Many-body localization in a quantum simulator with programmable random disorder

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Generating the effective Hamiltonian We generate spin-spin interactions by applying spin-dependent 5 optical dipole forces to ions confined in a 3-layer linear Paul trap with a 4.8 MHz radial frequency.

Two off-resonant laser beams with a wavevector difference $\Delta \vec{k}$ along a principal axis of transverse 7

motion globally address the ions and drive stimulated Raman transitions. The two beams contain a 8

pair of beatnote frequencies symmetrically detuned from the resonant transition at $\nu_0 = 12.642819$ 9

GHz by a frequency μ , comparable to the transverse motional mode frequencies. In the Lamb-10

Dicke regime, this results in the Ising-type Hamiltonian in Eq. $(1)^{1-3}$ with 11

$$J_{i,j} = \Omega^2 \omega_R \sum_{m=1}^{N} \frac{b_{i,m} b_{j,m}}{\mu^2 - \omega_m^2},$$
(2)

where Ω is the global Rabi frequency, $\omega_R = \hbar \Delta k^2 / (2M)$ is the recoil frequency, $b_{i,m}$ is the normal-12 mode matrix ⁴, and ω_m are the transverse mode frequencies. The coupling profile may be approx-13 imated as a power-law decay $J_{i,j} \approx J_{max}/|i-j|^{\alpha}$, where in principle α can be tuned between 0 14 and 3 by varying the laser detuning μ or the trap frequencies $\omega_m^{2,5}$. In this work, α was tuned ap-15

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¹⁶ proximately between 0.95 and 1.81 by changing μ . By asymmetrically adjusting the laser beatnote ¹⁷ detuning μ about the carrier by a value of *B* we apply a global Stark shift that can be thought of as ¹⁸ a uniform effective transverse magnetic field of $(B/2)\sigma_i^z$.

We generate the effective disorder by applying a site-dependent Stark shift using a single 19 355nm laser beam that is focused down tightly to a $1/e^2$ waist of $\sim 1.8 \mu m$. The ion separation is 20 $\sim 2.5 \mu m$, thus the crosstalk between ions is negligible with a measured ratio of nearest-neighbor 21 Rabi frequencies of ~ 20 : 1. We use an acousto optic modulator (AOM) with a full width at half 22 maximum bandwidth of ≈ 100 MHz to apply the Stark shift to each ion. The AOM is not imaged 23 onto the ions, so that driving the AOM with different frequencies allows the position of the beam to 24 be scanned over the length of a 10 ion chain, $\sim 20 \mu m$. The Stark shift is proportional to I^2 . Thus, 25 to achieve larger applied Stark shifts, we raster through the AOM drive frequencies corresponding 26 to addressing each ion with a total cycle time of $\sim 5\mu s$ instead of applying them simultaneously. 27 Since we cannot control the sign of the site-specific Stark shift, to center the disorder strength 28 around the global transverse field, we adjust the asymmetric detuning by $WJ_{max}/2$. 29

Sampling Error We determine that averaging over 30 different random realizations of disorder is sufficient to have a sampling error smaller than the effect we observe by looking at the change in the time-averaged HD with respect to a change in the disorder strength. Figure 3b makes explicit that this error is much smaller than than the change in the time-averaged HD with respect to a change in the disorder strength.

Measuring the spin-spin coupling matrix In order to observe the dynamics between just two 35 of the ions in the chain, we shelve the other spins out of the interaction space. This is done 36 by performing a π rotation between $|\downarrow\rangle_z$, ${}^2S_{1/2} | F = 0, m_F = 0 \rangle$, and one of the Zeeman states, 37 ${}^{2}S_{1/2} | F = 1, m_{F} = -1 \rangle$, while shifting the two ions of interest out of resonance by applying a 38 large Stark shift with the individual addressing beam. We then apply our Hamiltonian which now 39 acts only on the two ions left in the interaction space and determine the elements of the spin-spin 40 coupling matrix by fitting the measured interaction Rabi flopping frequency between each pair of 41 spins. 42

