

Gaussian quantum Monte-Carlo Methods

phase-space simulations of many-body systems

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Overview

- introduction to phase-space representations
 - $+P$ method
- Gaussian operator bases
 - overcompleteness and differential properties
- quantum evolution in real or imaginary time
 - mapping to stochastic phase-space equations
- application to Hubbard model
 - improvements through symmetry and gauge considerations

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Wigner distribution

- A classical state can be represented by a joint probability distribution in phase space $P(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p})$
- 1932: Wigner¹ constructed analogous quantity for quantum states:

$$W(x, p) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int dy \psi^*(x - y) \psi(x + y) \exp(-2iyp/\hbar)$$

- ✓ Wigner function gives correct marginals:
 $\int dx W(x, p) = 2\hbar P(p)$
 $\int dp W(x, p) = 2\hbar P(x)$
- ✗ but it is not always positive \rightarrow not a true joint probability

1. E. P. Wigner, Phys. Rev. **40**, 749 (1932).

P and Q distributions

- other phase-space distributions were also defined by

- Husimi¹:

$$Q(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\pi} |\langle \Psi | \alpha \rangle|^2$$

and

- Glauber² and Sudarshan³:

$$|\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi| = \int d^2\alpha P(\alpha) |\alpha\rangle\langle\alpha|$$

1. K. Husimi, Proc. Phys. Math. Soc. Jpn. **22**, 264 (1940).
2. R. J. Glauber, Phys. Rev. **131**, 2766 (1963).
3. E. C. G. Sudarshan, Phys. Rev. Lett. **10**, 277 (1963).

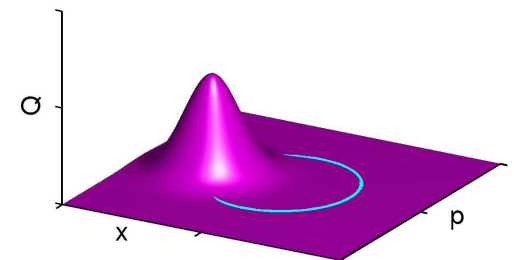
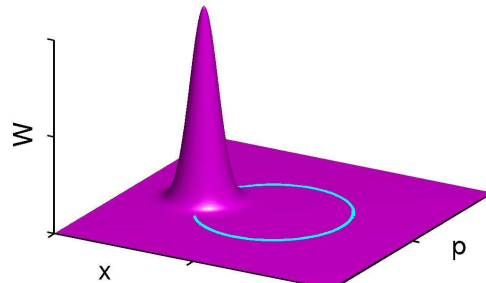
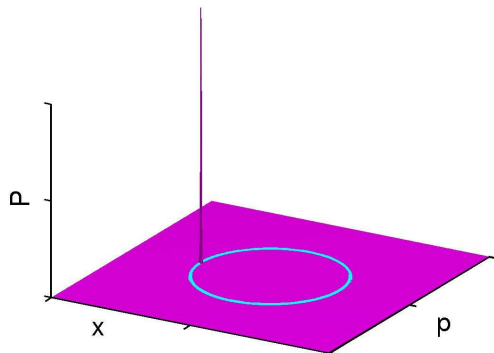
Phase-space distributions

- Wigner, Q and P all defined in terms of coherent states

$$\hat{a}|\alpha\rangle = \alpha|\alpha\rangle; \quad |\alpha\rangle \equiv \hat{D}(\alpha)|0\rangle \equiv \exp[\alpha\hat{a}^\dagger - \alpha^*\hat{a}]|0\rangle$$

- the distributions are interrelated by Gaussian convolutions
- correspond to different choices of orderings:

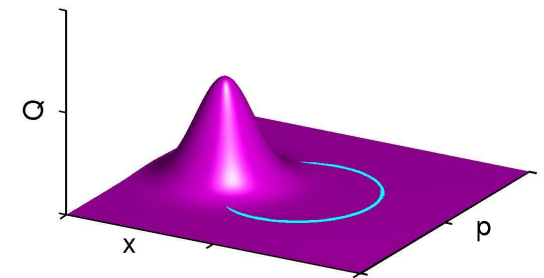
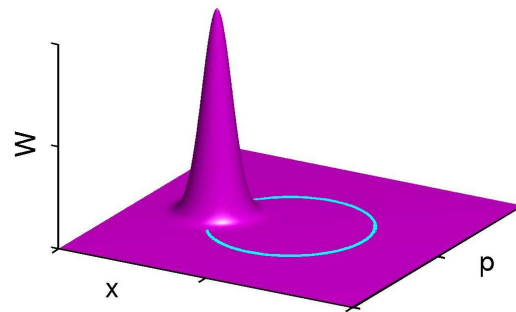
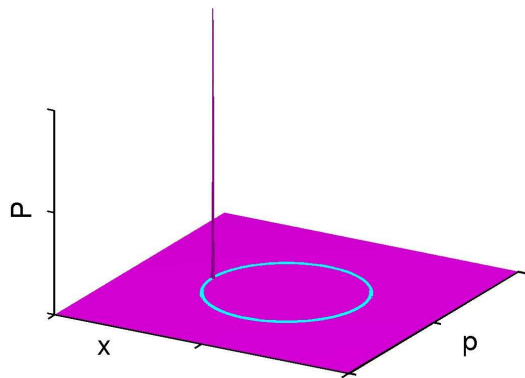
$$\langle \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \rangle = \int d^2\alpha (|\alpha|^2 + n) p(\alpha); \quad n = \begin{cases} 0 & p = P \\ -\frac{1}{2} & p = W \\ -1 & p = Q \end{cases}$$



Probability distributions

- to be a probabilistic representation, these functions must:

| | P | W | Q |
|--------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| exist and be nonsingular | X | ✓ | ✓ |
| always be positive | X | X | ✓ |
| evolve via drift and diffusion | X | X | X |



Reversibility

- classical random process is irreversible
 - outward (positive) diffusion
- quantum mechanics is reversible
 - phase-space functions generally don't have positive diffusion

A solution!

