

Towards Quantum Computing Phase Diagrams of Gauge Theories with Thermal Pure Quantum States

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The phase diagram of strong interactions in nature at finite temperature and chemical potential remains largely theoretically unexplored due to inadequacy of Monte-Carlo–based computational techniques in overcoming a sign problem. Quantum computing offers a sign-problem-free approach, but evaluating thermal expectation values is generally resource intensive on quantum computers. To facilitate thermodynamic studies of gauge theories, we propose a generalization of the thermal-pure-quantum-state formulation of statistical mechanics applied to constrained gauge-theory dynamics, and numerically demonstrate that the phase diagram of a simple low-dimensional gauge theory is robustly determined using this approach, including mapping a chiral phase transition in the model at finite temperature and chemical potential. Quantum algorithms, resource requirements, and algorithmic and hardware error analysis are further discussed to motivate future implementations. Thermal pure quantum states, therefore, may present a suitable candidate for efficient thermal simulations of gauge theories in the era of quantum computing.

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Introduction.—The notorious sign problem in classical Monte-Carlo–sampling techniques has slowed down progress in addressing a range of problems in the domain of nuclear and high-energy physics. These include *ab initio* nuclear many-body calculations of nucleonic matter including large-mass atomic nuclei [1–3], and lattice Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) calculations at finite baryonic density and chemical potential [4–9], pertinent to “critical endpoint” searches in the Beam Energy Scan at the Relativistic Heavy Ion Collider [10,11], and essential in illuminating exotic QCD phases potentially present in the interior of neutron and quark stars [12–15]. Attempts to alleviate sign problems are numerous and include reweighting [16–18], Majorana [19,20] and Meron Cluster algorithms [21], stochastic quantization and complex Langevin dynamics [22–27], Taylor expansion around vanishing chemical potential [28–32], analytic continuation from imaginary chemical potential [33–35], and path deformation and complexification [36–40]. Monte-Carlo techniques can be avoided altogether using Hamiltonian-simulation methods such as Tensor Networks [41–45] and quantum-simulation-inspired algorithms [46]. Nonetheless, despite

this progress, a universal approach to overcoming the sign problem in lattice-QCD calculations is not known.

Digital quantum computers, as well as analog quantum simulators, offer a sign-problem-free approach to computing ground, excited, thermal, and nonequilibrium states of quantum many-body systems including lattice gauge theories (LGTs) [47–96]. However, because quantum devices naturally implement pure states, quantum computing thermal, i.e., mixed, states is a challenging task. An obvious possibility, thermalizing a nonequilibrium state through unitary time evolution [70,97], may be costly on near-term quantum devices due to long equilibration times involved. Other methods for quantum computing thermal expectation values exist, which generally fall into two categories. One is sampling easily preparable pure states according to thermal statistics [98–104], but sampling-based techniques require larger sample sizes when the system size is increased, hence, increasing resource requirements. Another is preparing full (mixed) thermal states on the quantum computer, often relying on resource-intensive algorithms such as quantum phase estimation and incurring significant ancillary-qubit requirements [105–110]. Classical state preparation [111,112] or hybrid classical-quantum algorithms for near-term applications [99], such as those relying on variational methods [108,113–119] or utilizing Jarzynski’s equality [120–122] have also been explored in recent years.

A promising near-term perspective is to resort to the thermal-pure-quantum-(TPQ-) state formulation of statistical mechanics [123–125] to obtain thermal expectation

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values using only a single properly prepared pure state in the thermodynamic limit. This approach offers a promising path to simulating quantum systems at finite temperature and chemical potential on quantum computers [126,127]. Canonical TPQ states, in particular, are formed by imaginary-time evolving pure states drawn from an ensemble of Haar-random states. Thermal expectation values of mechanical observables with TPQ states converge rapidly to the values within the standard (ensemble) formulation of statistical mechanics, improving exponentially with system size. In fact, as is shown in Ref. [123], for sufficiently large systems, often a single TPQ state suffices. However, in gauge theories, local symmetries put constraints on the allowed Hilbert space so that the naïve TPQ-state approach cannot be applied. In this Letter, a protocol for explicitly constructing TPQ states in the physical subspace of gauge theories will be introduced by penalizing nonphysical components of the random pure state as they evolve in imaginary time.