Arbitrary product state preparation State initialization starts with optically pumping the spins 43 with high-fidelity to $|\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\cdots\rangle_z$. Then we perform a global $\pi/2$ rotation to bring the ions to 44 $|\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\cdots\rangle_x$. At this point we apply a Stark shift with the individual addressing beam to the spins 45 that are to be flipped and allow the chain to evolve until these ions are π out of phase with rest 46 of the ions. This, along with our ability to perform high fidelity global rotations, allows for the 47 preparation of any arbitrary product state along any direction of the Bloch sphere. Individual spin 48 flips can be achieved with a fidelity of ~ 0.97 , while arbitrary state preparation can be done with a 49 fidelity of $\sim (0.97)^N$, where N is the number of spins flipped with the individual addressing beam. 50

⁵¹ **Determining a Set of Thermalizing Parameters** Extended Data Figure 1 shows the time evolu-⁵² tion of $\langle \sigma_i^x \rangle$ for different values of B for the spins initialized in the randomly chosen product state ⁵³ $|\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow\downarrow\uparrow\rangle_x$. Without a transverse field, the spins are in an eigenstate of the Ising interaction ⁵⁴ and undergo no evolution. Once a transverse field is added the individual spins begin to lose memory of their initial conditions and as its strength is increased, the ions thermalize faster and more
 robustly.

To confirm the system is thermalizing, we measure the time evolution of the single site magnetization, $\langle \sigma_i^z \rangle$, along an orthogonal direction for different strengths of the transverse magnetic field starting with the spins initialized in the Néel ordered state. As seen in Extended Data Fig. 1 the spins have lost information about their initial conditions in the *z* direction for all values of B.

⁶¹ We calculate the spectral statistics of adjacent energy levels for the Hamiltonian and find they ⁶² are not Poisson distributed for $B = 4J_{max}$ and $D_i = 0$ indicating that with no applied disorder, the ⁶³ system is not in a localized phase. Furthermore, one can determine if a system is in a thermal or ⁶⁴ localized regime by finding the correlation between adjacent energy splittings by calculating the ⁶⁵ ratio of two consecutive gaps⁶:

$$r_n = \frac{\min\{\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}\}}{\max\{\delta_n, \delta_{n-1}\}} \tag{3}$$

where $\delta_n = E_{n+1} - E_n \ge 0$. For a localized phase, where one expects a Poisson energy spectrum, the probability distribution of this order parameter is given by $P_p(r) = 2/(1+r)^2$ and thus $\langle r \rangle \approx$ 0.39. For energy level spacings following a random-matrix as predicted for a thermalizing regime, we calculate $\langle r \rangle \approx 0.53$ for a chain of 10 spins. Extended Data Figure 2 shows that $\langle r \rangle$ saturates to the expected value for a random matrix distribution, indicating that the Hamiltonian is thermal for sufficiently large B.

72 Calculating the density matrix expected by the Eigenstate Thermalization Hypothesis Given

⁷³ a Hamiltonian and an initial state $|\psi_0\rangle$, the corresponding energy is $\langle \psi_0 | H | \psi_0 \rangle$. For a thermalizing ⁷⁴ system satisfying ETH this energy should be equal to the classical energy:

$$E = \frac{\text{Tr}[He^{-\beta H}]}{\text{Tr}[e^{-\beta H}]}$$
(4)

for the appropriate $\beta = 1/(k_B T)$. When partitioning the entire system into subsystems A and B, with the size of A much smaller than B (perhaps even a single spin), then, the density matrix on site A at long times can be approximated by:

$$\rho_A = \frac{\mathrm{Tr}_{\mathrm{B}}[e^{-\beta H}]}{\mathrm{Tr}[e^{-\beta H}]} \tag{5}$$

Since we start in the Néel ordered state, the initial energy given the Hamiltonian in Eq. (1) is equal to zero, $\langle \psi_0 | H | \psi_0 \rangle = 0$. Equating this to the right hand side of Eq. (4) and solving for β gives $\beta = 0$, or $T = \infty$. Using this β in Eq. (5) gives a value for any reduced thermal density matrix of:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} 1/2 & 0\\ 0 & 1/2 \end{array}\right)$$

⁸² in agreement with the measured reduced density matrices in Fig. 2a.