- dimension doubling
 - diffusion into 'imaginary' dimensions ✓
 - observables evolve reversibly ✓
 - also fixes up existence and positivity ✓

positive- P representation

- generalisation of the Glauber P by Drummond et al^{1,2}
- expand $\hat{\rho}$ over off-diagonal coherent-state projectors:

$$\hat{\rho} = \int d^2\alpha d^2\beta P(\alpha, \beta) \frac{|\alpha\rangle\langle\beta|}{\langle\beta|\alpha\rangle}$$

- off-diagonal coherent projectors are a very overcomplete basis
 - many equivalent $P(\alpha, \beta)$ functions for a given quantum state
 - can always find a positive one
 - time evolution of $\hat{\rho}$ maps to diffusive evolution of $P(\alpha, \beta)$

1. S. Chaturvedi, P. D. Drummond, and D. F. Walls, J. Phys. A **10**, L187-192 (1977)
2. P. D. Drummond and C. W. Gardiner, J. Phys. A **13**, 2353 (1980).

positive- P Simulations

- maps state evolution onto two independent stochastic amplitudes:

$$\hat{a} \rightarrow \alpha \quad \hat{a}^\dagger \rightarrow \beta^*$$

- stochastic averages correspond to normally ordered correlations

$$\langle : f(\hat{a}^\dagger, \hat{a}) : \rangle = \int d^2\alpha d^2\alpha^+ f(\beta^*, \alpha) P(\alpha, \beta)$$

- many applications in quantum optics and ultracold atoms
- both real time (dynamics) and imaginary time (finite temperature) calculations

positive- P Applications

● quantum optics

● superfluorescence:

- F. Haake et al, Phys. Rev. Lett. **42**, 1740 (1979)
- P. D. Drummond and J. H. Eberly, Phys. Rev. A **25**, 3446 (1982).

● parametric amplifiers:

- C. W. Gardiner, *Quantum Noise*, (Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1991).

● quantum solitons:

- S. J. Carter et al, Phys. Rev. Lett. **58**, 1841 (1987)
- P. D. Drummond, R. M. Shelby, S. R. Friberg and Y. Yamamoto, Nature **365**, 307 (1993)

● ultracold gases

● dynamics of Bose-Einstein condensates:

- M. J. Steel, M. K. Olsen, L. I. Plimak *et al*, Phys. Rev. **A58**, 4824 (1998)
- P. D. Drummond, J. F. Corney, Phys. Rev. **A 60**, R2661-R2664 (1999)
- K. V. Kheruntsyan, M. K. Olsen, and P. D. Drummond, Phys. Rev. Lett. **95**, 150405 (2005).

● finite-temperature correlations in Bose gases:

- P. D. Drummond, P. Deuar and K. V. Kheruntsyan, Phys. Rev. Lett. **92**, 040405 (2004).

Example: Evaporative Cooling of a BEC

$$\hat{H} = \int d^3 \mathbf{x} \hat{\Psi}^\dagger(\mathbf{x}, t) \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(\mathbf{x}, t) + \frac{U}{2} \hat{\Psi}^\dagger(\mathbf{x}, t) \hat{\Psi}(\mathbf{x}, t) \right] \hat{\Psi}(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

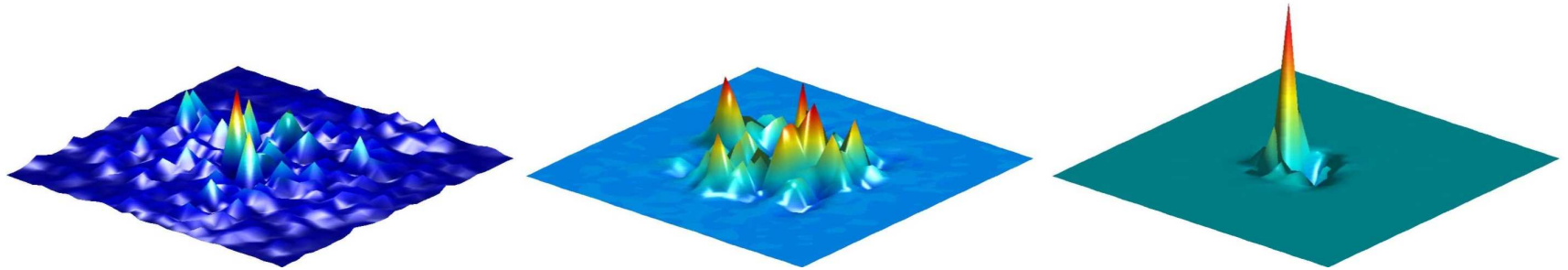
- equivalent (Itô) stochastic equations ($j = 1, 2$):

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_j}{\partial t} = \left[\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + 4\pi a_0 \frac{\hbar^2}{m} \psi_j \psi_{3-j}^* + V(\mathbf{x}, t) + \xi_j(\mathbf{x}, t) \right] \psi_j$$

- quantum noise:

$$\langle \xi_{j'}(\mathbf{x}', t') \xi_j(\mathbf{x}, t) \rangle = i \frac{4\pi a_0 \hbar^3}{m} \delta_{jj'} \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') \delta(t - t')$$

Example: Evaporative Cooling of a BEC



- 3D calculation with 20000 atoms, 32000 modes
- start with Bose gas above T_c ; finish with narrow BEC peak
- ✗ Problems!
 - ✗ method pushed to the limit
 - ✗ breaks down for longer times, stronger interactions

What about fermions?

