

On some Computational Method for the Explicit Forms of the Decompositions of Master Equations

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Introduction

Master Equations

The dynamics of quantum systems are described by a certain type of equations.

Let \mathcal{H}_S be a complex Hilbert space and $\mathfrak{S}(\mathcal{H}_S)$ be the set of states:

$$\mathfrak{S}(\mathcal{H}_S) = \{\rho \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_S) \mid \rho^* = \rho, \rho \geq 0, \text{tr}\rho = 1\}.$$

In a (closed) system, the dynamics on $\mathfrak{S}(\mathcal{H}_S)$ is written as

$$\frac{d}{dt}\rho_t = -\frac{i}{\hbar}[H_S(t), \rho_t],$$

where $H_S(t)$ is the system Hamiltonian and $\mathcal{I} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathcal{I} = [0, \infty)$.

Master Equations

However, our system suffers from the noise from the environment in general.

⇒ Different formulae including the noise effect need be considered.

Master Equations

In order to describe more general systems (open systems), consider the dynamics on $\mathfrak{S}(\mathcal{H}_S)$:

$$\frac{d}{dt}\rho_t = L(t)\rho_t,$$

where $L : \mathcal{I} \times \mathfrak{S}(\mathcal{H}_S) \rightarrow \mathfrak{S}(\mathcal{H}_S)$.

GKSL Equation

A well-known type of equations for open systems is the GKSL equation:

$$\frac{d}{dt}\rho_t = -i[H_S, \rho_t] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_k c_k ([F_k \rho_t, F_k^*] + [F_k, \rho_t F_k^*]),$$

c_k : scalar,

$F_k \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_S)$ s.t. $\{F_k\}_k \cup \{I\}$ forms a basis of $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_S)$.

Master Equations

If $\dim \mathcal{H}_S < \infty$ and we introduce the 'vectorisation' method, we have the 'matrix representation' of $L(t)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{vec} \dot{\rho}_t &= \tilde{L}(t) \operatorname{vec} \rho_t, \\ \tilde{L}(t) &\in \mathcal{M}_{n^2}(\mathbb{C}). \end{aligned}$$

Master Equations

Especially, when $\dim \mathcal{H}_S = n = 1$, the master equation has the form:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \rho_t = \tilde{\ell}(t) \rho_t,$$

which is a solvable system because it can be solved by the “separation of variables”.

Master Equations

However, it can be difficult to 'exactly solve' the master equation if $n \geq 2$.

The analysis becomes far difficult if $n \geq 5$
(because the computation of the eigenvalues is difficult due to Abel-Ruffini theorem).

⇒What can we do?

Decomposition of Master Equation

Assume that the matrix form of $\tilde{L}(t)$ has a 'block-diagonal' form:

$$\tilde{L}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{L}_1(t) & \\ & \tilde{L}_2(t) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, the total master equation can be considered as the union of independent systems:

$$\dot{\rho}_t = \tilde{L}(t) \rho_t \implies \begin{cases} \dot{\rho}_{1,t} = \tilde{L}_1(t) \rho_{1,t} \\ \dot{\rho}_{2,t} = \tilde{L}_2(t) \rho_{2,t} \end{cases}$$

Decomposition of Master Equation

The sizes of \tilde{L}_1, \tilde{L}_2 are strictly less than n^2 .

⇒ Reduction of the dimension

⇒ Simplification of analysis

Decomposition of Master Equation

Next, assume that $\tilde{L}(t)$ can be 'block-diagonalised' by a constant P :

$$P^{-1}\tilde{L}(t)P = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{L}_1(t) & \\ & \tilde{L}_2(t) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, the transformed equation by $\rho_t = P\psi_t$ is

$$\dot{\psi}_t = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{L}_1(t) & \\ & \tilde{L}_2(t) \end{bmatrix} \psi_t,$$

so again the total master equation can be considered as the union of independent systems.

Decomposition of Master Equation

However, it is not always possible to reduce $\tilde{L}(t)$ into a block-diagonal form.

Question

How to check if $\tilde{L}(t)$ is block-diagonalisable?

Question

If block-diagonalisable, how to compute the 'explicit' form of the decomposition?