Comparison to Numerics To demonstrate the MBL we observe is a general feature of our Hamiltonian we perform numerical simulations using exact diagonalization. Extended Data Figure 3 compares the experimentally measured time evolution of the normalized HD with numerics and shows excellent agreement between them. We see similar agreement between experimental data and numerics for the time evolution of the single-spin magnetizations (not shown). The aspects of ⁸⁸ MBL we experimentally measure were independently verified numerically as generic characteris-⁸⁹ tics of $(1)^7$.

Decoherence and Dephasing To measure our system's coupling to the environment we fit an exponential decay to the dynamics in the upper left panel of Extended Data Fig. 1 as we expect no time evolution of $\langle \sigma_i^x \rangle$ because the initial state is an eigenstate of the Hamiltonian and thus any dynamics give an estimate of the decoherence rate. We find this estimate to be $J_{Max}t = 64.6$ which is approximately 60 times slower than the dynamics of the localization.

Extended Data Fig. 4 shows a numerical simulation of the extended dynamics for the model 95 Hamiltonian with (green curves) and without (blue curves) crosstalk error between ions from the 96 individual addressing and laser intensity noise on the Ising couplings. It is clear that the localization 97 persists well beyond the experimental timescales even when accounting for experimental noise. 98 We model the crosstalk noise on the disordered field by adding 5% of the Stark shift applied 99 to adjacent ions to the size of the intended Stark shift which is consistent with the spillover we 100 measure between ions. To incorporate noise on the spin-spin couplings, we scale the strength of 101 the Ising couplings by a value we pull randomly from a Gaussian distribution centered around 102 $\mu = 1$ with $\sigma = 0.05$ for each instance of disorder because the laser intensity noise is slower 103 than the duration of an experiment. The size of this simulated noise is consistent with the directly 104 measured noise on $J_{i,i}$. 105

Quantum Fisher Information The quantum Fisher information (QFI) has recently been shown to witness genuinely multipartite entanglement ^{8,9}. From a quantum metrology perspective, the

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¹⁰⁸ QFI quantifies the sensitivity of a given input state to a unitary transformation $e^{i\vartheta\hat{O}}$ generated by ¹⁰⁹ the hermitian operator \hat{O} . In a pure state, it is given by ¹⁰

$$F_Q = 4(\Delta \hat{\mathcal{O}})^2 = 4(\langle \hat{\mathcal{O}}^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{\mathcal{O}} \rangle^2).$$
(6)

For a local operator $\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{\mathcal{O}}_i$ (where the difference between largest and smallest eigenvalue of $\hat{\mathcal{O}}_i$ is 1), the QFI witnesses entanglement as soon as

$$f_Q \equiv F_Q/N > 1. \tag{7}$$

To characterize the growth of entanglement out of the initial Néel state, the natural choice of the generator $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ is the staggered magnetization, $\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (-1)^{i} \sigma_{i}^{z}/2$. Remarkably, this QFI is proportional to the variance of the HD $\mathcal{D}(t)$ given by Eq. (2) of the main text,

$$F_Q = 4N^2 (\Delta \hat{\mathcal{D}})^2 = \sum_{i,j} [(-1)^{i+j} \langle \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z \rangle] - [\sum_i (-1)^i \langle \sigma_i^z \rangle]^2,$$
(8)

when associating $\mathcal{D}(t) = \langle \hat{\mathcal{D}}(t) \rangle$, with $\hat{\mathcal{D}} = 1/(2N)[1 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} (-1)^{i} \sigma_{i}^{z}]$.

The QFI as defined in Eq. (6) assumes a pure state, i.e., that time evolution is purely unitary. For mixed states, the QFI cannot be expressed as a simple expectation value of the operator \hat{O}^{10} . In general, decoherence reduces the purity of the system's state over experimental time scales. To show that the measured increase of F_Q as defined in Eq. (8) is indeed due to coherent dynamics, we compare to numerical calculations for a unitary time evolution using the experimental parameters. Extended Data Fig. 5 shows the experimental data is always below the theoretical prediction for

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a unitary time evolution. The loss of purity or other experimental imperfections such as detection
 error, therefore, do not generate a false positive indicator of entanglement in our system.

