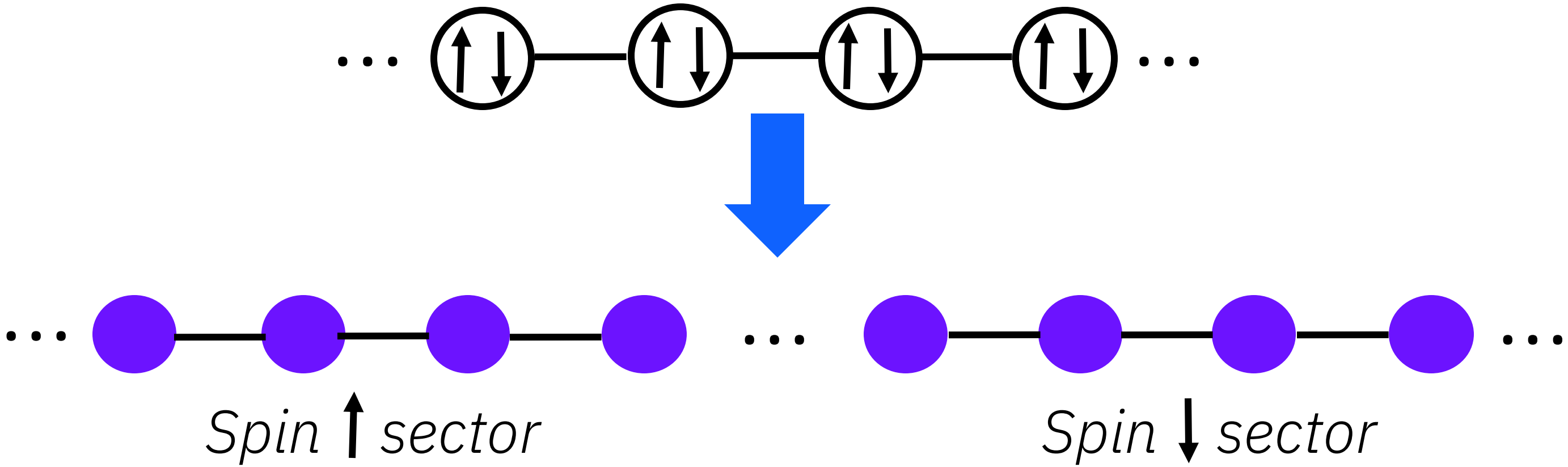
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Practical Example

Time evolution of 1D
Hubbard model



$$H = -t \sum_{i,\sigma} \left(c_{i,\sigma}^\dagger c_{i+1,\sigma} + c_{i+1,\sigma}^\dagger c_{i,\sigma} \right) + U \sum_i n_{i\uparrow} n_{i\downarrow}$$

$$H = -t \sum_i (X_i X_{i+1} + Y_i Y_{i+1}) + U \sum_i \left(I_i^\uparrow - Z_i^\uparrow \right) \left(I_i^\downarrow - Z_i^\downarrow \right)$$

$$c_i^\dagger c_{i+1} + c_{i+1}^\dagger c_i = (X_i X_{i+1} + Y_i Y_{i+1})$$

$$n_{i\uparrow} n_{i\downarrow} = c_{i,\uparrow}^\dagger c_{i,\downarrow} = \left(I_i^\uparrow - Z_i^\uparrow \right) \left(I_i^\downarrow - Z_i^\downarrow \right)$$

$$c_i^\dagger = Z_0 \dots Z_{i-1} \left(\frac{X_i - iY_i}{2} \right) I_{i+1} \dots I_N$$

$$c_i = Z_0 \dots Z_{i-1} \left(\frac{X_i + iY_i}{2} \right) I_{i+1} \dots I_N$$

Now let's code this up!