

Simulating quantum computers with probabilistic methods

Tokyo Impact Lecture 1: Theory of phase-space representations

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Outline

- 1 Quantum dynamics
- 2 Number state evolution
- 3 Classical phase-space
- 4 Wigner stochastic equations
- 5 Non-classical phase-space
- 6 Examples

Photons: $\hbar\omega \ll kT$; Atoms: ULTRALOW temperatures to $1nK$

What is different about photons and ultracold atoms?

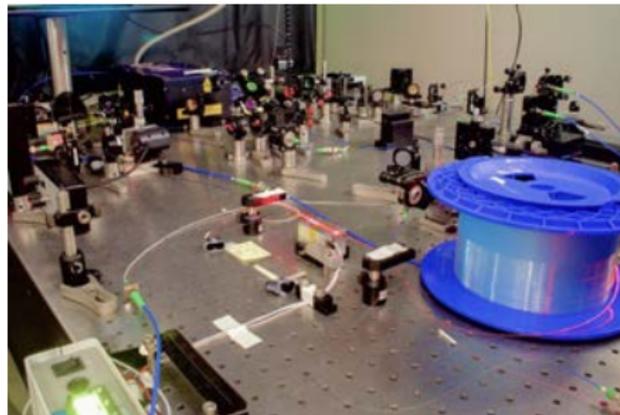
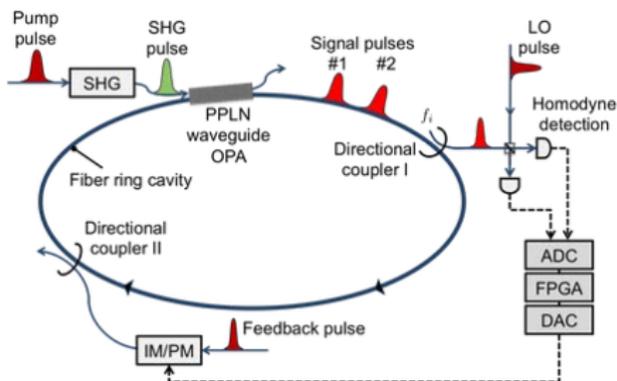
- Photons have weak interactions with dielectrics
- Retain quantum coherence over long distances
- Atoms can be trapped in a hard vacuum
- Cooling to nanoKelvins or less
- Correlations - mean field theory doesn't work
- Dynamics - time-evolution is very important

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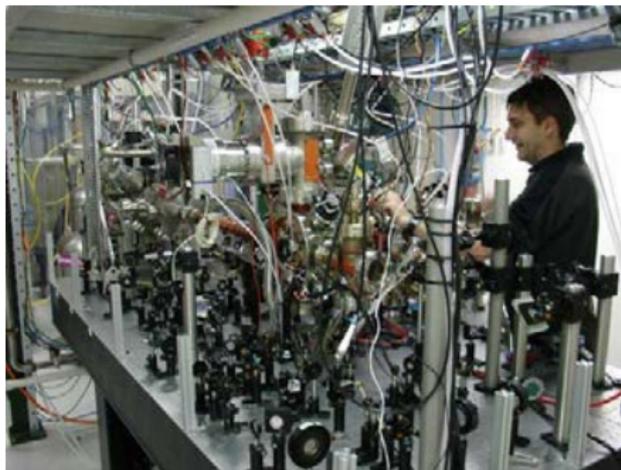
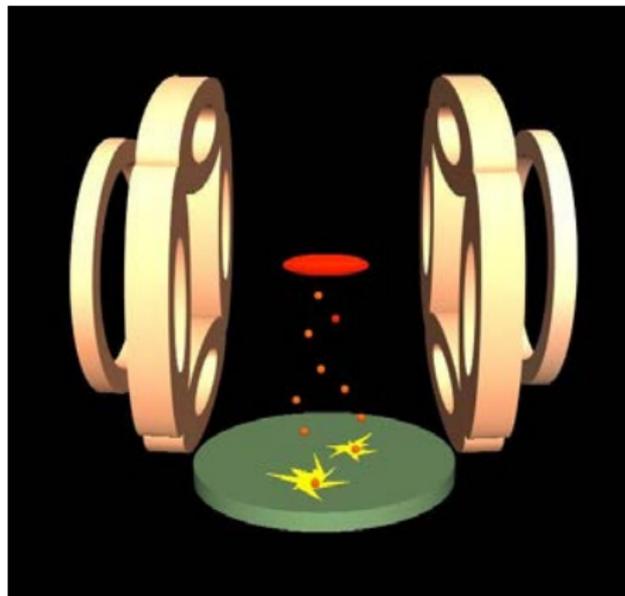
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Typical photonic experiment (Tokyo, Stanford)



Typical atomic experiment (Orsay, ANU)



How to calculate dynamics?