Extended Data Figure 6 further establishes this point, showing an increase in the QFI we 124 measure and strong agreement between experimental data and theory when postselecting for mea-125 sured states with 5-spin excitations. We postselect because when $B \gg J$ the Hamiltonian is 126 effectively an XY model and conserves $\sum_i \sigma_i^z$, because Ising processes that flip spins along the 127 large field are energetically forbidden. However, because of camera detection error we find there is 128 significant leakage out of states with 5-spin excitations ($\approx 70\%$ expected numerically, $\approx 35\%$ de-129 tected) into states with 4 and 6-spin excitations ($\approx 20\%$ detected) which should not be populated 130 as the transverse magnetization is conserved modulo two spin flips in the transverse field Ising 131 model. Thus, we post-select for states with 5-spin excitations. Extended Data Figures 5 and 6 132 show a clear difference between the interacting case and a theory of free-fermions (see below) for 133 the experimental data and numerical simulations, thus, establishing that the growth in QFI in the 134 data and full-Hamiltonian numerics are due to a many-body effect. 135

To study how the localization changes with system size, we performed a numerical finite-size scaling. In order to obtain a well-behaved scaling, we use the Kac prescription¹¹, i.e., we adjust the couplings as $J_{ij} = JN^{-1} |i - j|^{-\alpha}$, where $\mathcal{N} = (N - 1)^{-1} \sum_{i < j} |i - j|^{-\alpha}$. Note that using this prescription the fundamental energy scale J differs by about a factor of 2 from J_{max} , the value used in the main text.

For $\alpha > 2$, the disordered long-range Ising Hamiltonian shows MBL behavior at large

disorder¹². In Extended Data Fig. 7, we plot the dynamics of the QFI for $\alpha = 3$, where it grows consistent with the characteristic long-time growth of entanglement for an MBL state. In particular, within a time window $2^{\alpha} < tJ < 3^{\alpha}$ where only next-nearest-neighbor interactions are relevant, the system essentially behaves as a nearest-neighbor Ising model with a weak next-tonearest-neighbor coupling. For such a system, a logarithmic growth of entanglement is expected, as we indeed find in that regime, see inset in Extended Data Fig. 7.

Moreover, in Extended Data Fig. 7, we compare our numerical results to the appropriate long-range free-fermionic theory (see below), which shows a quick system-size independent saturation of the QFI without further growth. Therefore, we conclude that the observed increase of the QFI is not possible in a quantum system without many-body interactions, thus giving a clear signature for true MBL behavior.

The situation is more complex at $\alpha = 1.13$. For B = 0, it has been predicted that within 153 the range $1 < \alpha < 2$ delocalized behavior could be expected in the thermodynamic limit¹². As 154 seen in Extended Data Fig. 8, for the considered system sizes up to N = 14 the model displays all 155 essential signatures of MBL, as found for $\alpha = 3$. However, the important question of whether this 156 localization persists in the thermodynamic limit can only be addressed with system sizes larger 157 than those accessible using exact diagonalization. Here, scaling our quantum simulator to larger 158 system sizes could thus resolve a difficult open question, namely of the existence of ergodicity in 159 the range $1 < \alpha < 2$. However, we would like to emphasize that the essential features of MBL 160 are nevertheless captured by the 10-spin experimental system. In particular, we still find a time 161

¹⁶² window consistent with a logarithmic growth of entanglement, see inset in Extended Data Fig. 8.

In order to make a stronger connection between growth in the QFI and growth of entanglement we calculate the entropy of entanglement between two halves of the chain:

$$S_A = -Tr[\rho_A \log \rho_A] \tag{9}$$

where $\rho_A = Tr_B[\rho]$ and *B* is the other half of the spin chain. The entanglement entropy quantifies the number of entangled bits between two subsystems.

In Extended Data Figs. 7 and 8 it is clear that there is long-time growth of the entanglement entropy that is consistent with the expected growth for a MBL state^{13,14} and is absent in the freefermion numerics. The difference between the numerics for the model Hamiltonian and the noninteracting theory for the QFI and the entanglement entropy in Extended Data Figs. 9 and 10 distinguishes between the two cases for the experimental system size and timescale. These figures also establish a qualitative connection between growth in the QFI and growth in entanglement.