- $+P$ is defined only for bosonic systems
- could we use fermionic coherent states^{1,2}? $\hat{c}|\gamma\rangle = \gamma|\gamma\rangle$
 - like bosonic counterparts, have useful completeness properties
 - require anticommuting, Grassmann variables: $\gamma_1\gamma_2 = -\gamma_2\gamma_1$
- Cahill and Glauber constructed fermionic representations³
- numerical simulations implemented⁴, but do not scale well
- the Grassmann algebra introduces great computational complexity

1. J. L. Martin, Proc. Roy. Soc. **A 251**, 543 (1959)

2. Y. Ohnuki and T. Kashiwa, Prog. Theor. Phys. **60**, 548 (1978).

3. K. E. Cahill and R. J. Glauber, Phys. Rev. **A 59**, 1538 (1999)

4. L. I. Plimak, M. J. Collett and M. K. Olsen, Phys. Rev. A **64**, 063409 (2001)

Phase-space representation

$$\hat{\rho} = \int P(\vec{\lambda}) \hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda}) d\vec{\lambda}$$

- $P(\vec{\lambda})$ is a probability distribution
- $\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$ is a suitable operator basis
- $\vec{\lambda}$ is a generalised phase-space coordinate
- $d\vec{\lambda}$ is an integration measure
- equivalent to

$$\hat{\rho} = E \left[\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda}) \right]$$

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Operator Bases

- need basis simple enough to fit into a computer, complex enough to contain the relevant physics:

The diagram illustrates the decomposition of a purple Gaussian distribution into two other Gaussian distributions. The top row shows three Gaussian curves: a purple one on the left labeled with the Greek letter ρ , a red one in the middle labeled with the letter P , and a blue one on the right labeled with the Greek letter Λ . An equals sign is placed between the purple and red curves, and a tensor product symbol (\otimes) is placed between the red and blue curves. The bottom row shows the corresponding standard deviations: a purple σ_ρ , a red σ_P , and a blue σ_Λ . A tilde symbol (\sim) is placed between σ_ρ and σ_P , and a plus sign (+) is placed between σ_P and σ_Λ .

$$\sigma_\rho \sim \sigma_P + \sigma_\Lambda$$

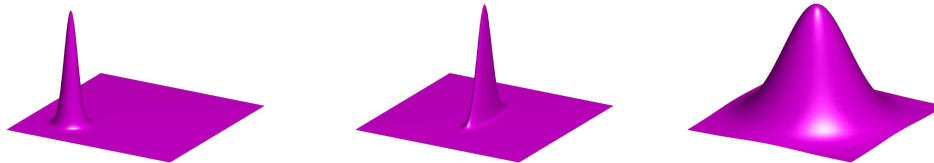
Required Properties

- to enable a phase-space representation, the operators $\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda})$ must
 1. form a *complete* basis for the class of physical density matrices
 2. possess a *second-order differential* form for all two-body operators
 3. represent any state by a *positive* expansion
 4. be *analytic* functions of the phase-space variables
- 3 and 4 are obtained with *non-Hermitian* elements in the basis
- 2 and 4 \implies quantum evolution maps to a Fokker-Planck equation for a diffusive process

General Gaussian operators

generalisation of density operators that describe Gaussian states

- Gaussian states can be:
 - coherent (for bosons), squeezed (eg BCS), or thermal



- or any combination of these
- characterised by first-order moments: \bar{x} , \bar{p} , $\overline{x^2}$, $\overline{p^2}$, \overline{xp}
 - all higher-order moments factorise

Gaussian Basis: General form

$$\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{\lambda}) = \Omega \sqrt{|\underline{\underline{\sigma}}|^{\mp 1}} : \exp \left[\delta \underline{\hat{a}}^\dagger \left(\underline{\underline{I}} \mp \underline{\underline{I}} - \underline{\underline{\sigma}}^{-1} \right) \delta \underline{\hat{a}} / 2 \right] :$$

relative displacement: $\delta \underline{\hat{a}} = \underline{\hat{a}} - \underline{\alpha}$

annihilation and creation operators: $\underline{\hat{a}} = \left(\hat{a}_1, \dots, \hat{a}_M, \hat{a}_1^\dagger, \dots, \hat{a}_M^\dagger \right)$

coherent offset: $\underline{\alpha} = \left(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_M, \alpha_1^+, \dots, \alpha_M^+ \right)$, ($\underline{\alpha} = 0$ for fermions)

covariance: $\underline{\underline{\sigma}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{n}^T \pm \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{m} \\ \mathbf{m}^+ & \mathbf{I} \pm \mathbf{n} \end{bmatrix}$, $\underline{\underline{I}} = \begin{bmatrix} \pm \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$.

upper signs: bosons; **lower signs:** fermions

Extended phase space

$$\vec{\lambda} = (\Omega, \alpha, \alpha^+, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{m}^+)$$