Classical solution: - use Hamilton's equations

$$\dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i}$$

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i}$$

Quantum mechanics replaces classical quantities with operators:

$$[\hat{q}_i, \hat{p}_j] = i\hbar\delta_{ij}$$

$$[\hat{q}_i, \hat{q}_j] = [\hat{p}_i, \hat{p}_j] = 0$$

Then, for any operator \hat{O} , in the Heisenberg picture:

$$\frac{\partial \hat{O}}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{O}, \hat{H}]$$

What about mixtures of states?

Suppose the quantum system is in a mixture of quantum states $|\psi_m\rangle$ with probability p_m . Then the density matrix $\hat{\rho}$ is defined as:

$$\hat{\rho} = \sum_m p_m |\psi_m\rangle \langle \psi_m|$$

In the Schrodinger picture, we let states evolve in time, not operators!

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{H}, \hat{\rho}]$$

Then, for any operator \hat{O} , the expectation value of the observable is:

$$\langle \hat{O} \rangle = \text{Tr} [\hat{\rho} \hat{O}]$$

What is the quantum field Hamiltonian anyway?

Here $\hat{\Psi}_i$ is a bosonic field of spin/frequency index i :

$$\left[\hat{\Psi}_i(\mathbf{x}), \hat{\Psi}_i^\dagger(\mathbf{x}') \right]_{\pm} = \delta_{ij} \delta^D(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')$$

In second quantization the quantum Hamiltonian is

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H} = & \sum_i \int d^D \mathbf{x} \left\{ \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla \hat{\Psi}_i^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \nabla \hat{\Psi}_i(\mathbf{x}) + U_i^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_i^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_i(\mathbf{x}) \right\} \\ & \sum_{ijk} \int d^D \mathbf{x} \left\{ U_{ijk}^{(2)}(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_i^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_j(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_k(\mathbf{x}) + h.c. \right\} \\ & + \sum_{ij} \frac{1}{2} \int d^D \mathbf{x} U_{ij}^{(3)}(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_i^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_j^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_j(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_i(\mathbf{x}) . \end{aligned}$$

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What are the parameters?

This describes a dilute gas of photons or atoms:

- $\langle \hat{\Psi}_i^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\Psi}_i(\mathbf{x}) \rangle$ is the spin i particle density,
- m is the effective mass, or equivalent dispersion coefficient
- $U_i^{(1)}$ is the trapping potential
- $U_{ijk}^{(2)}$ is the parametric coupling for downconversion
- $U_{ij}^{(3)}$ is $\chi^{(3)}$ for photons, S-wave scattering for atoms
- Here we implicitly assume a momentum cutoff k_c

How do we treat quantum fields?

Any field operator $\hat{\Psi}$ can be expanded in orthogonal modes:

$$\hat{\Psi}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum \hat{a}_m u_m(\mathbf{x})$$

Where: $\int d^3\mathbf{x} u_m^*(\mathbf{x}) u_n(\mathbf{x}) = \delta_{mn}$

Nonvanishing field (anti)-commutators are given by:

$$\left[\hat{\Psi}(\mathbf{x}), \hat{\Psi}^\dagger(\mathbf{x}') \right]_{\pm} = \delta^3(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')$$

(+) = anticommutator (FERMION) and

(-) = commutator (BOSON)

Assume that the mode operators are localized on a lattice

Take a discrete Fourier transform to get localized modes

Spin and position indices = $\{s_k, \mathbf{r}_k\}$ with lattice volume ΔV :

$$\hat{a}_i = \sqrt{\Delta V} \hat{\Psi}_{s_k \mathbf{r}_k}$$

In the case of bosonic (fermionic) fields, the commutators (anticommutators) are defined as:

$$\left\{ \hat{a}_i, \hat{a}_j^\dagger \right\}_\pm = \delta_{ij}$$

The Hamiltonian is exact for a large number of sites:

$$\hat{H}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}^\dagger, \hat{\mathbf{a}}) \approx \hbar \left[\omega_{ij} \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j + \chi_{ijk} \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j \hat{a}_k + \frac{1}{2} \kappa_{ij} \hat{n}_i \hat{n}_j \right].$$

What do the mode operators do?

Bosons \leftrightarrow harmonic oscillators; fermions \leftrightarrow two-level atoms

$$\hat{a}^\dagger |N\rangle = \delta_N |N+1\rangle \text{ (FERMION)}$$

$$\hat{a}^\dagger |N\rangle = \sqrt{N+1} |N+1\rangle \text{ (BOSON)}$$

$$\hat{a} |N\rangle = \sqrt{N} |N-1\rangle$$

Hence the single mode number operator is $\hat{N} = \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}$:

$$\hat{N} |N\rangle = \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} |N\rangle = \hat{a}^\dagger \sqrt{N} |N-1\rangle = N |N\rangle$$

In the FERMION case, you can only have $N = 0, 1$

What quantum states can we have?

