

A qubit model for U(1) lattice gauge theory



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Quantum computers offer advantages such as:

- quantum parallelism,
- access to real-time dynamics.

We are using classical simulators to explore an implementation of U(1) gauge fields.

outline

- from action to Hamiltonian
- electric field eigenstates
- energy eigenvalues
- the Hamiltonian expressed in Pauli operators
- real-time propagation 
- real-time collisions 

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from action to Hamiltonian

review:Kogut,Rev.Mod.Phys.51,659(1979)

The Euclidean lattice action is a sum over all plaquettes,

$$S = -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_P \left(U_P + U_P^* \right)$$

where $\beta = 1/g^2$ and $U_P = e^{i\theta_\mu(n)} e^{i\theta_\nu(n+\hat{\mu})} e^{-i\theta_\mu(n+\hat{\nu})} e^{-i\theta_\nu(n)}$.

To convert this into a Hamiltonian, let $\theta_\mu(n) = agA_\mu(n)$. Choosing the temporal gauge ($\theta_t(n) = 0$), and sliding the temporal lattice spacing to zero brings us to the Hamiltonian for compact U(1) gauge theory:

$$H = \sum_n \left(\frac{a^3}{2} \vec{E}^2(n) - \frac{\beta}{a} \sum_{i=2}^3 \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \cos \left(\theta_i(n) + \theta_j(n + \hat{i}) - \theta_i(n + \hat{j}) - \theta_j(n) \right) \right)$$

where $\vec{E} = \partial_t \vec{A}$ is the electric field.

electric field eigenstates

review: Kogut, Rev. Mod. Phys. 51, 659 (1979)

The conjugate momentum for $\vec{\theta}$ (name it \vec{L}) is proportional to \vec{E} .

Angles constrained to $[0, 2\pi)$ produce quantized conjugate momentum eigenvalues:

$$\ell_i(n) = \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

An immediate consequence is that link variables ($U_j = e^{i\theta_j}$) are ladder operators because

$$[U_j, L_j] = -U_j \quad \text{and} \quad [U_j^\dagger, L_j] = U_j^\dagger$$

The Hamiltonian can now be written as

$$H = \frac{1}{2a\beta} \left(\sum_j L_j^2 - \beta^2 \sum_P (U_P + U_P^\dagger) \right)$$

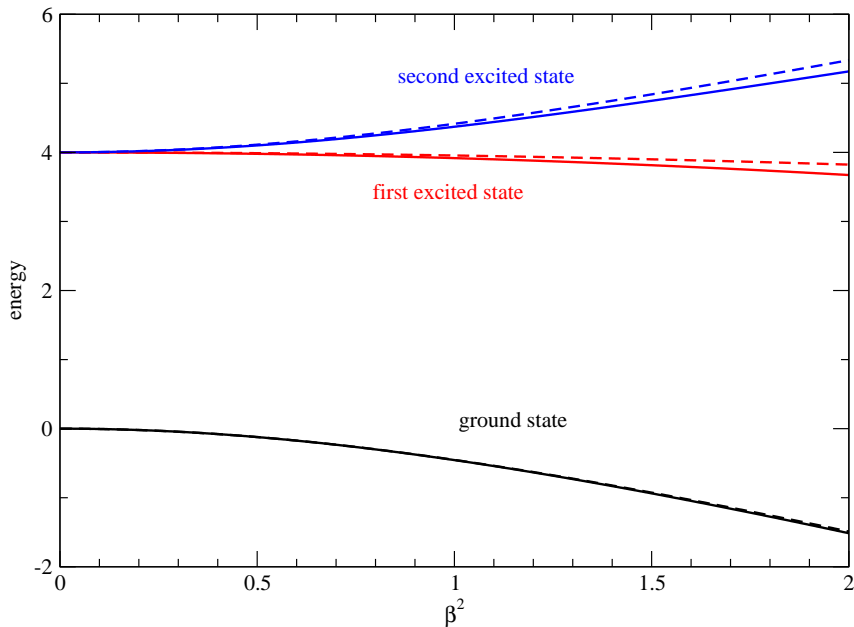
Let's rescale energies by dropping the overall factor of $\frac{1}{2a\beta}$ from now on.

energy eigenvalues for the 2×2 lattice

The 3 lowest energies for a single plaquette

Dashed curves use $-1 \leq l \leq 2$.