By accurately obtaining, via a numerical simulation, the phase diagram of a simple gauge theory (Z_2 LGT in $1+1$ D with matter) at finite temperature and chemical potential, we demonstrate the utility of the TPQ-state approach in studying thermodynamics of gauge theories for the first time. Aiming at quantum-computing applications, associated quantum algorithms, quantum-resource requirements, and robustness to algorithmic and hardware errors are further studied. The results indicate that the TPQ-state approach may be a suitable candidate for efficient phase-diagram studies of QCD in the future.

Thermal pure quantum states for gauge theories.— Canonical TPQ states are defined as [123]

$$|\beta, N\rangle \equiv e^{-\frac{\beta}{2}H}|\psi_R\rangle, \quad (1)$$

with β being the inverse temperature, N the number of degrees of freedom of the (discrete) system, and $|\psi_R\rangle$ a Haar-random state, i.e., $\psi_R \equiv \sum_i c_i |i\rangle$, where each c_i is drawn from a set of complex numbers $\{c_i\}$ on the unit sphere of the 2^N -dimensional Hilbert space of the simulation, $\sum_i |c_i|^2 = 1$. The set $\{|i\rangle\}$ can be any arbitrary orthonormal basis that spans this Hilbert space, including simply a set of product states. TPQ states approximate thermal expectation values of “mechanical” operators, i.e., those that are low-degree polynomials of local operators, via

$$\langle O \rangle_\beta \approx \frac{\langle\langle \beta, N | O | \beta, N \rangle\rangle_r}{\langle\langle \beta, N | \beta, N \rangle\rangle_r}, \quad (2)$$

with exponential convergence in the system size (as well as in inverse temperature), see Supplemental Material [128] for details. While a single TPQ state suffices as $N \rightarrow \infty$, for faster convergence at finite N , a stochastic average over r TPQ states can be performed, denoted by $\langle\langle \cdot \rangle\rangle_r$ in the formula, which, hence, reduces the error by $1/\sqrt{r}$.

In gauge theories, $|\Phi_R\rangle$ may be unphysical, in which case Eq. (1) will not reproduce physical thermal observable

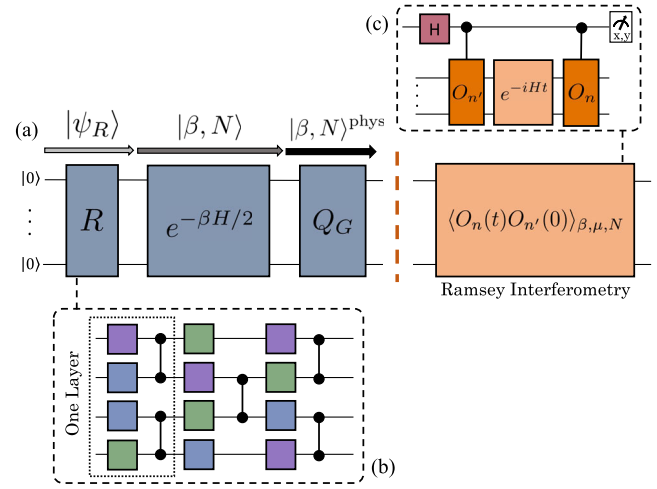


FIG. 1. (a) Schematic overview of the PTPQ-state preparation. (b) Detailed view of random state preparation sub-circuit. The colored squares in the R circuit denote randomly chosen single-qubit rotations around X and Y axes of the Bloch sphere by angle $(\pi/2)$ and the T gates. The entangling gates are controlled Z rotations. The two consecutive single-qubit gates on each qubit are constrained to be different in this construction. Entangling gates in each layer only act on adjacent qubits and this pattern continues, see Ref. [141] for details. (c) Detail edview of Ramsey interferometry sub-circuit. H is a Hadamard gate.

expectation values. While this issue can be avoided by eliminating the gauge-field degrees of freedom with certain boundary conditions in $1+1$ D, such a strategy is not generally applicable. Therefore, we propose “physical” thermal pure quantum (PTPQ) states

$$|\beta, N\rangle^{\text{phys}} \equiv e^{-\frac{\beta}{2}\tilde{H}}|\Psi_R\rangle, \quad (3)$$

by adding a term to the Hamiltonian, $\tilde{H} \equiv H + \sum_n f(G_n)$ where G_n are Gauss’s law operators at site n , that is $[H, G_n] = 0$. The function f is chosen such that unphysical components of the state as it evolves in imaginary time are penalized in energy. Such an approach is customary in the context of enforcing Gauss’s law in analog and digital quantum simulation of gauge theories and can be applied to both Abelian and non-Abelian cases [47,49,85,134–139]. It may also be used to restrict sampling-based algorithms for evaluating thermal expectation values to a smaller physical Hilbert space.

