Probing entanglement in quantum processors with the randomized measurements toolbox

Heidelberg

Benoît Vermersch

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LPMMC Grenoble



Entanglement versus quantum computers

The randomized measurement toolbox for measuring entanglement

A recent experiment with a quantum computer

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Classical computers use classical bits

- One classical bit:
 → state in 0 or 1
- N classical bits:
 - $\rightarrow 2^N$ possibilities for the state (00...00, 00...01,etc)

Quantum computers use qubits

One qubit:
|ψ⟩ = α |0⟩ + β |1⟩ *N* qubits:
(ψ) = c_{0...0} |0...0⟩ + c_{0...1} |0...1⟩ +
The quantum state can be simulatenously in all the 2^N classical states.

What is a quantum computer?





• Any *N*-qubit state (dim 2^N) can be created (Deutsch 1989).

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{s_1,...,s_N} c_{s_1,...,s_N} |s_1\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |s_N\rangle$$
 (1)

• Quantum algorithms are designed to solve classical problems or quantum problems

Why we may expect quantum speedup with quantum parallelism

- Unstructured search on a space of 2^N bitstrings: We look for x, such that $f(x = x_1, ..., x_N) = 1$.
- Optimal classical algorithm: Random testing, with time complexity $O(2^N)$
- Optimal quantum algorithm: Grover's algorithm



- The first quantum gate creates a uniform quantum superposition of all 2^N bitstring states
- Complexity $O(\sqrt{2^N})$: polynomial improvement.
- Note: Quantum parallelism does not guarantee quantum speedup for solving *anything*: One needs to extract relevant classical information from the quantum superposition state.

• Every quantum circuits ends up with a measurement



that produces random output s_1, \ldots, s_N ($s_i = 0, 1$) based on Born probabilities.

$$P(s_1,\ldots,s_N) = |\langle s_1,\ldots,s_N | \psi \rangle|^2$$
(2)

- Efficient quantum algorithms are the ones that give the solution to your problem in this *classical* data.
- Measurement precision?: Analytical performance guarantees based on standard tools of statistical estimation (variance, confidence intervals...)

Noisy quantum computers



• Error propagation is typically exponential in size and time (Image: Google AI)

- Time is for benchmarks: check the 'quantum aspects' of a quantum computer
- Time is also for quantum simulation: understand a quantum problem using a quantum computer (ground-state physics, non-equilibrium problem, etc)

• Take two parts of a quantum system A B (eg sets of qubits)

- A and B are entangled iff $|\psi
 angle
 eq |\psi_A
 angle \otimes |\psi_B
 angle$
- Example with two qubits. The Bell state $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle)$ is entangled

How to quantify entanglement?



• The reduced state of a quantum state in region A is defined by a density matrix

$$\rho_{A} = \operatorname{Tr}_{B}(|\psi\rangle \langle \psi|) = \sum_{s_{B}} \langle s_{B} | \psi\rangle \langle \psi | |s_{B}\rangle$$
(3)

• For instance, with the Bell state

$$\rho_{A} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{s_{B}=0,1} \langle s_{B} | |00\rangle \langle 00| + |00\rangle \langle 11| + |11\rangle \langle 00| + |11\rangle \langle 11| |s_{B}\rangle = \frac{1}{2} (|0\rangle \langle 0| + |1\rangle \langle 1|)$$
(4)

• Entanglement means: ρ_A has more than one eigenvalue

• For pure states, entanglement entropies of the reduced state $\rho_A = \text{Tr}_B(|\psi\rangle \langle \psi|)$ are entanglement measures

$$S_{\rm vN} = -\text{Tr}[\rho_A \log(\rho_A)] \text{ von Neumann Entropies}$$

$$S_\alpha = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \log[\text{Tr}(\rho_A^\alpha)] \text{ Rényi entropies}$$
(5)

Entanglement is the most important concept in quantum information theory:

- All quantum algorithms involve entangled states.
- Quantum algorithms with a 'low' level of entanglement can be efficiently simulated with a classical computer, i.e. they are 'useless' (Eisert RMP 2010).
- Decoherence = Presence of entanglement with the environment.
- Distinguish many-body quantum phases in quantum simulation
- Essential for quantum metrology

Digression

- Entanglement in Heidelberg!
- Becher et al, PRL 2020. Fermi-Hubbard model with cold atoms



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- Born rules (density matrix version): Bitstring s is measured with probability $\langle s | u \rho u^{\dagger} | s \rangle$
- High fidelity basis transformations $u = \bigotimes_{i} u_{i}.$
- This is repeated $N_u \times N_M$ times to obtain a classical dataset s_{i_u,i_M} .

How can we retrieve quantum information (about ρ) in the classical dataset?

In practice



- Trapped ions 'programmable quantum simulators' (Innsbruck, 2014-)
- from 1 to 100 qubits
- State almost pure $\rho\approx\left|\psi\right\rangle\left\langle\psi\right|$
- Measurement fidelity $\sim 99.9\%$
- 4 bitstrings per seconds & experiments stable during hours \rightarrow dataset of $N_u N_M \approx 10^5$ bitstrings
- With superconducting qubits: $\sim 10^3$ faster, $N_u N_M \approx 10^7$

Take-home message: Quantum technologies = a unique opportunity to learn about quantum states!