Associative Algebra

Associative Algebra

- An **(associative) algebra** \mathcal{A} is defined as a linear space over \mathbb{C} which is closed under the multiplication with the associative law:

$$A \cdot (B \cdot C) = (A \cdot B) \cdot C \quad (A, B, C \in \mathcal{A}).$$

- $N \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be **nilpotent** if $\exists j \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $N^j = O$.
- $P \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be **properly nilpotent** if PA is nilpotent for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$.

Associative Algebra

- $\text{rad}\mathcal{A}$ is the **radical** of \mathcal{A} , which is the set of all properly nilpotent elements in \mathcal{A} .
- \mathcal{A} is **semi-simple** if $\text{rad}\mathcal{A} = \{0\}$.
- \mathcal{A} is **simple** if \mathcal{A} has no non-trivial ideal in \mathcal{A} .

Wedderburn Decomposition

An important result was shown by Wedderburn:

Theorem

(Wedderburn's theorem). If \mathcal{A} is a finite-dimensional semi-simple algebra over \mathbb{C} , there are simple algebras \mathcal{A}_k ($k = 1, \dots, s$) such that

$$\mathcal{A} = \bigoplus_{k=1}^s \mathcal{A}_k, \quad (1)$$

which is unique up to the order.

Wedderburn Decomposition

Relation between the Wedderburn decomposition and the block-diagonal reducibility is the following:

$\tilde{L}(t)$: Generator of the master equation

\mathcal{A} : Algebra generated by $\tilde{L}(t)$

$$\mathcal{A} = \bigoplus_{k=1}^s \mathcal{A}_k \iff \tilde{L}(t) \simeq \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{L}_1(t) & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \tilde{L}_s(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

Burnside's Theorem on Algebra

For the block-diagonal reduction, $s = 1$ or $s \geq 2$ is important.

Theorem

(Burnside's theorem). The only irreducible subalgebra of $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ with $n \geq 2$ is $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ itself. In other words, for an algebra $\mathcal{A} \subsetneq \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{C})$ with $n \geq 2$, there exists a non-trivial \mathcal{A} -invariant subspace.

Thus, $\dim \mathcal{A} < n^2$ iff $s \geq 2$.

W. Burnside. Proc. Lond. Math. Soc. 2 (1905), pp. 369–387.

Yu.A. Drozd, V.V. Kirichenko. 'Finite Dimensional Algebras', Springer, 2012.

Block-Diagonal Reduction of Generator

In order to test the block-diagonal reducibility of the generator $L(t)$,

- 1 Construct the algebra \mathcal{A} generated by $\tilde{L}(t)$.
- 2 Construct a basis \mathcal{B} of \mathcal{A} .
 - If $\dim \mathcal{B} = n^2$, then $\tilde{L}(t)$ cannot be block-diagonalised.
 - If $\dim \mathcal{B} < n^2$, then $\tilde{L}(t)$ **may be** block-diagonalised.
- 3 Check if \mathcal{A} is semi-simple or not.
 - If \mathcal{A} is semi-simple, then $\tilde{L}(t)$ can be block-diagonalised.
 - If \mathcal{A} is not semi-simple, then $\tilde{L}(t)$ **cannot** be block-diagonalised.

Discriminant of Algebra

Question

How can we check if \mathcal{A} is semi-simple?

\Rightarrow The discriminant of an algebra can do.

Let \mathcal{A} be the algebra generated by $\tilde{L}(t)$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{B_1, \dots, B_m\}$ be a basis of \mathcal{A} .

Theorem

The algebra \mathcal{A} is semi-simple if and only if

$$\text{disc}_{\mathcal{B}}\mathcal{A} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \text{tr}B_1B_1 & \cdots & \text{tr}B_1B_m \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{tr}B_mB_1 & \cdots & \text{tr}B_mB_m \end{bmatrix} \neq 0.$$

T. Kamizawa. Open Syst. Infor. Dyn. 24 (2017), 1750002.

Y.A. Mitropolsky, A.K. Lopatin. 'Nonlinear Mechanics, Groups and Symmetry'. Springer, 2013.

Explicit Decomposition

Explicit Decomposition of Semi-Simple Algebras

Question

Once an algebra \mathcal{A} is known to be semi-simple and reducible, how can we compute each simple algebra of the Wedderburn decomposition?