Solid curves use any larger bounds.



writing the Hamiltonian with Pauli operators

For a qubit-inefficient alternative, see Byrnes&Yamamoto,PRA73,022328(2006)

To run someday on a quantum computer (and today on a classical simulator), the states can be mapped to qubits, and operators expressed as Pauli products.

2 qubits per gauge link

ℓ	state
2	$ 00\rangle$
1	$ 01\rangle$
0	$ 10\rangle$
-1	$ 11\rangle$

$$L^+ = \sigma_0^+ + \sigma_0^- \sigma_1^+$$

$$L^- = \sigma_0^- + \sigma_0^+ \sigma_1^-$$

$$L = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \sigma_0^z + 2\sigma_1^z)$$

3 qubits per gauge link

ℓ	state
4	$ 000\rangle$
3	$ 001\rangle$
2	$ 010\rangle$
1	$ 011\rangle$
0	$ 100\rangle$
-1	$ 101\rangle$
-2	$ 110\rangle$
-3	$ 111\rangle$

$$L^+ = \sigma_0^+ + \sigma_0^- \sigma_1^+ + \sigma_0^- \sigma_1^- \sigma_2^+$$

$$L^- = \sigma_0^- + \sigma_0^+ \sigma_1^- + \sigma_0^+ \sigma_1^+ \sigma_2^-$$

$$L = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \sigma_0^z + 2\sigma_1^z + 4\sigma_2^z)$$

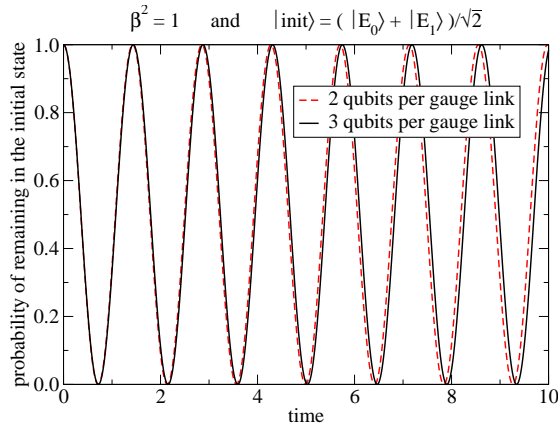
time evolution

- With 3 qubits per gauge link, we have

$$H = 22 + 2\sigma_0^z + 4\sigma_1^z + 8\sigma_2^z + 4\sigma_0^z\sigma_1^z + 8\sigma_0^z\sigma_2^z + 16\sigma_1^z\sigma_2^z - \beta^2 \left(\sigma_0^x + \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_0^x\sigma_1^x + \sigma_0^y\sigma_1^y) + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_0^x\sigma_1^x\sigma_2^x - \sigma_0^y\sigma_1^y\sigma_2^x + \sigma_0^y\sigma_1^x\sigma_2^y + \sigma_0^x\sigma_1^y\sigma_2^y) \right)$$

- Time evolution is computed by using the **2nd-order Suzuki-Trotter formula**,

$$e^{-i(A+B)t} = e^{-iAt/2}e^{-iBt}e^{-iAt/2} + O(t^3)$$



Finding the ground state

Use the variational principle. Peruzzo et al, Nature Communications 5, 4213 (2014)

Our 2-qubit Hamiltonian can be written as

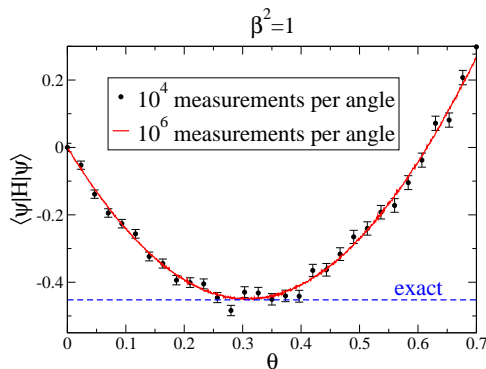
$$H = 4 + 12P_{\uparrow\uparrow} - 4P_{\downarrow\downarrow} - \beta^2(2P_{\uparrow\uparrow}^x + P_{\downarrow\downarrow}^x - P_{\uparrow\downarrow}^{xx} - P_{\downarrow\uparrow}^{xx} - P_{\uparrow\downarrow}^{yy} - P_{\downarrow\uparrow}^{yy})$$