One approach: Randomized measurements



- *u_i* chosen independently from the circular unitary ensemble (CUE)
- We extract quantities of interest from the statistics of P_u(s), over random unitary transformations.
- First proposal (van Enk Beenakker PRL 2012)
- With qubits (Elben et al, PRL 2019)

RM protocol for qubits (A. Elben, BV et al, PRL 2018)



- Protocol:
 - (i) apply independent random single qubit rotations (ii) measure states $|s\rangle = |s_1, \dots, s_N\rangle$
 - (iii) Postprocess data (D(s, s') is the Hamming distance, number of mismatchs between s and s')

$$\mathrm{Tr}(\rho^2) = 2^N E_u \left[\sum_{s,s'} (-2)^{-D(s,s')} P_u(s) P_u(s') \right]$$

$$\mathrm{Tr}(\rho^2) = 2^N E_u \big[\sum_{s,s'} (-2)^{-D(s,s')} P_u(s) P_u(s') \big]$$

- Analytical Proof: Random matrix theory (unitary *n*-designs).
- 'Cheap' postprocessing of the measurement data.
- Statistical errors \rightarrow 'large' required number of measurements $\sim 2^N$, but 'much smaller' than for quantum state tomography $\sim 4^N 8^N$.

Demonstration with a trapped ion quantum computer (Brydges et al, Science 2019)



• A programmable quantum simulator



• Goal: Understand entanglement growth in a quantum system

Demonstration with a trapped ion quantum computer (Brydges et al, Science 2019)

• Demonstration of randomized measurements with the measurement of the purity



RMs are now used routinely in the lab

$$S_{\text{top}} = \sum_{\substack{X \in \mathcal{A}, B, C}} S_2(\rho_X) - \sum_{\substack{X Y \in \mathcal{A}, C \\ A, B, C}} S_2(\rho_{XY}) + S_2(\rho_{ABC})$$

- Measurement of the topological entanglement entropy (Satzinger et al, Science 2021)
- Cross-Platform verification of devices (A. Elben et al, PRL 2020) and (Zhu et al, 2021 preprint)
- [Theory] Classical shadows formalism (R. Huang et al, Nature Physics 2020)
- Experimental discovery of the *p*₃-PPT condition (A. Elben, R. Kueng et al, PRL 2020)
- Live measurements of the purity (Stricker et al, PRX quantum 2022)
- Extensions to cold atoms (Naldesi et al, PRL 2023)

Let's illustrate the status of the field with a recent experiment

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Quantum Fisher information in quantum metrology



• Quantum Fisher information (QFI) for an Hermitian operator A

$$F_{Q} = 2 \sum_{(i,j),\lambda_{i}+\lambda_{j}>0} \frac{(\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j})^{2}}{\lambda_{i}+\lambda_{j}} |\langle i|A|j\rangle|^{2} \text{ with } \rho = \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} |i\rangle\langle i|$$
(6)

- Certifies metrological power for parameter estimation
- Access to the entanglement depth in qubit systems

Fisher information in Heidelberg

• Strobel et al, Science 2014



Experimental measurements of the Quantum Fisher information

Vitale, Rath, Jurcevic (IBM), Branciard, Elben (Caltech), BV (arxiv:2307.16882, see also Rath et al PRL 2021)

 An experiment performed on the superconducting quantum computer IBMQ Montreal



Our measurement strategy



- Two datasets per batch measurements: calibration on the $|0\rangle^{\otimes N},$ actual measurement
- Several batches to keep track of drifts of measurement errors (it actually matters!) ²⁷

• We use 'robust classical shadows' (Chen et al, PRX 2021, improving the seminal Caltech paper: Nature Physics 2020)

$$\tilde{\rho}^{(r,b)} = \bigotimes_{j=1}^{N} \left(\frac{3}{2F_{b}[j] - 1} U_{j}^{(r)^{\dagger}} | s_{j}^{(r,b)} \rangle \langle s_{j}^{(r,b)} | U_{j}^{(r)} + \frac{F_{z}[j] - 2}{2F_{b}[j] - 1} \mathbf{1} \right), \quad (7)$$

where the calibration data of each batch *b* gives access to $F_b[j]$.

• Estimations of functions of ρ are built based on the relation $E[\tilde{\rho}^{(r,b)}] = \rho$

Experimental measurements

• GHZ state $|0\rangle^{\otimes N} + |1\rangle^{\otimes N}$ with expected QFI $F_Q = N^2$, offering optimal performance for quantum metrology, and showing genuine multipartite entanglement.



Conclusion and take-home questions

- Randomized measurement are used routinely to probe entanglement properties of quantum computers, and answer physics questions.
- Physics insights are essential to analyze the data, data analysis provide physics insight...
- Randommess is key (deterministic approaches are not possible), BUT there are ways to boost the efficiency using statistical tricks (common random numbers, importance sampling, etc) and physics assumptions (arxiv:2311.08108)

Review: *The randomized measurement toolbox* A. Elben, S. T. Flammia, H.-Y. Huang, R. Kueng, J. Preskill, B. V, P. Zoller, arXiv:2203.11374