Quantum states are generated from the vacuum state

- Number states:

$$|N_1, \dots, N_m\rangle = \frac{(\psi_1)^{N_1} \dots (a_m^\dagger)^{N_m}}{\sqrt{N_1! \dots N_m!}} |0\rangle$$

- Properties:

$$\langle \mathbf{M} | \mathbf{N} \rangle = \delta_{N_1 M_1} \dots \delta_{N_m M_m}$$

- Fermion case: must have $N_j = 0, 1$

All other states can be generated using linear combinations

Example: single mode coherent state

Single mode coherent state has a well-defined phase

- Boson coherent state:

$$|\alpha\rangle = e^{\alpha\hat{a}^\dagger - |\alpha|^2/2} |0\rangle = e^{-|\alpha|^2/2} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^N}{\sqrt{N!}} |N\rangle$$

- Fermion coherent state: requires Grassmann algebra (not treated)

Important properties:

$$\begin{aligned} |\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle|^2 &= e^{-|\alpha-\beta|^2} \\ \hat{a}|\alpha\rangle &= \alpha|\alpha\rangle \\ \langle\alpha|\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}|\alpha\rangle &= |\alpha|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Suppose the quantum system is described by a few modes:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum \psi_{\mathbf{N}} |N_1, N_2, \dots, N_m\rangle = \sum \psi_{\mathbf{N}} |\mathbf{N}\rangle$$

Then, let $H_{\mathbf{NM}} = \langle \mathbf{N} | \hat{H} | \mathbf{M} \rangle$ and: $\frac{d}{dt} |\psi\rangle = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{H} |\psi\rangle$
Hence, we have a simple matrix equation:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \psi_{\mathbf{N}} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \sum_{\mathbf{M}} H_{\mathbf{NM}} \psi_{\mathbf{M}}$$

Problem: quantum theory is exponentially complex!

Quantum many-body problems are very large

- consider N particles distributed among M modes
- take $N \simeq M \simeq 500,000$:
- Number of quantum states: $N_s = 2^{2N} = 2^{1,000,000}$
- **More quantum states than atoms in the universe**
- How big is your computer?
- **Can't diagonalize $2^{1,000,000} \times 2^{1,000,000}$ Hamiltonian!**

What about losses and damping?

Damping can be treated using a master equation

- The density matrix $\hat{\rho}$ evolves as:

$$\frac{d\hat{\rho}}{dt} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} [\hat{H}, \hat{\rho}] + \sum_j \kappa_j \int d^3\mathbf{r} \mathcal{L}_j[\hat{\rho}]$$

- Here the Liouville terms describe coupling to the reservoirs:

$$\mathcal{L}_j[\hat{\rho}] = 2\hat{O}_j\hat{\rho}\hat{O}_j^\dagger - \hat{O}_j^\dagger\hat{O}_j\hat{\rho} - \hat{\rho}\hat{O}_j^\dagger\hat{O}_j$$

- For n-particle collisions: $\hat{O}_i = [\hat{\Psi}_i(\mathbf{r})]^n$

Traditional quantum theory methods?

- numerical diagonalisation?
intractable for $\gtrsim 10$ modes
- operator factorization
not applicable for strong correlations
- perturbation theory
diverges at strong couplings, large order
- exact solutions
not usually applicable to quantum dynamics

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Properties of Wigner/Moyal phase-space

- Maps quantum states into **classical phase-space** $\alpha = p + ix$
- **Wigner first published this representation**
- Moyal showed equivalence to quantum mechanics
- **Complexity grows only linearly with number of modes!**

Problem: Wigner distribution can have negative values

- **Need to truncate equations to get positive probabilities**

Mapping of characteristic functions

$$W(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\pi^{2M}} \int d^{2M}z \left\langle e^{iz \cdot (\hat{a} - \alpha) + iz^* \cdot (\hat{a}^\dagger - \alpha^*)} \right\rangle$$

Operator mean values

- $\langle \hat{a}_i^{\dagger m} \hat{a}_j^n \rangle_{SYM} = \int d^{2M} \alpha \alpha_i^{*m} \alpha_j^n W(\alpha) = \langle \alpha_i^{*m} \alpha_j^n \rangle_W$
- $\langle \hat{a}_j \rangle = \langle \alpha_j \rangle_W$
- $\langle \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_j + \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_j^\dagger \rangle / 2 = \langle \alpha_i^* \alpha_j \rangle_W$