where

$$P_i = |\langle i|\psi\rangle|^2, \quad P_i^x = |\langle i|R^y(-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0)\psi\rangle|^2, \quad P_i^{xx} = |\langle i|R^y(-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0)R^y(-\frac{\pi}{2}, 1)\psi\rangle|^2, \\ P_i^{yy} = |\langle i|R^x(\frac{\pi}{2}, 0)R^x(\frac{\pi}{2}, 1)\psi\rangle|^2.$$

A simple trial state is $|\psi\rangle = 0|\uparrow\uparrow\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sin\theta|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle + \cos\theta|\downarrow\uparrow\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sin\theta|\downarrow\downarrow\rangle$
which can be built as follows:

- Begin with $|\uparrow\uparrow\rangle$.
- Apply $X(1)$ to get $|\downarrow\uparrow\rangle$.
- Apply $R^y(2\theta, 0)$ to get $\cos\theta|\downarrow\uparrow\rangle + \sin\theta|\downarrow\downarrow\rangle$.
- Apply $CR^y(-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0, 1)$ to get $|\psi\rangle$.



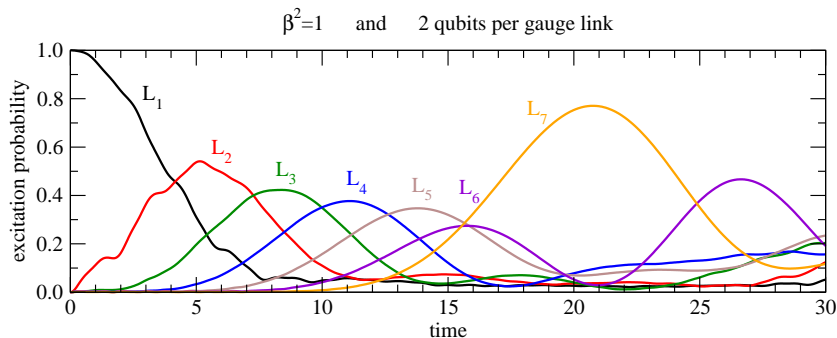
a row of plaquettes

Consider 7 plaquettes in a row:



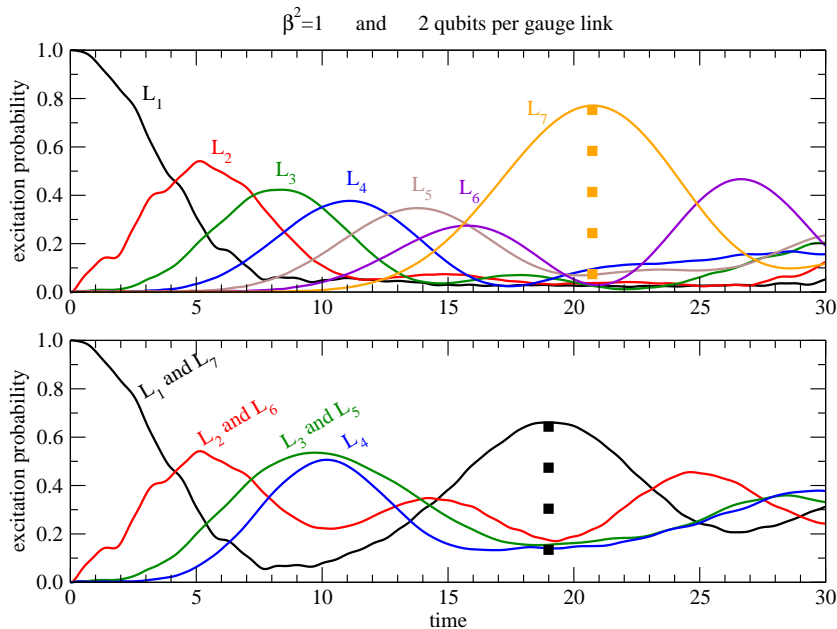
The Hamiltonian is
$$H = \sum_{i=1}^7 \left(4L_i^2 - \beta^2(L_i^+ + L_i^-) \right) - 2 \sum_{i=1}^6 L_i L_{i+1}$$

Begin with L_1 in the 1st excited state and all others in the ground state.
 Compute the probability to be above the ground state.