- Ω : weight (for gauges and unnormalised density matrices)
 - α and α^+ : coherent amplitudes
 - \mathbf{n} : complex number correlations (normal fluctuations)
 - \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{m}^+ : independent squeezing (anomalous) correlations
- ⇒ Hilbert-space dimension: $\sim 2^M$ for fermions, $\sim N^M$ for bosons
- ⇒ phase-space dimension: $\leq \begin{cases} 2(1 - M + 2M^2) & \text{for fermions} \\ 2(1 + 3M + 2M^2) & \text{for bosons} \end{cases}$

Moments

- observables are weighted averages

$$(E[A] \equiv \int d\lambda \Omega A P(\lambda) / \int d\lambda \Omega P(\lambda)):$$

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \hat{a}_i \rangle &= E[\alpha_i] \\ \langle \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j \rangle &= E[\alpha_i^\dagger \alpha_j + n_{ij}] \\ \langle \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_j \rangle &= E[\alpha_i \alpha_j + m_{ij}]\end{aligned}$$

- higher-order moments (normally ordered) are averages of Wick decompositions, eg:

$$\langle : \hat{n}_i \hat{n}_j : \rangle = E[n_{ii} n_{jj} - n_{ij} n_{ji} + m_{ij}^+ m_{ji}]$$

Non-Hermitian Elements

- when $\alpha^* = \alpha^+$, $\mathbf{m}^\dagger = \mathbf{m}^+$, and $\mathbf{n}^\dagger = \mathbf{n}$, the Gaussian operators correspond to density operators for physical states
- full Gaussian basis also includes non-Hermitian generalisations of these operators
 - ⇒ gives the overcompleteness necessary to ensure properties
 - 3: positivity, and
 - 4: freedom to diffuse
- for more on the properties of generalised Gaussian operators, see: J. F. Corney and P. D. Drummond, J. Phys. A **39**, 269 (2006).
- the Hubbard-Stratonovich transformation, as used in Auxiliary field methods, gives exponentials of one-body operators (and thus Gaussian operators), but the approach is somewhat different. See e.g. S. Roumbouts and K. Heyde, Phys. Status. Solidi B **237**, 99 (2003).

Differential Identities

- all one-body operators equate to first-order derivatives:

$$\hat{\Lambda} = \Omega \frac{\partial \Lambda}{\partial \Omega}$$

$$:\underline{\hat{a}}\hat{\Lambda}: = \underline{\alpha} + \underline{\sigma} \frac{\partial \hat{\Lambda}}{\partial \underline{\alpha}^+}$$

$$:\delta\underline{\hat{a}}\delta\underline{\hat{a}}^\dagger \hat{\Lambda}: = \underline{\sigma}\hat{\Lambda} \pm \underline{\sigma} \frac{\partial \hat{\Lambda}}{\partial \underline{\sigma}} \underline{\sigma}$$

$$\left\{ \delta\underline{\hat{a}} : \delta\underline{\hat{a}}^\dagger \hat{\Lambda} : \right\} = \pm \underline{\sigma}\hat{\Lambda} + \left(\underline{\sigma} - \underline{I} \right) \frac{\partial \hat{\Lambda}}{\partial \underline{\sigma}} \underline{\sigma}$$

$$\left\{ \delta\underline{\hat{a}}\delta\underline{\hat{a}}^\dagger \hat{\Lambda} \right\} = \left(\underline{\sigma} - \underline{I} \right) \hat{\Lambda} \pm \left(\underline{\sigma} - \underline{I} \right) \frac{\partial \hat{\Lambda}}{\partial \underline{\sigma}} \left(\underline{\sigma} - \underline{I} \right)$$

Special case I: Coherent-state projectors

- for bosons, we can restrict the basis to $\vec{\lambda} = (\Omega, \alpha, (\alpha^+)^*, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0})$:
- get the kernel for the $+P$ representation

$$\hat{\Lambda} = \Omega \frac{|\alpha\rangle\langle(\alpha^+)^*|}{\langle(\alpha^+)^*|\alpha\rangle}$$

- differential identities reduce to

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\Lambda} &= \alpha\hat{\Lambda}; & \hat{\mathbf{a}}^\dagger\hat{\Lambda} &= \left(\alpha^+ + \frac{\partial}{\partial\alpha}\right)\hat{\Lambda} \\ \hat{\Lambda}\hat{\mathbf{a}} &= \left(\alpha + \frac{\partial}{\partial\alpha^+}\right)\hat{\Lambda}; & \hat{\Lambda}\hat{\mathbf{a}}^\dagger &= \alpha^+\hat{\Lambda}\end{aligned}$$

Special case II: Thermal operators

- for a number-conserving system, can restrict basis to $\vec{\lambda} = (\Omega, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0})$:

$$\hat{\Lambda} = |\mathbf{I} \pm \mathbf{n}|^{\mp 1} : \exp \left[\hat{\mathbf{a}} \left(\mathbf{I} \mp \mathbf{I} - [\mathbf{I} \pm \mathbf{n}]^{-1} \right) \hat{\mathbf{a}}^\dagger \right] :$$

- defined for **bosons** (upper sign) and *fermions* (lower sign)
- moments:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_j \rangle &= 0; & \langle \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j \rangle &= E [n_{ij}] \\ \langle \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j^\dagger \hat{a}_j \hat{a}_i \rangle &= E [n_{ii} n_{jj} \pm n_{ij} n_{ji}] \end{aligned}$$