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Mapping of dynamical equations

$$\frac{\partial W(\boldsymbol{\alpha})}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\pi^{2M}} \int d^{2M} \mathbf{z} \text{Tr} \left[\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}}{\partial t} e^{i\mathbf{z} \cdot (\hat{\mathbf{a}} - \boldsymbol{\alpha}) + i\mathbf{z}^* \cdot (\hat{\mathbf{a}}^\dagger - \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*)} \right]$$

Operator mappings

- $\hat{a}_j \hat{\rho} \rightarrow \left(\alpha_j + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_j^*} \right) W$
- $\hat{\rho} \hat{a}_j^\dagger \rightarrow \left(\alpha_j^* + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_j} \right) W$
- $\hat{a}_j^\dagger \hat{\rho} \rightarrow \left(\alpha_j^* - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_j} \right) W$
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Nonvanishing vacuum expectation values are given by:

$$\langle \psi^*(\mathbf{x}) \psi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \delta^3(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')$$

Example: Wigner function for a coherent state

Suppose we have a single mode system in a coherent state

$$\hat{\rho} = |\alpha_0\rangle\langle\alpha_0|$$

Hence:

$$W(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\pi^2} \int d^2z \langle\alpha_0| e^{iz\cdot(\hat{a}-\alpha)+iz\cdot(\hat{a}^\dagger-\alpha^*)} |\alpha_0\rangle$$

Solution with a little algebra

$$W(\alpha) = \frac{2}{\pi} e^{-2|\alpha-\alpha_0|^2}$$

This solution gives $\langle\alpha^*\alpha\rangle = 1/2$ for a vacuum state

Example: time-evolution of harmonic oscillator

Consider the harmonic oscillator

$$\hat{H} = \hbar\omega \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}$$
$$\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}}{\partial t} = -i\omega [\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{\rho} - \hat{\rho} \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}]$$

Operator mappings

- $\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{\rho} \rightarrow \left(\alpha^* - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \right) \left(\alpha + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha^*} \right) W$

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- $$\frac{\partial W}{\partial t} = i\omega \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \alpha - \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha^*} \alpha^* \right) W$$

Harmonic oscillator solution

General result for harmonic oscillator

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial t} = i\omega \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \alpha - \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha^*} \alpha^* \right) W$$

Solution by method of characteristics

-

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial t} = -i\omega \alpha$$

-

$$\alpha(t) = \alpha(0)e^{-i\omega t}$$

Fokker-Planck equations

Result of operator mappings:

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial t} = \left\{ -\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_i} A_i + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \alpha_i \partial \alpha_j^*} D_{ij} + \frac{1}{6} \frac{\partial^3}{\partial \alpha_i \partial \alpha_j^* \partial \alpha_k^*} T_{ijk} + \dots \right\} W$$

Scaling to eliminate higher-order terms

$$x = \alpha / \sqrt{N}$$

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial t} = \left\{ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} A_i + \frac{1}{2N} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} D_{ij} + O\left(\frac{1}{N^{3/2}}\right) \right\} W$$

Result of operator mappings + truncation - valid if $N/M \gg 1$:

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial t} = \left\{ -\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_i} A_i + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \alpha_i \partial \alpha_j^*} D_{ij} \right\} W$$

Equivalent stochastic equation

$$\frac{\partial \alpha_i}{\partial t} = A_i + \zeta_i(t)$$

where:

$$\langle \zeta_i(t) \zeta_j^*(t') \rangle = D_{ij} \delta(t - t')$$

Example: optical fiber/BEC case

Result of operator mappings + truncation - for the GPE:

$$\frac{d\psi_j}{dt} = iK_j\psi_j - iU_{ij}^{(3)}|\psi_i|^2\psi_j - \gamma_j\psi_j + \sqrt{\gamma_j}\zeta_j(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

Here the linear unitary evolution of the wave-function, is described by:

$$K_j = \hbar\nabla^2/2m - U_j^{(1)}(\mathbf{r})$$

while $\zeta_j(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is a complex, stochastic delta-correlated Gaussian noise with

$$\langle \zeta_i(\mathbf{x}, t)\zeta_j^*(\mathbf{x}', t') \rangle = \delta_{ij}\delta^3(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')\delta(t - t').$$

Initial fluctuations: $\langle \Delta\Psi_s(\mathbf{x})\Delta\Psi_u^*(\mathbf{x}') \rangle = \frac{1}{2}\delta_{su}\delta^3(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')$