A circuit to prepare PTPQ states on quantum computers is illustrated in Fig. 1. First, a random circuit R , consisting of layers of single-qubit gates and entangling two-qubit gates, is used to prepare an approximate Haar-random state. Various designs are suggested for such task with studied performance [140], and we adopt the efficient implementation of Ref. [141]. This random circuit is followed by a nonunitary operator $e^{-\beta H/2}$ acting upon the resulting random state to produce a standard canonical TPQ state. Gauss’s law is enforced through action with

$Q_G \equiv e^{-(\beta/2) \sum_n f(G_n)}$, the circuit implementation of which depends on the f chosen, see below for the example of Z_2 LGT in $1+1$ D. These elements will be further studied in the following.

Thermal chiral phase diagram of Z_2^{1+1} .—The model that will be studied in the following to demonstrate the value of the TPQ-state approach in gauge theories is Z_2 LGT in $1+1$ D coupled to staggered fermions (Z_2^{1+1}). This model is sufficiently simple to allow numerical verifications on classical computers, while it still exhibits a nontrivial phase diagram which is aimed to be reproduced by quantum simulation. The Hamiltonian of the model is

$$H = \frac{1}{2a} \sum_{n=0}^{N-2} (c_n^\dagger \tilde{\sigma}_n^z c_{n+1} + \text{H.c.}) + m \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (-1)^n c_n^\dagger c_n - \epsilon \sum_{n=0}^{N-2} \tilde{\sigma}_n^x, \quad (4)$$

where $c_n^\dagger$ (c_n) is the fermionic creation (annihilation) operator, and $\tilde{\sigma}_n^z$ and $\tilde{\sigma}_n^x$ are Pauli spin operators realizing the Z_2 link and electric-field operators, respectively. Open boundary conditions are considered throughout, and generalization to other boundary conditions is straightforward. N , a , m , and ϵ are fermionic lattice size, lattice spacing, fermion mass, and electric-field strength, respectively. Gauss's law operator $G_n \equiv \tilde{\sigma}_n^x \tilde{\sigma}_{n-1}^x e^{i\pi\{c_n^\dagger c_n + [(-1)^{n-1}]/2\}}$ defines the physical subspace of the theory via the relation $G_n |\Psi\rangle^{\text{phys}} = |\Psi\rangle^{\text{phys}}$. For all the results shown, we set $a = 1$, $m = 1/2$, and $\epsilon/m = 1$.

Using PTQP states with $f(G_n) = \lambda(1 - G_n)$ for large λ , the chiral phase diagram of Z_2^{1+1} at finite temperature T and chemical potential μ can be computed. A nonzero chemical potential can be accounted for by modifying the Hamiltonian, $H \rightarrow H - \mu \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} c_n^\dagger c_n$. The order parameter to be evaluated is the chiral condensate,

$$\langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle \equiv \frac{1}{N} \left\langle \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (-1)^n c_n^\dagger c_n \right\rangle, \quad (5)$$

with $\langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle \neq 0$ ($= 0$) in the chiral-symmetry broken (symmetric) phase. In QCD, chiral symmetry is spontaneously broken at small T [142] but restored at large T [143–147]. Chiral symmetry breaking is also observed in $1+1$ D Abelian gauge theories [148–150]. For Z_2^{1+1} with staggered fermions, chiral symmetry restoration can be understood intuitively. At asymptotic $\mu \gg m$, ϵ , the state with all fermion sites occupied dominates the thermal Gibbs ensemble and has $\langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle = 0$ according to Eq. (5), while at $T \rightarrow \infty$, the state is an equal admixture of all basis states, giving rise to a net vanishing condensate.