Special case II: Thermal operator identities

$$\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{\dagger T} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^T \widehat{\Lambda} = \mathbf{n} \widehat{\Lambda} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}) \frac{\partial \widehat{\Lambda}}{\partial \mathbf{n}} \mathbf{n},$$

$$\widehat{\Lambda} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{\dagger T} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^T = \mathbf{n} \widehat{\Lambda} + \mathbf{n} \frac{\partial \widehat{\Lambda}}{\partial \mathbf{n}} (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}),$$

$$\widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{\dagger T} \widehat{\Lambda} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^T = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}) \widehat{\Lambda} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}) \frac{\partial \widehat{\Lambda}}{\partial \mathbf{n}} (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}),$$

$$\left(\widehat{\mathbf{b}} \widehat{\Lambda} \widehat{\mathbf{b}}^{\dagger} \right)^T = \mathbf{n} \widehat{\Lambda} - \mathbf{n} \frac{\partial \widehat{\Lambda}}{\partial \mathbf{n}} \mathbf{n}$$

- where $\tilde{\mathbf{n}} = \mathbf{I} \pm \mathbf{n}$ is the hole correlations
- for two-body operators, apply two of these identities in succession

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Density operators for quantum evolution

1. Unitary dynamics: $\hat{\rho}(t) = e^{-i\hat{H}t/\hbar}\hat{\rho}(0)e^{i\hat{H}t/\hbar}$

- $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\hat{\rho} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} [\hat{H}, \hat{\rho}]$

2. Equilibrium state: $\hat{\rho}_{\text{un}}(T) = e^{-(\hat{H}-\mu\hat{N})/k_B T}$

- $\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta}\hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{2} [\hat{H} - \mu\hat{N}, \hat{\rho}]_+ ; \beta = 1/k_B T$

3. Open dynamics: $\hat{\rho}_{\text{Sys}} = \text{Tr}_{\text{Res}} \{\hat{\rho}\}$

- $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\hat{\rho} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} [\hat{H}, \hat{\rho}] + \gamma \left(2\hat{R}\hat{\rho}\hat{R}^\dagger - \hat{R}^\dagger\hat{R}\hat{\rho} - \hat{\rho}\hat{R}^\dagger\hat{R} \right)$

- each type is equivalent to a Liouville equation for $\hat{\rho}$:

$$\frac{d}{d\tau}\hat{\rho} = \hat{L}[\hat{\rho}] ; \tau = t, \beta$$

Phase-space Recipe

1. **Formulate:** $\partial \hat{\rho} / \partial \tau = \hat{L}[\hat{\rho}]$
2. **Expand:** $\int \partial P / \partial \tau \hat{\Lambda} d \vec{\lambda} = \int P \hat{L} [\hat{\Lambda}] d \vec{\lambda}$
3. **Transform:** the operators to differential form: $\hat{L} [\hat{\Lambda}] = \mathcal{L} \hat{\Lambda}$
4. **Integrate** by parts: $\int P \mathcal{L} \hat{\Lambda} d \vec{\lambda} \implies \int \hat{\Lambda} \mathcal{L}' P d \vec{\lambda}$
 - neglect boundary terms (for sufficiently bounded P)
 - \implies analyse stability of resulting phase-space trajectories
 - \implies monitor tails of P during simulation
5. **Obtain** Fokker-Planck equation: $\partial P / \partial \tau = \mathcal{L}' P$

Fokker-Planck equations

- resulting Fokker-Planck equation is of the form

$$\frac{d}{dt}P(\vec{\lambda}, \tau) = \left[-\sum_{a=0}^p \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_a} A_a(\vec{\lambda}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{a,b=0}^p \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_a} \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_b} D_{ab}(\vec{\lambda}) \right] P(\vec{\lambda}, \tau)$$

- A_a gives the drift (deterministic component)
- D_{ab} gives the diffusion (stochastic component)
- D_{ab} must be positive-definite (in terms of real variables)
 - always possible by appropriate choice of derivatives:

$$\partial/\partial \lambda_a = \partial/\partial \lambda_a^x = -i\partial/\partial \lambda_a^y$$

- freedom in derivatives comes from analyticity (overcompleteness)

Itô stochastic equations

- sample with Itô stochastic equations for $\vec{\lambda}$

$$d\lambda_a(\tau) = A_a(\vec{\lambda})d\tau + \sum_b B_{ab}(\vec{\lambda})dW_b(\tau)$$

- where $dW_b(\tau)$ are Weiner increments, obeying

$$\langle dW_b(\tau) dW_{b'}(\tau') \rangle = \delta_{b,b'} \delta(\tau - \tau') d\tau$$

- i. e. Gaussian white noise
- noise matrix B_{ab} is obtained by

$$D_{ab} = \sum_c B_{ac} B_{bc}$$

Stratonovich stochastic equations

- multiplicative SDEs do not obey the normal rules of calculus
 - ⇒ must take care to choose the appropriate numerical algorithm
- solution to Itô equations is obtained by an explicit (Euler) algorithm
- for solution by a semi-implicit method, must start from equivalent Stratonovich equations:

$$d\lambda_a = \left[A_a(\vec{\lambda}) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{bc} B_{cb}(\vec{\lambda}) \frac{\partial B_{ab}(\vec{\lambda})}{\partial \lambda_c} \right] d\tau + \sum_b B_{ab}(\vec{\lambda}) dW_b$$

- i.e. the drift is modified

Stochastic Gauges

- mapping from Hilbert space to phase space not unique
⇒ many “gauge” choices
- can alter noise terms B_{ij} (diffusion gauge¹)
- can introduce arbitrary drift functions $g_j(\vec{\lambda})$ (drift gauge²)

$$\text{Weight} \quad d\Omega = \Omega [U d\tau + g_j dW_j]$$

$$\text{Trajectory} \quad d\lambda_i = A_i d\tau + B_{ij} [dW_j - g_j d\tau]$$

- can also choose different bases, identities

1. L. I. Plimak, M. K. Olsen and M. J. Collett, Phys. Rev. A **64**, 025801 (2001)
2. P. Deuar and P. D. Drummond, Comp. Phys. Commun. **142**, 442 (2001); Phys. Rev. A **66**, 033812 (2002); J. Phys. A: Math. Gen. **39**, 2723 (2006)