Result of operator mappings + truncation

$$\frac{d\psi_0}{dt} = -\gamma_0 \psi_0 + \mathcal{E}(x) - \chi \psi_1 \psi_2 + \frac{iv_0^2}{2\omega_0} \nabla^2 \psi_0 + \sqrt{\gamma_0} \zeta_0$$

$$\frac{d\psi_1}{dt} = -\gamma_1 \psi_1 + \chi \psi_0 \psi_2^* + \frac{iv_1^2}{2\omega_1} \nabla^2 \psi_1 + \sqrt{\gamma_1} \zeta_1$$

$$\frac{d\psi_2}{dt} = -\gamma_2 \psi_2 + \chi \psi_0 \psi_1^* + \frac{iv_2^2}{2\omega_2} \nabla^2 \psi_2 + \sqrt{\gamma_2} \zeta_2$$

$\zeta_i(t)$ is a complex, stochastic delta-correlated Gaussian noise:

$$\langle \zeta_i(\mathbf{x}, t) \zeta_j^*(\mathbf{x}', t') \rangle = \delta_{ij} \delta^3(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') \delta(t - t').$$

What do we do with modes having low occupation numbers?

- Truncated Wigner only works if all modes are heavily occupied
- How about modeling other cases with low occupations:
 - **Example: formation** of a BEC must start with low occupation!
 - collisions that generate atoms in initially empty modes
 - coupling to thermal modes having low occupation?
- **We need a technique without the large N approximation**
- The positive-P representation does not truncate terms

The positive P-representation expands in coherent state projectors

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

Enlarged phase-space allows positive probabilities!

- Maps quantum states into $4M$ real coordinates: $\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{p} + ix, \mathbf{p}' + ix'$
- Double the size of a classical phase-space
- Exact mappings even for low occupations
- **Advantage:** Can represent entangled states

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- Exact mappings even for low occupations
- **Advantage:** Can represent entangled states

For ANY density matrix, a positive P-function always exists

$$P(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2M}} e^{-|\boldsymbol{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{\beta}^*|^2/4} \left\langle \frac{\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \boldsymbol{\beta}^*}{2} \left| \hat{\rho} \right| \frac{\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \boldsymbol{\beta}^*}{2} \right\rangle$$

Enlarged phase-space allows positive probabilities!

- **Advantage:** Probabilistic sampling is possible
- **Problem:** Non-uniqueness may allow sampling error to grow in time

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- **Advantage:** Probabilistic **sampling is possible**
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Differentiating the projection operator gives the following identities

$$\widehat{a}_n^\dagger \widehat{\rho} \rightarrow \left[\beta_n - \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_n} \right] P$$

$$\widehat{a}_n \widehat{\rho} \rightarrow \alpha_n P$$

$$\widehat{\rho} \widehat{a}_n \rightarrow \left[\alpha_n - \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_n} \right] P$$

$$\widehat{\rho} \widehat{a}_n^\dagger \rightarrow \beta_n P$$

Since the projector is an analytic function of both α_n and β_n , we can obtain alternate identities by replacing $\partial/\partial\alpha$ by either $\partial/\partial\alpha_x$ or $\partial/i\partial\alpha_y$. This equivalence allows a positive-definite diffusion to be obtained, with stochastic evolution.

How do we calculate an operator expectation value

- There is a correspondence between the moments of the distribution, and the normally ordered operator products.
- These come from the fact that coherent states are eigenstates of the annihilation operator
- Using $\text{Tr} [\hat{\Lambda}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})] = 1$:

$$\langle \hat{a}_m^\dagger \cdots \hat{a}_n \rangle = \int \int P(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) [\beta_m \cdots \alpha_n] d^{2M} \boldsymbol{\alpha} d^{2M} \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

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Operator mappings

- $\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \hat{\rho} \rightarrow \left[\beta - \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \right] \alpha P$
- $\hat{\rho} \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \rightarrow \left[\alpha - \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \right] \beta P$
-

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = i\omega \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \alpha - \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \beta \right) P$$

Example: time-evolution of harmonic oscillator

Consider the harmonic oscillator

$$\hat{H} = \hbar\omega \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}$$
$$\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}}{\partial t} = -i\omega [\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \hat{\rho} - \hat{\rho} \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}]$$

Operator mappings

- $\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \hat{\rho} \rightarrow \left[\beta - \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \right] \alpha P$
- $\hat{\rho} \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \rightarrow \left[\alpha - \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \right] \beta P$
-

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = i\omega \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \alpha - \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \beta \right) P$$

Harmonic oscillator solution

General result for harmonic oscillator

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = i\omega \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \alpha - \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \beta \right) P$$

Solution by method of characteristics

-

$$\frac{d\alpha}{dt} = -i\omega\alpha$$

-

$$\alpha(t) = \alpha(0)e^{-i\omega t}$$

The linear time evolution is exactly the same as for a Wigner function
For coherent states, initial condition is a delta function, not a Gaussian.