Figure 2 depicts the phase diagram using PTPQ states with random-circuit depth $d = 20$ and averaged over $r = 10$ PTPQ-state realizations. All results are classically

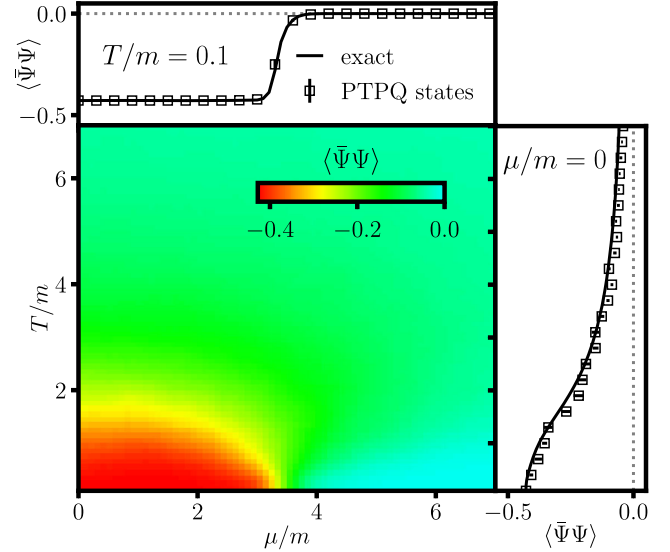


FIG. 2. Chiral phase diagram for the Z_2 LGT with fermions in $1+1$ D with $N = 6$ and $\lambda/m = 4$, calculated with PTPQ states with random-circuit depth $d = 20$ and averaged over $r = 10$ PTPQ-state realizations. Error bars denote statistical uncertainty from a finite PTPQ sample.

computed using exact diagonalization on a system of $N = 6$ sites corresponding to 11 qubits [128]. Chiral symmetry is observed to be restored at high T and μ and is broken, otherwise. Despite the small system size, the transition at $T \rightarrow 0$ is visibly discontinuous, indicating that a “true” phase transition is expected in the infinite-volume limit, while only a smooth crossover is observed at $\mu \rightarrow 0$. The top and right panels of Fig. 2 show a comparison between exact results and PTPQ states. Reasonable agreement is observed, and the accuracy is expected to improve with increasing system size, see Supplemental Material for details [128]. Furthermore, as demonstrated in the Supplemental Material [128], the standard TPQ states do not reproduce the correct phase diagram unless promoted to PTPQ states.

In contrast, regardless of the use of PTPQ states, detecting the confinement-deconfinement transition, where one computes nonlocal observables, e.g., string tension, is more challenging on small systems due to finite-size effects, as discussed in the Supplemental Material [128].

Thermal non-equal-time correlation functions can also be evaluated using the PTPQ-state protocol [151]. These quantities are challenging to access with classical Monte-Carlo techniques even at vanishing chemical potential. As an example, we focus on the thermal current-current correlator,

$$C_n(t) \equiv \langle [j_n(t), j_0(0)] \rangle_\beta, \quad (6)$$

relevant in the Kubo formula in linear response theory [129]. Here, $j_n(t) \equiv e^{iHt} j_n e^{-iHt}$, $j_n \equiv i/(2a) [\sigma_n^+ \tilde{\sigma}_n^z \sigma_{n+1}^- - \text{H.c.}]$ is the fermionic current operator, and $\langle \cdot \rangle_\beta$ denotes the

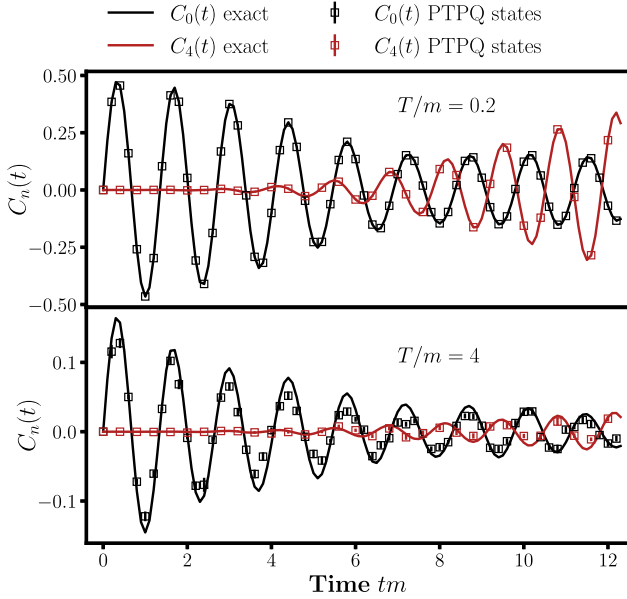


FIG. 3. Non-equal-time correlation functions $C_0(t)$ and $C_4(t)$ with $N = 6$, $\mu/m = 0.5$, and $\lambda/m = 4$. Data are shown at $T/m = 0.2$ with $r = 1$ and at $T/m = 4$ with $r = 20$.