Interacting many-body physics

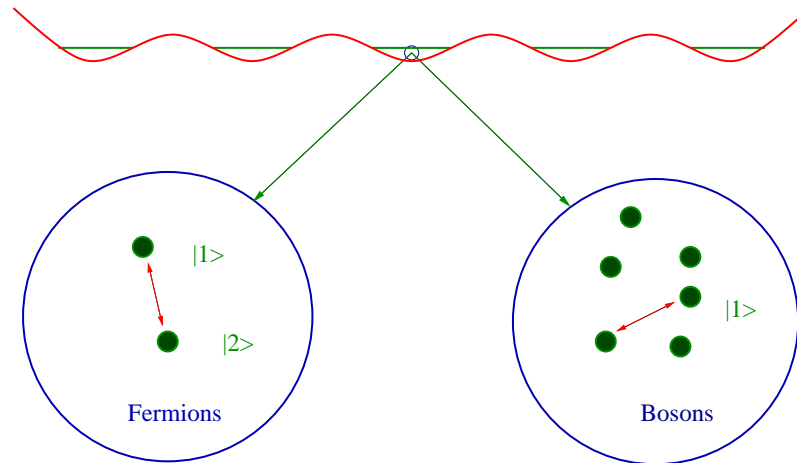
$$\hat{\rho} \Longrightarrow \vec{\lambda}$$

- ✓ many-body problems map to nonlinear stochastic equations
- ✓ calculations can be from first principles
- ✓ precision limited only by sampling error
- ✓ choose basis to suit the problem
- for more details on the Gaussian method for fermions, see J. F. Corney and P. D. Drummond, Phys. Rev. B **73** 125112 (2006).

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Application: Hubbard model



$$\hat{H} = - \sum_{ij,\sigma} t_{ij} \hat{c}_{i,\sigma}^\dagger \hat{c}_{j,\sigma} + U \sum_j \hat{c}_{j,\uparrow}^\dagger \hat{c}_{j,\downarrow}^\dagger \hat{c}_{j,\downarrow} \hat{c}_{j,\uparrow}$$

- simplest model of an interacting Fermi gas on a lattice
 - weak-coupling limit \rightarrow BCS transitions
 - solid-state models; relevance to High- T_c superconductors

Solving the Hubbard Model

- only the 1D model is exactly solvable (Lieb & Wu, 1968)
- even then, not all correlations can be calculated
- higher dimensions - can use Quantum Monte Carlo methods.
- ✗ except for a few special symmetrical cases, QMC suffers from sign problems with the Hubbard model
 - e.g. sign problems for repulsive interaction away from half filling
- ✗ sign problem increases with dimension, lattice size, interaction strength

Applying the Gaussian representation

- Use thermal basis, and apply mappings

$$\widehat{\mathbf{n}}_{\sigma} \widehat{\rho} \rightarrow \left\{ 2\mathbf{n}_{\sigma} - (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}_{\sigma}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\sigma} \right\} P(\Omega, \mathbf{n}_{\uparrow}, \mathbf{n}_{\downarrow})$$

$$\widehat{\rho} \widehat{\mathbf{n}}_{\sigma} \rightarrow \left\{ 2\mathbf{n}_{\sigma} - \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}_{\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\sigma}} (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}_{\sigma}) \right\} P(\Omega, \mathbf{n}_{\uparrow}, \mathbf{n}_{\downarrow})$$

$$\widehat{\rho} \rightarrow -\frac{\partial}{\partial \Omega} \Omega P(\Omega, \mathbf{n}_{\uparrow}, \mathbf{n}_{\downarrow})$$

⇒ Fokker-Planck equation for P , with drift and diffusion

⇒ sample with stochastic equations for Ω and \mathbf{n}_{σ}

Positive-Definite Diffusion

- Modify interaction term with a ‘Fermi gauge’:

$$U \sum_j : \hat{n}_{jj,\downarrow} \hat{n}_{jj,\uparrow} : = -\frac{1}{2} |U| \sum_j : \left(\hat{n}_{jj,\downarrow} - \frac{U}{|U|} \hat{n}_{jj,\uparrow} \right)^2 :$$

- ⇒ diffusion matrix has a real ‘square root’ matrix
- ⇒ realise the diffusion with a real noise process
- ⇒ problem maps to a real (and much more stable) subspace
- ⇒ weights Ω guaranteed to be *positive*

Itô Equations

- Itô stochastic equations, in matrix form:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{n}_\sigma}{d\tau} = -\frac{1}{2} \left\{ (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}_\sigma) \mathbf{T}_\sigma^{(1)} \mathbf{n}_\sigma + \mathbf{n}_\sigma \mathbf{T}_\sigma^{(2)} (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{n}_\sigma) \right\}$$
$$\frac{d\Omega}{d\tau} = \Omega \left\{ \sum_{ij,\sigma} t_{ij} n_{ij,\sigma} - U \sum_j n_{jj,\downarrow} n_{jj,\uparrow} + \mu \sum_{j,\sigma} n_{jj,\sigma} \right\}$$

where the stochastic propagator matrix is

$$T_{ij,\sigma}^{(r)} = -t_{ij} + \delta_{ij} \left\{ U n_{jj,\sigma'} - \mu \pm \sqrt{2|U|} \xi_j^{(r)} \right\}$$