Take a more general Hamiltonian, with nonlinear terms

Then we define

$$\vec{\alpha} = (\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \equiv (\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}^+)$$

and find using operator mappings that - provided the distribution is sufficiently bounded at infinity:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} P(t, \vec{\alpha}) = \left[\partial_i A_i(\vec{\alpha}) + \frac{1}{2} \partial_i \partial_j D_{ij}(t, \vec{\alpha}) \right] P(t, \vec{\alpha}).$$

Comparison of positive-P and Wigner

- There are no other terms in +P - higher order derivatives all vanish
- Nonlinear couplings cause noise, linear damping does not

How do we treat +P fields?

Field operators come in conjugate pairs:

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum \alpha_m u_m(\mathbf{x}) \\ \psi^+(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum \alpha_m^+ u_m^*(\mathbf{x})\end{aligned}$$

Where: $\int d^3\mathbf{x} u_m^*(\mathbf{x}) u_n(\mathbf{x}) = \delta_{mn}$

Vacuum expectation values are given by:

$$\langle \psi^+(\mathbf{x}) \psi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle = 0$$

+P equations for the fiber/BEC case

Exact result of operator mappings - assume U_{ij} is diagonal

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\psi_j}{dt} &= iK_j\psi_j - iU_j^{(3)}\psi_j^+\psi_j^2 + \sqrt{-iU_j^{(3)}}\psi_j\zeta_j(t) \\ \frac{d\psi_j^+}{dt} &= -iK_j\psi_j^+ + iU_j^{(3)}\psi_j\psi_j^{+2} + \sqrt{iU_j^{(3)}}\psi_j^+\zeta_j^+(t)\end{aligned}$$

$\zeta_i(t)$ is a real, stochastic delta-correlated Gaussian noise, from nonlinearities:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \zeta_i(t, x)\zeta_j(t', x') \rangle &= \delta_{ij}\delta(t-t')\delta(x-x') \\ \langle \zeta_i^+(t, x)\zeta_j^+(t', x') \rangle &= \delta_{ij}\delta(t-t')\delta(x-x') .\end{aligned}$$

Single mode case of an anharmonic oscillator

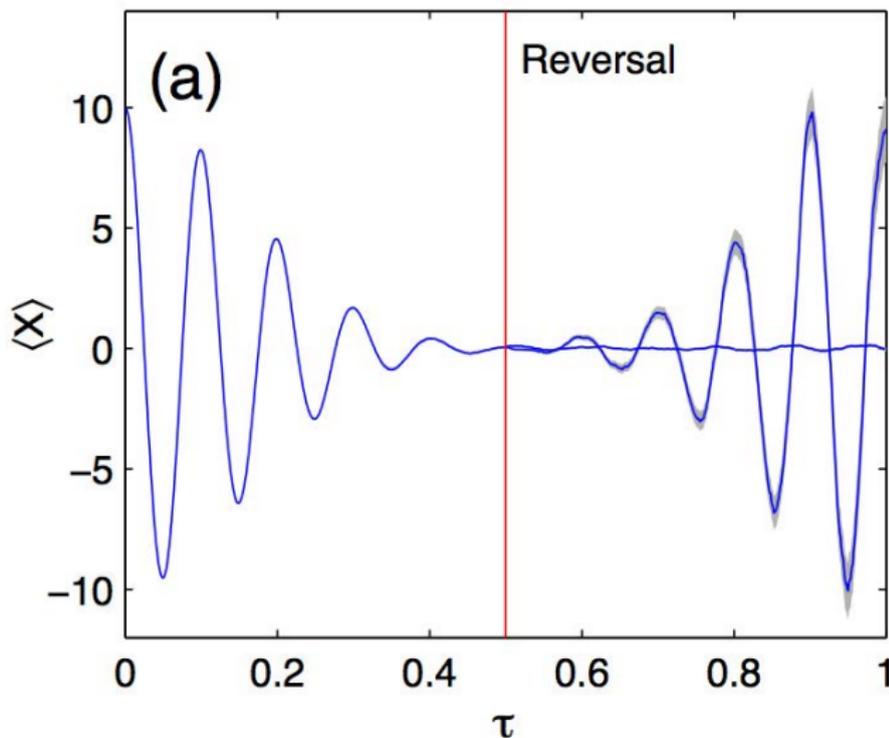
$$\frac{d\alpha}{dt} = -i\chi\alpha^2\beta + \sqrt{-i\chi}\alpha\zeta_1(t)$$
$$\frac{d\beta}{dt} = i\chi\beta^2\alpha + \sqrt{i\chi}\beta\zeta_2(t)$$