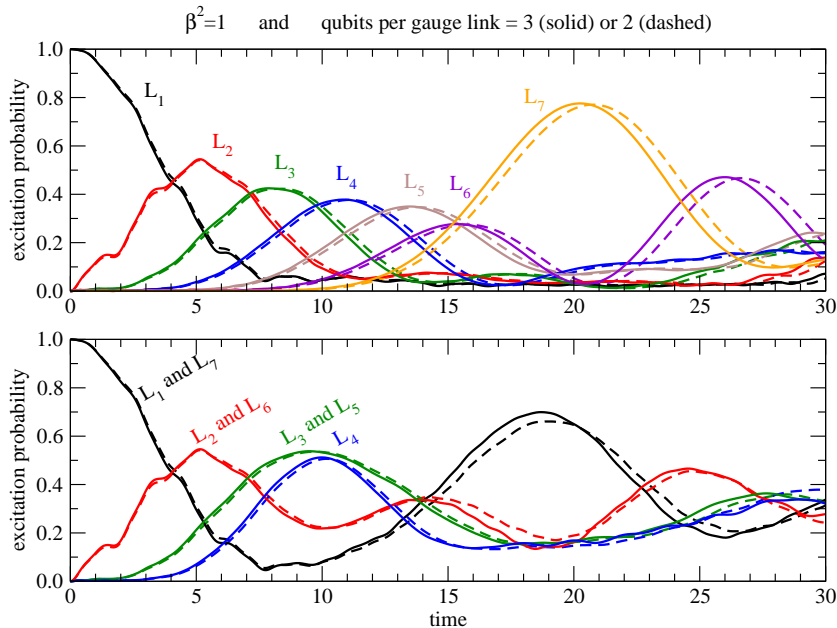
attractive or repulsive?

Compare a single excitation (upper plot) to colliding excitations (lower plot).



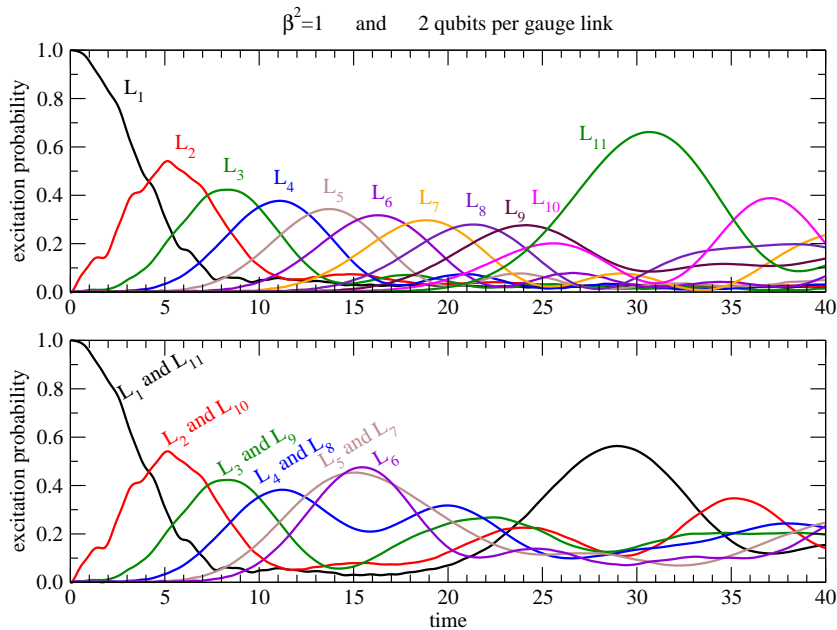
as before, but with 3 qubits per gauge link

Compare a single excitation (upper plot) to colliding excitations (lower plot).