- $\xi_j^{(r)}$ are delta-correlated white noises:

$$\langle \xi_j^{(r)}(\tau) \xi_{j'}^{(r')}(\tau') \rangle = \delta_{j,j'} \delta_{r,r'} \delta(\tau - \tau')$$

Stratonovich Equations

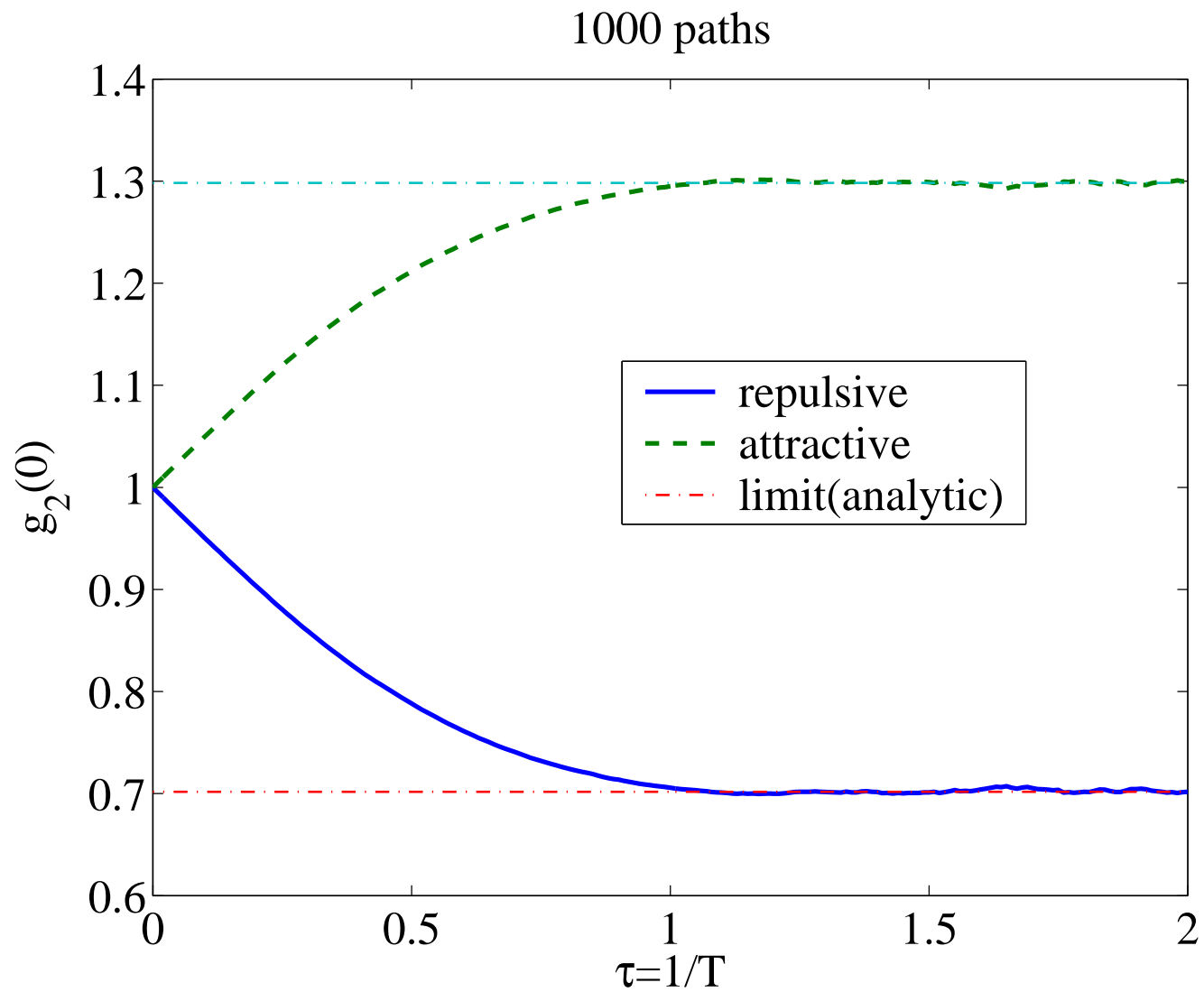
- in Stratonovich form, the stochastic propagator matrix is

$$T_{ij,\sigma}^{(r)} = -t_{ij} + \delta_{ij} \left\{ U \left(n_{jj,\sigma'} - n_{jj,\sigma} + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \mu \pm \sqrt{2|U|} \xi_j^{(r)} \right\}$$

- we use an iterative, semi-implicit algorithm¹, with an adaptive step-size to overcome stiffness
- for more on the Hubbard calculation, see 2 and 3

1. P.D. Drummond and I.K. Mortimer, J. Comp. Phys. 93 (1991) 144.
2. J. F. Corney and P. D. Drummond, Phys. Rev. Lett. **93**, 260401 (2004)
3. P. D. Drummond and J. F. Corney, Comput. Phys. Commun. **169**, 412 (2005)

1D Lattice-100 sites



Branching

- averages are weighted, eg

$$\langle \hat{\mathbf{n}}(\tau) \rangle = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N_p} \Omega^{(j)}(\tau) \mathbf{n}^{(j)}(\tau)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N_p} \Omega^{(j)}(\tau)}$$