thermal expectation value at finite β . A quantum circuit for evaluating $C_n(t)$ is presented in Fig. 1(c) and involves a standard Ramsey interferometry scheme [130,152–154], requiring an ancilla in a Hadamard superposition controlling $j_n(t)$ and $j_0(0)$, with the PTPQ-state input. The results of this procedure (classically computed) are shown in Fig. 3 for $N = 6$, $T/m = 0.2$, and $\mu/m = 0.5$. The exact results, obtained with exact diagonalization, are compared with a PTPQ computation using $r = 1$ and $r = 20$ samples for lower and higher temperatures, respectively, and good agreement is observed. Since real-time evolution is natural for a quantum computer, PTPQ states are expected to be an important tool to compute, e.g., transport quantities like conductivity or viscosity. For example, one can use Eq. (6) to compute thermal conductivity, $\sigma_{\beta,\mu} \sim \lim_{\omega \rightarrow 0} (a/\omega) \int dt e^{i\omega t} \sum_n C_n(t)$, which, nonetheless, requires long evolution times and large system sizes to be obtained accurately. For a nonlinear response to an external field, a framework is developed in Ref. [151], along with a set of necessary conditions, to still permit the use of a TPQ-state strategy.

Robustness to quantum-circuit implementation errors.— To investigate inaccuracies occurring in the quantum-circuit implementation of the PTPQ-state preparation in Z_2^{1+1} , we recall that this preparation consists of two parts, generation of a Haar-random state, followed by imaginary-time evolution with $H + \lambda \sum_n (1 - G_n)$.

First, by employing an exemplary current noise model, the effect of device noise in generating a Haar-random state can be investigated using the circuit described in Fig. 1(b). Shown in Fig. 4(a) is the chiral transition of an ideal device versus IBM’s “Sydney” device [155] (simulator) when

noise is present in the Haar-random-state preparation, while the imaginary-time evolution is performed exactly (shot noise is not considered). Data corresponds to a circuit depth of $d = 20$ and $r = 10$ PTPQ realizations for a system of $N = 6$ fermionic sites. As is seen, device errors included in current simulators have a negligible effect during this part of the algorithm. Whether features like phase transitions remain robust with respect to the actual device error will need to be tested on the available quantum hardware in future studies.

The second part of the algorithm is imaginary-time evolution. Here, an error analysis will specifically depend on the chosen implementation strategy and device. Among the common near-term approaches include the quantum imaginary time evolution (QITE) algorithm [100] and dilated operator approaches [157,158]. Both approaches may employ Trotterization for imaginary-time evolution, hence, it is beneficial to investigate the Trotterization error in the PTPQ-state preparation.

For simplicity, we consider Trotterization via a first-order product formula of the form

$$S(\beta) \equiv [S(\Delta\beta)]^{N_T} \equiv \left[\prod_{\gamma=1}^{\Gamma} e^{-H_{\gamma}\Delta\beta} \right]^{N_T}, \quad (7)$$

with $\Delta\beta \equiv \beta/(2N_T)$, where $H = \sum_{\gamma=1}^{\Gamma} H_{\gamma}$ with H_{γ} being each noncommuting term in the Z_2^{1+1} Hamiltonian in Eq. (4) plus the chemical-potential contribution, after Jordan-Wigner transforming fermionic into spin degrees of freedom. Note that implementing Q_G does not introduce any Trotter error as $[H_n, Q_G] = 0$. The Trotter-step (N_T) dependence of the chiral condensate $\langle \bar{\Psi}\Psi \rangle$ as a function of chemical potential μ at a relatively long imaginary time corresponding to temperature $T/m = 0.1$ is plotted in Fig. 4(b). As is seen, with a small number of steps $N_T = 10$ ($\Delta\beta = 1$), the chiral phase transition is reproduced qualitatively. To achieve percent-level agreement, $N_T \gtrsim 100$ is required corresponding to step sizes $\Delta\beta \lesssim 0.1$. This suggests that, despite large Trotter errors, qualitative features of the phase diagram, such as phase transitions, can still be accessible.