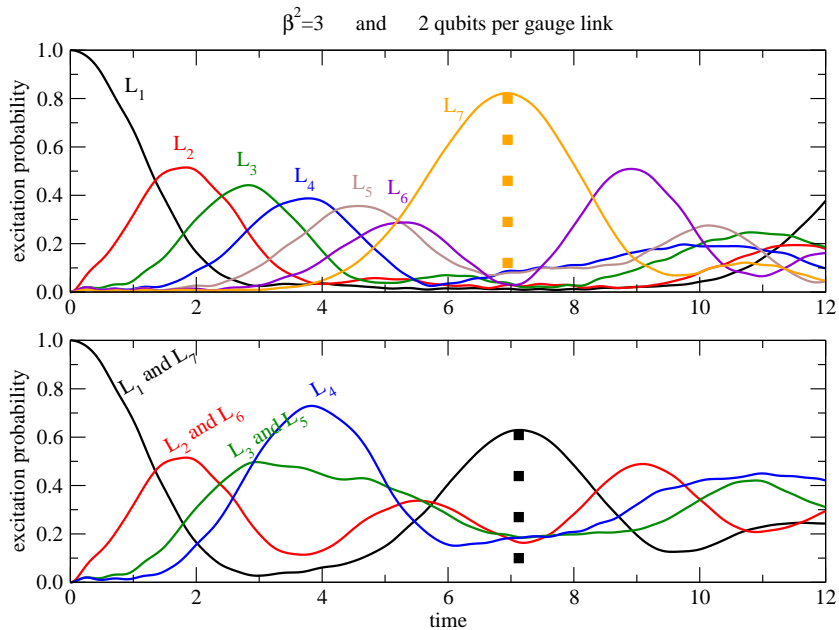
as before, but with a longer lattice

Compare a single excitation (upper plot) to colliding excitations (lower plot).



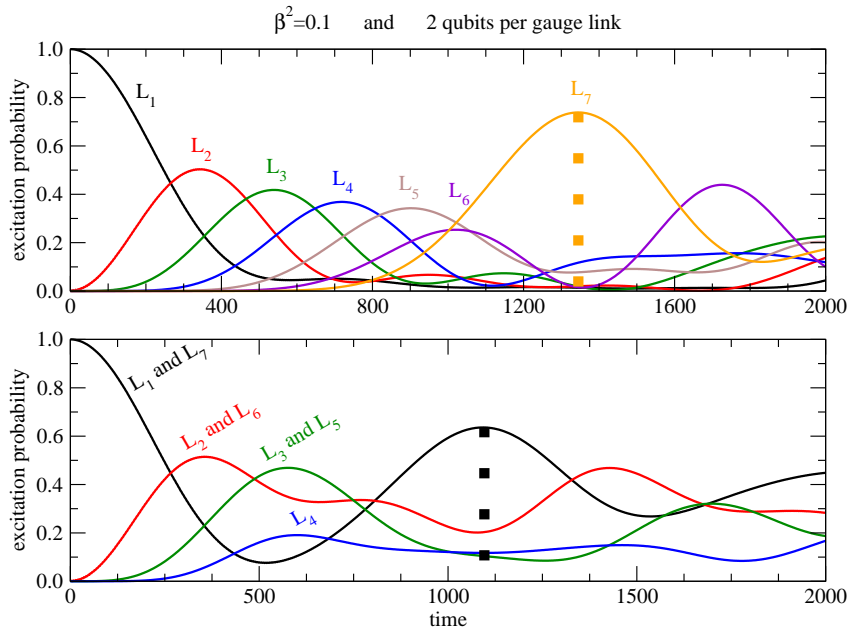
as before, but with larger β^2

Compare a single excitation (upper plot) to colliding excitations (lower plot).