$\zeta_i(t)$ is a real, stochastic delta-correlated Gaussian noise:

$$\langle \zeta_i(t)\zeta_j(t') \rangle = \delta_{ij}\delta(t-t').$$

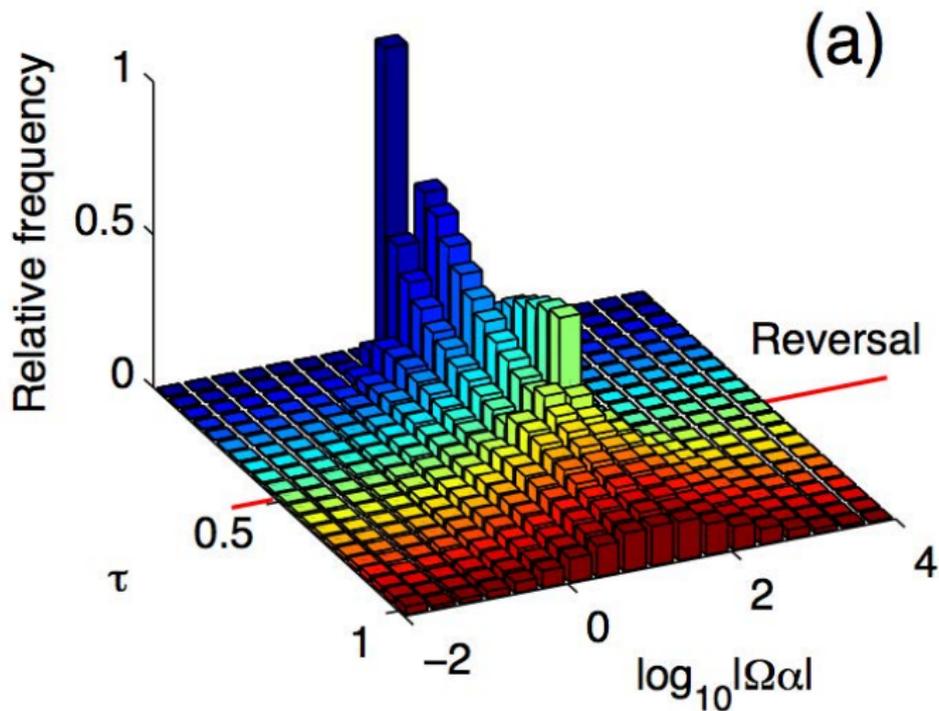
- What happens if we change the sign of χ ?
- This is the same as reversing the time-direction.
- How can stochastic processes be reversible?

Time-reversal test: up to 10^{23} interacting bosons



Graph is for 100 photon case

Phase-space distribution is not unique!



Initial and final quantum states identical, distributions have changed!

Single mode case of an anharmonic oscillator

$$\frac{d\psi_0}{dt} = -\gamma_0 \psi_0 + \mathcal{E}(x) - \chi \psi_1 \psi_2 + \frac{i\nu_0^2}{2\omega_0} \nabla^2 \psi_0$$

$$\frac{d\psi_1}{dt} = -\gamma_1 \psi_1 + \chi \psi_0 \psi_2 + \frac{i\nu_1^2}{2\omega_1} \nabla^2 \psi_1 + \sqrt{\chi \psi_0} \xi_1$$

$$\frac{d\psi_2}{dt} = -\gamma_2 \psi_2 + \chi \psi_0 \psi_1 + \frac{i\nu_2^2}{2\omega_2} \nabla^2 \psi_2 + \sqrt{\chi \psi_0} \xi_2$$

$\zeta_i(t)$ is a complex, stochastic delta-correlated Gaussian noise:

$$\langle \zeta_i(\mathbf{x}, t) \zeta_j(\mathbf{x}', t') \rangle = \delta_{ij} \delta^3(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') \delta(t - t').$$