An analytic bound for the additive Trotter error $\mathcal{A}(\Delta\beta) \equiv S(\Delta\beta) - e^{-\Delta\beta H}$ has been obtained in Ref. [156], which, for the first-order formula, reads

$$\|\mathcal{A}(\Delta\beta)\| = \mathcal{O}\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{\text{comm}}(\Delta\beta)^2 e^{4\Delta\beta \sum_{\gamma=1}^{\Gamma} \|H_{\gamma}\|}\right). \quad (8)$$

Here, $\tilde{\alpha}_{\text{comm}} \equiv \sum_{\gamma_1, \gamma_2=1}^{\Gamma} \|[H_{\gamma_2}, H_{\gamma_1}]\|$ and $\|\cdot\|$ is the spectral norm. In the Supplemental Material [128], we show that when the Hermiticity of the Hamiltonian is taken into account, a new bound can be obtained,

$$\|\mathcal{A}(\Delta\beta)\| = \mathcal{O}\left(\tilde{\alpha}_{\text{comm}}(\Delta\beta)^2 e^{-\Delta\beta \sum_{\gamma=1}^{\Gamma} E_0^{(H_{\gamma})}}\right). \quad (9)$$

Here, $E_0^{(H_{\gamma})}$ is the lowest eigenvalue of each Hamiltonian term H_{γ} . H_{γ} could be a single term or a collection of

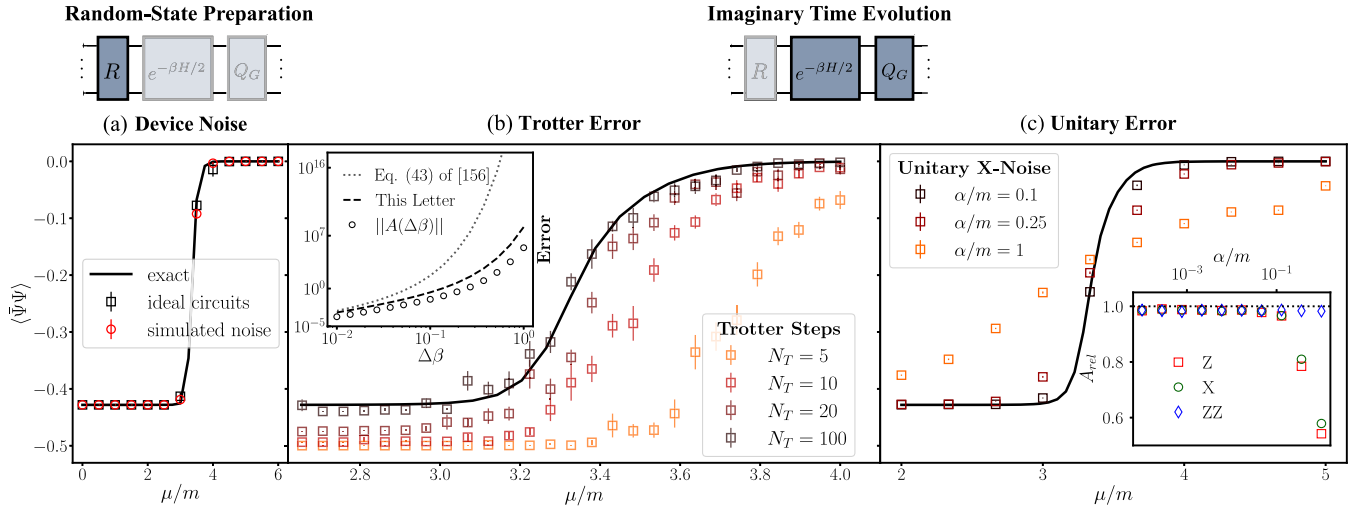


FIG. 4. (a) Chiral condensate $\langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle$ as a function of μ/m , including simulated device noise [155] on the Haar-random state-preparation circuit shown in Fig. 1(b). (b) Trotterization error in evaluating $\langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle$ as a function of μ/m for various numbers of Trotter steps N_T . Inset: The first-order product-formula additive Trotter error bound from Eq. (43) of Ref. [156] [Eq. (8) of this Letter] and the new bound of this Letter in Eq. (9) as a function of $\Delta\beta$ for $N = 6$ at $\mu/m = 4$. Explicitly calculated additive Trotter error $\|A(\Delta\beta)\|$ is plotted for comparison. (c) Unitary errors in $\langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle$ as a function of μ/m calculated with PTPQ states with introduced unitary X errors at various relative Hamiltonian error strengths α/m . Inset: Relative accuracy A_{rel} as a function of relative Hamiltonian error-term strength α/m at $\mu/m = 3$ when various types of unitary error are added to the imaginary-time evolution. All results are obtained for $d = 20$, $r = 10$, $\lambda/m = 8$, $T/m = 0.1$, and averaged over results from 50 randomly generated error terms at each value of α/m .