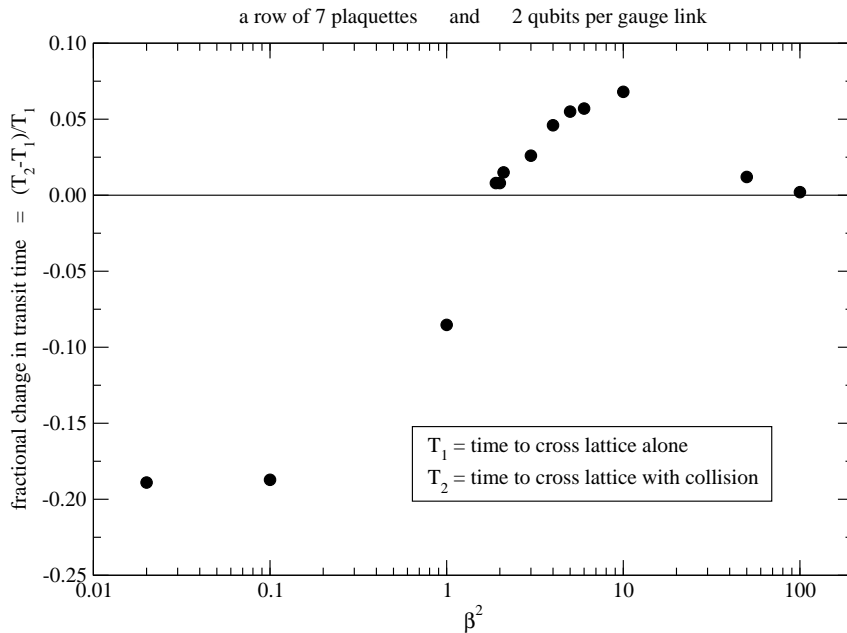
as before, but with smaller β^2

Compare a single excitation (upper plot) to colliding excitations (lower plot).



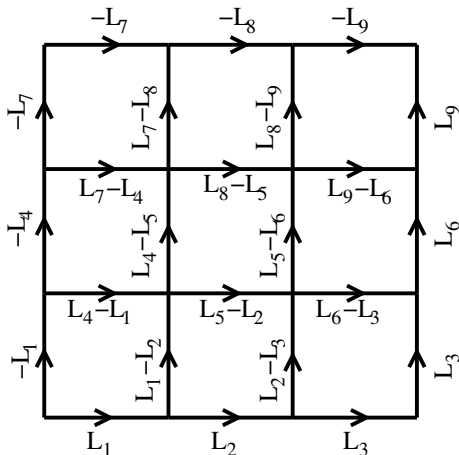
an overview of the β^2 dependence

(This plot is made from simple eyeball estimates of peak locations on graphs.)



a 2D lattice of plaquettes

Consider 9 plaquettes in a square:

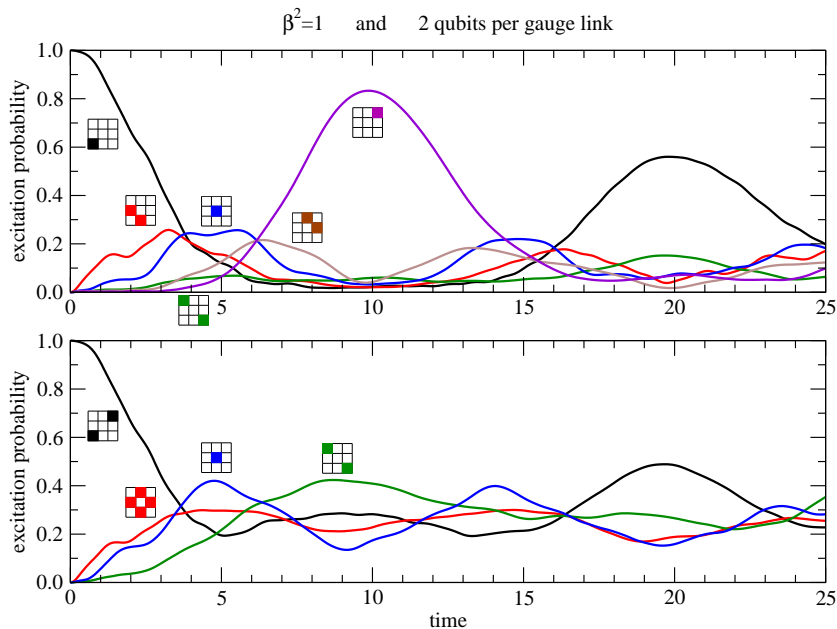


Gauss's law leaves just **one independent gauge link per plaquette**.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{The Hamiltonian is } H = & \sum_{i=1}^9 \left(4L_i^2 - \beta^2 (L_i^+ + L_i^-) \right) - 2 \sum_{i=1}^6 L_i L_{i+3} \\
 & - 2(L_1 L_2 + L_2 L_3 + L_4 L_5 + L_5 L_6 + L_7 L_8 + L_8 L_9)
 \end{aligned}$$