\Rightarrow It is enough to compute the identity elements E_1, \dots, E_s of simple algebras $\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_s$, respectively, because

$$\mathcal{A}_k = E_k \mathcal{A}.$$

Centre of Algebra

Moreover, it is enough to compute the identity elements of the 'centre' of simple algebras.

Let \mathcal{A} be an algebra. The centre of \mathcal{A} is defined by

$$Z(\mathcal{A}) = \{A \in \mathcal{A} \mid AB = BA \ (\forall B \in \mathcal{A})\}.$$

The centre is a commutative algebra and $E_k \in Z(\mathcal{A}_k)$.

Centre of Algebra

- Our algebra \mathcal{A} is semi-simple:

$$\mathcal{A} \simeq \mathcal{A}_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{A}_s,$$

and in this case, we have

$$Z(\mathcal{A}) \simeq Z(\mathcal{A}_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus Z(\mathcal{A}_s).$$

- An identity element E_k of \mathcal{A}_k is an identity element of $Z(\mathcal{A}_k)$.

Splitting Element

Question

How can we obtain the identity elements?

For the explicit decomposition, an element so-called the 'splitting element' plays an important role.

Splitting Element

Let \mathcal{A} be an m -dimensional algebra over a number field \mathbb{F} (finite extension of \mathbb{Q}).

An element $Q \in \mathcal{A}$ is a **splitting element** if its minimal polynomial ψ_Q over \mathbb{F} is square-free (i.e. no multiple root) and $\deg \psi_Q = m$.

Splitting Element

Splitting elements are very useful to compute algebraic structures. Indeed, it is relatively easy to find, if exists.

Theorem

(Lemma 2.1 in [Eberly91]). Let

$\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$: m -dimensional algebra over a number field \mathbb{F}

$\mathcal{B} = \{B_k\}_{k=1}^m$: Basis of \mathcal{A}

$c > 0$

$H \subset \mathbb{F}$: Finite subset s.t. $|H| = \lceil cn(n-1) \rceil$

Then, for random elements $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m \in H$, the element $Q = \sum \lambda_k B_k$ is a splitting element with the probability at least $1 - \frac{1}{c}$, or \mathcal{A} does not contain a splitting element.

Splitting Element

Splitting elements are very useful to compute algebraic structures. Indeed, it is relatively easy to find, if exists.

Theorem

(Lemma 3.1 in [Eberly91]). Let

$\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$: m -dimensional algebra over a number field \mathbb{F}

$\mathcal{B} = \{B_k\}_{k=1}^m$: Basis of \mathcal{A}

In addition, if \mathbb{F} is a perfect field (every irreducible polynomial is separable over \mathbb{F}), $|\mathcal{A}| \geq m$ and \mathcal{A} is a commutative semi-simple algebra over \mathbb{F} , then \mathcal{A} has a splitting element.

Splitting Element

Once a splitting element is found in an algebra \mathcal{A} over a number field \mathbb{F} , one can compute the identity element in each simple algebra of the Wedderburn decomposition.

- 1 Compute the minimal polynomial ψ_Q of the splitting element Q .
- 2 Compute the factorisation $\psi_Q = \psi_1 \cdots \psi_s$ into distinct monic irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$.
- 3 Compute the polynomials $g_k \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ s.t. $g_k \equiv 1 \pmod{\psi_k}$ and $g_k \equiv 0 \pmod{\psi_j}$ ($j \neq k$).
- 4 $E_k = g_k(Q)$ is an identity element of \mathcal{A}_k and

$$\mathcal{A} \simeq \bigoplus_k \mathcal{A}_k \simeq \bigoplus_k (E_k \mathcal{A}).$$

Explicit Decomposition

To sum up, in order to obtain the explicit decomposition of $\tilde{L}(t)$:

- 1 Construct an algebra \mathcal{A} over \mathbb{C} generated by $\tilde{L}(t)$.
- 2 Compute the centre $Z(\mathcal{A})$ and some basis $\mathcal{B}_Z = \{C_k\}_{k=1}^{m_Z}$ of $Z(\mathcal{A})$.
 - If there is a perfect number field \mathbb{F} s.t. $\mathcal{B}_Z \subset \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{F})$,
- 3 Find a splitting element ($Q = \sum \lambda_k C_k$ is highly likely to be so).
- 4 Compute the minimal polynomial ψ_Q of Q and its factorisation $\psi_Q = \psi_1 \cdots \psi_g$.
- 5 Compute the polynomial $g_k \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ s.t. $g_k \equiv 1 \pmod{\psi_k}$ and $g_k \equiv 0 \pmod{\psi_j}$ ($j \neq k$).
- 6 $E_k = g_k(Q)$ is an identity element of \mathcal{A}_k and

$$\mathcal{A} \simeq \bigoplus_k \mathcal{A}_k \simeq \bigoplus_k (E_k \mathcal{A}).$$

Example

Let us consider a master equation:

$$\dot{\rho}_t = -i[H(t), \rho_t] + \sum_{j=1}^2 \alpha_j(t) \{ [F_j(t) \rho_t, F_j^*(t)] + [F_j(t), \rho_t F_j^*(t)] \}, \quad (2)$$

where

$J(t), \Gamma_k(t)$: Time-dependent scalar functions

σ_k^j : Pauli Matrix σ^j on the k th particle

$$\sigma_j^\pm = \sigma_j^x \pm i\sigma_j^y, H(t) = J(t) \sigma_1^x \sigma_2^y$$

$$F_1(t) = \sqrt{\Gamma_1(t)} \sigma_1^-, F_2(t) = \sqrt{\Gamma_2(t)} \sigma_1^+.$$

Example

1. Set

$$A_1 = \sigma_1^x \sigma_2^y, \quad A_2 = \sigma_1^-, \quad A_3 = \sigma_1^+,$$

and construct the algebra $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}(A_1, A_2, A_3)$.

Example

2. Obtain a basis. One can see that $\mathcal{B} = \{B_k\}_{k=1}^8$ with

$$B_1 = A_1, B_2 = A_1^2, B_3 = A_2, B_4 = A_3,$$

$$B_5 = A_1A_2, B_6 = A_2A_1, B_7 = A_2A_3,$$

$$B_8 = A_1A_2A_3$$

forms a basis of \mathcal{A} and the algebra is reducible.

Example

3. Compute the discriminant of \mathcal{A} .

$$\text{disc}_{\mathcal{B}}\mathcal{A} = 16777216 \neq 0,$$

so the algebra is completely reducible.

Example

4. Calculate the centre of \mathcal{A} .

Simple linear equations reveals that the centre $Z(\mathcal{A})$ is

$$Z(\mathcal{A}) = \{c_1 I + c_2 V \mid c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{C}\}$$

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ -1 & 0 & & \\ & & 0 & 1 \\ & & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example

5. Obtain a basis of $Z(\mathcal{A})$.

One can check that $\mathcal{B}_Z = \{I, V\} \subset \mathcal{M}_4(\mathbb{Q})$ is a basis of $Z(\mathcal{A})$.

Example

6. Find a splitting element.

Put $Q = I + iV$. Then, the minimal polynomial of Q over $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{Q}[i]$ is

$$\psi_Q(x) = x^2 - 2x = x(x - 2) = \psi_1\psi_2,$$

so Q is a splitting element.

Example

7. Find the polynomials g_1, g_2 .

One finds that $g_1 = \frac{1}{2}x$, $g_2 = -\frac{1}{2}x + 1$ satisfy

$$g_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{\psi_1}, \quad g_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{\psi_2}$$

$$g_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{\psi_1}, \quad g_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{\psi_2}$$

Example

8. Compute the identity elements.

Set $E_1 = g_1(Q)$ and $E_2 = g_2(Q)$, then we obtain the simple algebras $\mathcal{A}_1 = E_1\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{A}_2 = E_2\mathcal{A}$.

Example

In fact, the kernels of E_1, E_2 are:

$$\ker E_1 = \text{span} \left\{ [0, 0, -i, 1]^T, [-i, 1, 0, 0]^T \right\}$$

$$\ker E_2 = \text{span} \left\{ [0, 0, i, 1]^T, [i, 1, 0, 0]^T \right\},$$

so by setting

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 & i \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -i & 0 & i & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

we can check that $H(t), F_1(t), F_2(t)$ can be simultaneously block-diagonalised.

References

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