commuting terms, whose lowest eigenvalue can be classically evaluated efficiently. The inset of Fig. 4(b) shows the additive Trotter error as a function of $\Delta\beta$ using both bounds in Eqs. (8) and (9), along with the numerically determined $\|A(\Delta\beta)\|$. The Hamiltonian is split according to $H = H_e + H_o + H_D$, where $H_{e/o} \equiv 1/(2a) \sum_{n \in \text{even/odd}} (c_n^\dagger \tilde{\sigma}_n^z c_{n+1} + \text{H.c.})$ and $H_D \equiv m \sum_n (-1)^n c_n^\dagger c_n - \epsilon \sum_n \tilde{\sigma}_n^x - \mu \sum_n c_n^\dagger c_n$. As can be seen, compared with Eq. (8), the new bound in Eq. (9) is closer to the numerically determined error. We should note that an improved version of the bound in Eq. (14) of Ref. [156]: $\|A(\Delta\beta)\| = \mathcal{O}(\tilde{\alpha}_{\text{comm}}(\Delta\beta)^2 \times e^{\Delta\beta \sum_{\gamma=1}^r \|H_\gamma\|})$, on the other hand, is equal to our bound in Eq. (9) since for this model, $\|H\| = |E_0|$. The result in Eq. (9), however, provides a tighter bound when $\|H\| > |E_0|$, for example in bosonic quantum field theories with an unbounded spectrum.

The influence of device errors on the imaginary-time evolution, through imperfect gates and decoherence, is hardware and algorithm specific and, thus, difficult to estimate. Nonetheless, one can consider a device-independent approach, in which the errors can be parametrized as imaginary-time evolution under an effective Hamiltonian [159] $H' = \tilde{H} + H_{\text{err}}^a$, with H_{err}^a representing 1- or 2-local errors with randomized weights bounded by α . Because both fermion (via a Jordan-Wigner transformation) and gauge variables are spin operators, they will be denoted from now on with the same symbol $\sigma_n^{x/z}, \tilde{\sigma}_n^{x/z} \rightarrow \sigma_l^{x/z}$, where l denotes sites in a chain of length $2N - 1$, and

even (odd) sites labeling fermions (gauge fields). Motivated by the common bit flip, phase flip, and crosstalk errors in current hardware, we choose $H_{\text{err}} = \sum_{l=0}^{2N-1} K_l^\alpha \sigma_l$, where $\sigma_l \in \{\sigma_l^x, \sigma_l^z, \sigma_l^x \sigma_{l+1}^z\}$, and K_l^α is sampled uniformly from $[-\alpha, \alpha]$. Denoting $\langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle^{\text{PTPQ}}(\alpha)$ the chiral condensate calculated with the PTPQ states under such a noise model, a relative accuracy can be defined as

$$A_{\text{rel}} \equiv 1 - \frac{|\langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle^{\text{PTPQ}}(\alpha) - \langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle|}{|\langle \bar{\Psi} \Psi \rangle|}. \quad (10)$$

The chiral condensate under this noise model is plotted in Fig. 4(c) as a function of chemical potential, at $T/m = 0.1$ for $\alpha/m = 0.1, 0.25, 1$, with exact values displayed for reference. For σ_l^x errors, PTPQ states are still able to capture phase transitions for $\alpha/m = 0.1$, but this ability decays as $\alpha/m \rightarrow 1$, as the relative accuracy near the transition quickly drops to $\sim 45\%$. Furthermore, the inset of Fig. 4(c) shows A_{rel} for $\mu/m = 1.5$ as a function of α/m .