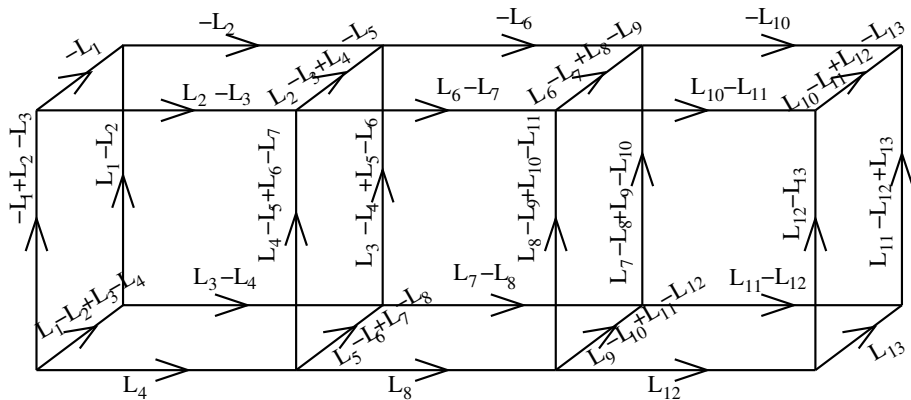
excitations begin in opposing corners

Compare a single excitation (upper plot) to colliding excitations (lower plot).



a 3D lattice of plaquettes

Consider 3 cubes in a row:



Gauss's law leaves **fewer than one independent gauge link per plaquette**.

This means the Hamiltonian must contain link products in both E and B terms.

The B terms are more expensive (i.e. more Pauli factors).

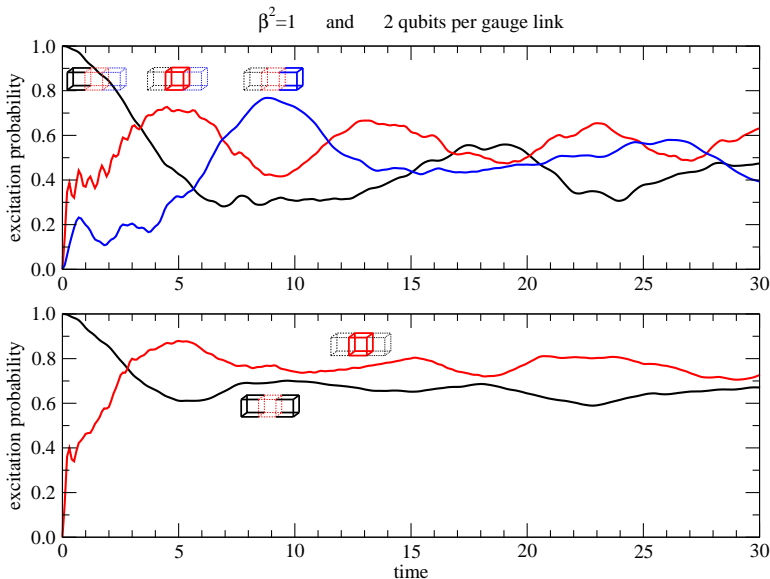
The diagram shown here **minimizes the number of link products in B terms**.

Other definitions of the L_i typically lead to vastly more Pauli factors in H .

excited cubes

A single-plaquette excitation will quickly disperse on this lattice.

Try exciting an entire cube. . . single excitation (upper plot), colliding excitations (lower plot)



... but this also shows rapid dispersal.

summary

We have developed a qubit implementation of compact $U(1)$ gauge theory.
The Hamiltonian is written in terms of Pauli matrices.

A quantum variational eigensolver allows calculation of eigenvalues and eigenstates.

Propagation of an excitation is demonstrated for planar and $2 \times 2 \times N$ lattices.

On a row of plaquettes, colliding excitations are observed easily.

On more general lattices, colliding excitations decohere more quickly.