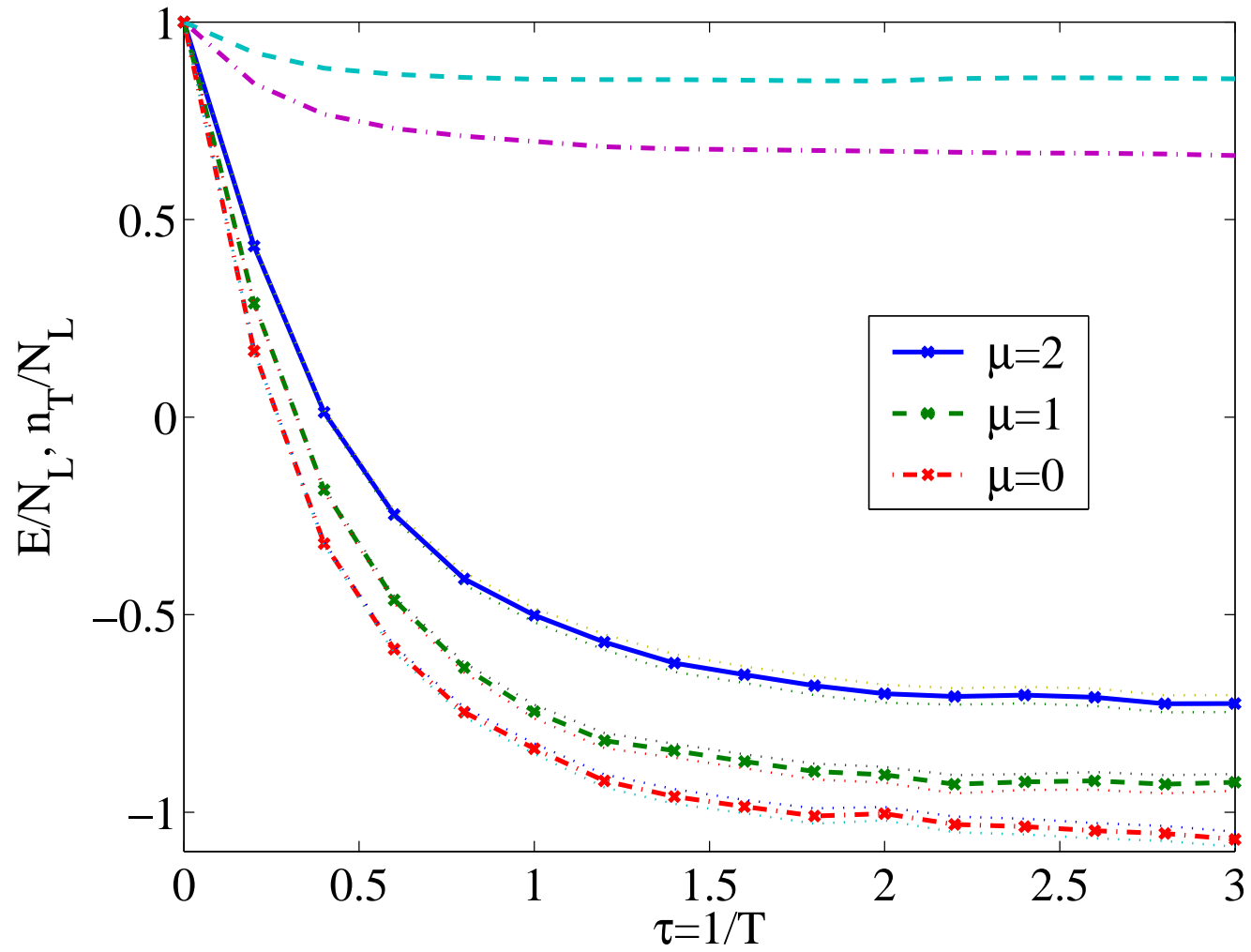
- ✗ but weights spread exponentially \implies many irrelevant paths

\implies delete low-weight paths and clone high-weight paths:

$$m^{(jp)} = \text{Integer} \left[\xi + \Omega^{(jp)} / \bar{\Omega} \right]$$

- $\xi \in [0, 1]$ is a random variable, $\bar{\Omega}$ is an average weight
- after branching, weights of surviving paths are equalised

16x16 2D Lattice



Symmetry Projection Schemes

- 4×4 , 16×16 calculations showed that sampling error was well controlled for various filling factors - including those for which other methods suffer a severe sign problem
- more precise simulations at Würzburg and Zürich showed inaccuracies at large β for some correlation functions
- but true ground-state results could be obtained by supplementing with a symmetry projection scheme¹
 - trade-off is an increase in sampling error

1. F. F. Assaad, P. Werner, P. Corboz, E. Gull and M. Troyer, Phys. Rev. B **72**, 224518 (2005)

Symmetry Preservation

- *problem*: chosen basis does not reflect all symmetries of the Hamiltonian
 - in principle, distribution will restore the symmetry
 - but broad tails mean that
 - accurate sampling is difficult
 - possibility of boundary-term errors
- *possible solution*:
 - use basis that possesses Hamiltonian symmetries
 - use stochastic gauges to ensure boundedness of P

Summary

- Generalised phase-space representations provide a means of simulating many-body quantum physics from first principles
- Coherent-state-based methods have been successful in simulating quantum dynamics of photons and weakly interacting bosons.
- Gaussian-based methods extend the applicability to highly correlated systems of bosons and *fermions*.
- Simulated the Hubbard model, apparently *without sign errors*.
- Some inaccuracies at low temperature can be overcome by:
 - supplementary *symmetry projection*, or
 - possibly by *basis* and *stochastic gauge* choice.