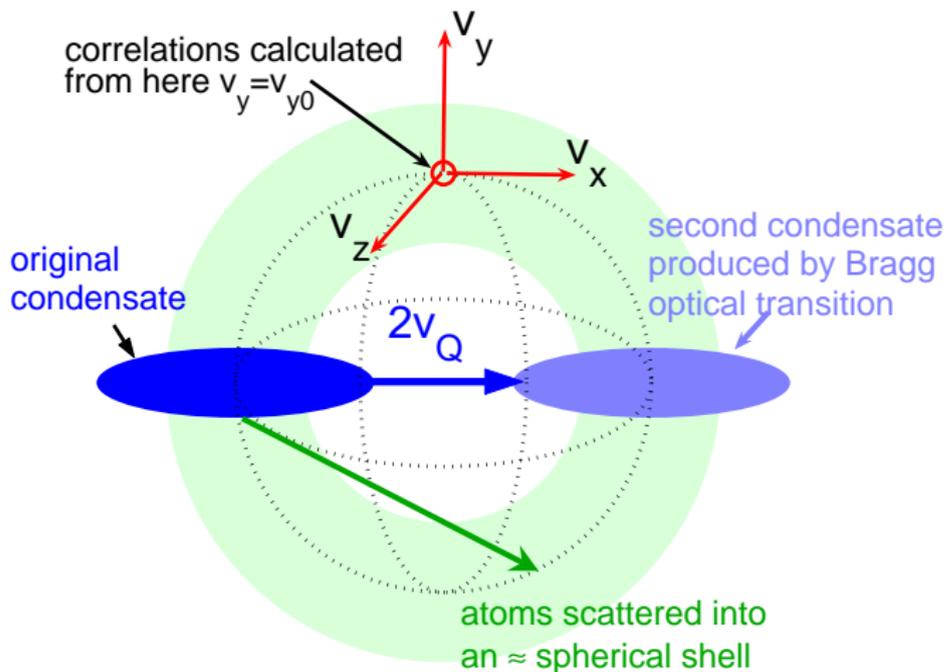
Hard quantum problems \rightarrow tractable stochastic equations

Can improve sampling error using a weight factor Ω

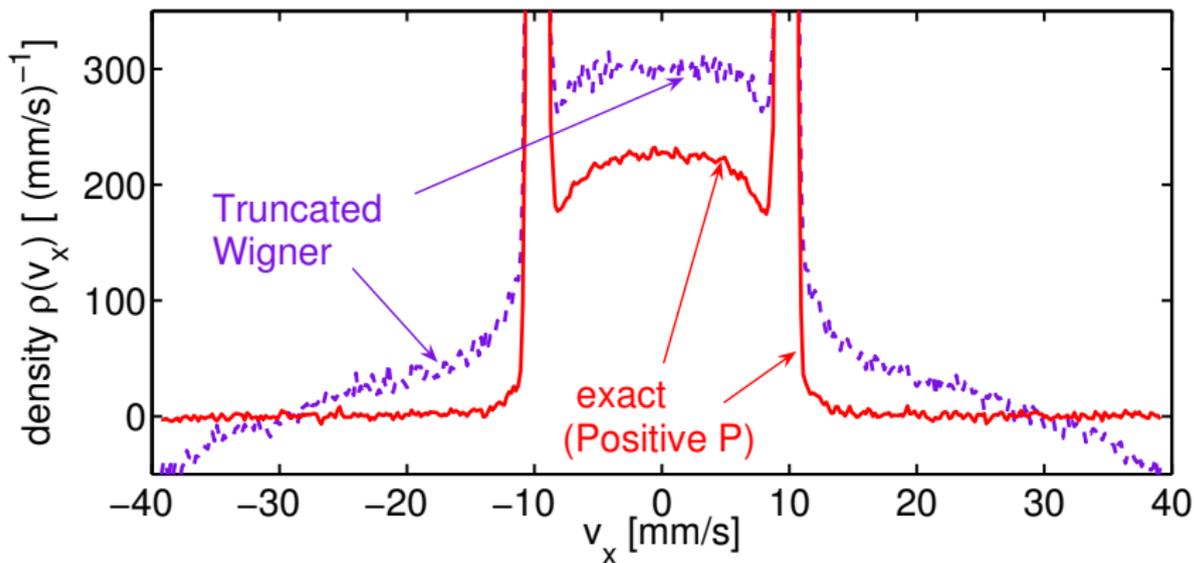
$$\begin{aligned}d\Omega/\partial t &= \Omega \mathbf{g} \cdot \boldsymbol{\zeta} \\d\boldsymbol{\alpha}/\partial t &= \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}(\boldsymbol{\zeta} - \mathbf{g})\end{aligned}$$

- Can be used for fermions OR bosons
 - Many trajectories needed to control growing sampling errors
 - **g is a gauge chosen to stabilize trajectories**
 - A careful choice of basis, gauge and stochastic method is necessary

BEC collision: 10^5 bosons, 10^6 spatial modes



Positive-P vs Truncated Wigner



3D Truncated Wigner: diverges, too few particles per mode!
+P: converges, but the sampling error increases with time

Phase-space representation methods have many applications

Phase-space approach is relatively simple!

- Maps **quantum field evolution** into a stochastic equation
- Can also be used to treat interferometry
- **Advantage:** No exponential complexity issues!
- Mathematical challenge:
 - truncation error for Wigner methods
 - sampling error can grow with time

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