A strong difference is observed between σ_l^x and σ_l^z errors versus $\sigma_l^x \sigma_{l+1}^z$ errors. $\tilde{\sigma}_n^x$ and $\tilde{\sigma}_n^z$ are both gauge invariant, so the introduced X -type and Z -type noise only violate Gauss's law on half of the qubits. Conversely, ZZ -type noise always violates Gauss's law since each term acts on one link and one site. Since the penalty term Q_G effectively protects against Gauss's-law-violating errors, PTPQ states are seen to be more robust to the latter. In the Supplemental Material [128], we discuss the relation between the link-operator convention and the unitary-noise mitigation. Finally, we point out that an approach which treats the error

terms as truly “unitary,” that is by replacing $K_l^\alpha \rightarrow iK_l^\alpha$, has also been tried numerically and resulted in no qualitative difference compared to the presented scheme.

Scaling and resource requirements.—While an exact preparation of Haar-random state has a time complexity that scales exponentially in the system size, pseudo-Haar-random states that are sufficient for most applications can be prepared in polynomial time, as has been established in Refs. [141,160–162]. For example, the (pseudo-) random-state preparation circuit for PTPQ states in this Letter requires only $\mathcal{O}(Nd)$ two-qubit entangling gates, where N is the number of qubits and d is number of layers. In practice, $d \simeq 20$ is seen to be sufficient in the examples of this Letter. In general, the required d for given precision depends on the system size, but the scaling is observed to be sublinear [141,162,163].

To cost the imaginary-time evolution, we consider the QITE algorithm [100] because of its prominence among near-term approaches. The QITE algorithm consists of Trotterizing imaginary-time evolution, e.g., Eq. (7), and it proceeds to find, using classical processing or variationally, a unitary operator $e^{-i\Delta\beta A_\gamma}$ that approximates the nonunitary operator $e^{-H_\gamma\Delta\beta}$, such that for given intermediate state $|\Phi\rangle$ in the Trotter sequence, $e^{-i\Delta\beta A_\gamma}|\Phi\rangle \approx e^{-H_\gamma\Delta\beta}|\Phi\rangle/\mathcal{N}_\beta$, where $\mathcal{N}_\beta \equiv \langle\Phi|e^{-2H_\gamma\Delta\beta}|\Phi\rangle$. Note that for PTPQ-state preparation, Q_G does not need to be Trotterized and can be performed in a single QITE step for time duration β .

Following this protocol, one incurs two types of errors: the Trotter error $\varepsilon_T \geq \|A(\Delta\beta)\|$, discussed in the previous section, and the intrinsic QITE error ε_Q from approximating a nonunitary evolution with a unitary evolution after N_T applications. Here, A_γ acts on N_q qubits. Increasing N_q reduces ε_Q but increases the A_γ circuit cost, i.e., the total algorithm runtime of the QITE algorithm is $\Gamma N_T e^{\mathcal{O}(N_q)}$ [100,128]. To estimate this dependence, assume $N_T \geq \beta\eta$ where $\|H_\gamma\| \leq \eta$ is a bound on the operator norm of H_γ . Then $N_q = \mathcal{O}(2kC \ln[2\sqrt{2}\Gamma N_T \varepsilon_Q^{-1}])$, with k the locality of the Hamiltonian and C the typical correlation length of the state which is acted upon. The Trotter-step dependence can be exchanged with Trotter error ε_T using Eq. (8). Further details on the algorithmic scaling is provided in the Supplemental Material [128].

Note that, in essence, the QITE circuit complexity is exponential in the correlation length C . While the PTPQ algorithm starts from an infinite-temperature state, where $C = 0$, this will become prohibitive at a phase transition (of an infinite system), thus, highlighting the importance of developing efficient far-term nonunitary evolution schemes. Variational methods and near-term efficient implementation of dilated-operator and block-encoding algorithms have been recently explored, see, e.g., Refs. [164–167].

Conclusions.—Physical thermal pure quantum states, introduced in this Letter as an extension of (canonical)

thermal pure quantum states, present a valuable method for quantum computing thermal phase diagram and thermal non-equal-time correlation functions in strongly interacting gauge theories. Via the example of a $1+1$ dimensional Z_2 lattice gauge theory coupled to staggered fermions on a small lattice, PTPQ states are shown numerically to reproduce the phase diagram very accurately over all values of temperature and chemical potential, including a chiral phase transition, with favorable resource requirements. Phase transitions without a local order parameter, such as the (de-)confinement transition present in this model, are strongly finite-size dependent and will be accessible to future quantum computers. Similarly, thermal non-equal-time correlation functions, important for obtaining transport properties of the quark-gluon plasma in ultrarelativistic heavy ion collisions [168] can be accessed using algorithms of this Letter on the upcoming quantum-computing devices.

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