To show that the QFI growth is truly due to interactions, we also compare numerics with the experimentally applied Hamiltonian to a close approximation of H, Eq. (1) of the main text, with a non-interacting theory. Using the Jordan-Wigner transformation, $\sigma_j^- \rightarrow e^{-i\theta_j}c_j$, with the phase of the string operator $\theta_j = \pi \sum_{j < i} c_j^{\dagger}c_j$, the Hamiltonian Eq. (1) can be mapped to a fermionic theory with annihilation and creation operators c_j and c_j^{\dagger} , respectively,

$$H = \sum_{i < j} J_{ij} (c_i^{\dagger} e^{i(\theta_j - \theta_i)} c_j + c_i^{\dagger} e^{i(\theta_j + \theta_i)} c_j^{\dagger} + h.c.) - \sum_i (B + D_i) c_i^{\dagger} c_i .$$
(10)

¹⁷⁸ If J_{ij} contained only nearest-neighbor interactions, this Hamiltonian would become equivalent

to a free-fermionic theory. For general J_{ij} , however, the string operators generate interactions 179 between the fermions. Over short times, and especially in a localized regime, the phases θ_j are 180 dominated by their initial values, i.e., it is a good approximation to replace (for the initial Neel 181 state) $\theta_j \to \pi \sum_{j < i} ((-1)^j + 1)/2$ in the Hamiltonian. This replacement amounts to approximating 182 H by a non-interacting fermionic theory with long-range hopping and pairing. The QFI for that 183 case is included in Extended Data Figs. 7 and 8. As one can see, the QFI quickly saturates to 184 values below $f_Q = 1$. The experimentally and numerically observed further growth of the QFI 185 is thus truly due to interactions, and cannot be captured within a free-fermionic theory, even with 186 long-range hopping. 187

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Extended Data Figure 1: Measured thermalization in the transverse field Ising model. The 217 upper panels show the time dynamics of $\langle \sigma_i^x \rangle$ (different colors represent different ions) for 10 218 spins prepared in the random product state $|\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow\downarrow\uparrow\rangle_x$, for different transverse magnetic field 219 strengths. For B = 0 the spins are in a eigenstate and do not thermalize. However, as the strength 220 of B is increased the system begins to thermalize more robustly and quickly. The lower panel plots 221 the time evolution of $\langle \sigma_i^z \rangle$ with 10 spins prepared in the Néel ordered in the z direction for different 222 transverse magnetic field strengths. We conclude that the system is in the thermalizing regime for 223 $B = 4J_{max}$ since we observe thermalizing behavior along two orthogonal directions. Error bars 224 are 1 standard deviation of statistical error. 225



Extended Data Figure 2: Thermalizing level statistics. The calculated value of $\langle r \rangle$ with respect to B saturates close to the predicted value for a random-matrix distribution (dashed black line) implying that the Hamiltonian is in the thermal phase for sufficiently large B.



Extended Data Figure 3: **Comparison of the experimental data (crosses) with exact numerical simulations (blue lines) for normalized Hamming distance.** There is excellent agreement between the numerical simulations using the experimental parameters and the measured data. This demonstrates that the observed effects are general features of the Hamiltonian.



Extended Data Figure 4: Numerical simulations of the extended time evolution of the Hamming distance for the model Hamiltonian (blue curves) and with experimental noise (green curves). The localization we observe persists much longer than the experimental timescale in the model Hamiltonian (blue curves) even when accounting for laser intensity noise and crosstalk between the ions from the individual addressing beam (green curves).



Extended Data Figure 5: Comparison of experimental data (green dots) with exact numerical 242 simulations for the experimentally applied Hamiltonian (thick blue lines) and free-fermion 243 Theory (orange) for QFI. The solid straight lines represent logarithmic fits to the numerical (light 244 blue) and experimental data (light green). Deviations from the ideal coherent dynamics due to 245 decoherence and other imperfections in the experimental setup, such as detection error, lead to a 246 reduction of the QFI. Importantly, this suggests that experimental imperfections do not generate a 247 false positive for entanglement. Moreover, there is long-time growth in the QFI from the measured 248 data and applied Hamiltonian numerics that is absent in the free-fermion theory. 249



Extended Data Figure 6: Comparison of postselected experimental data (green dots) with exact numerical simulations for the experimentally applied Hamiltonian (thick blue lines) and free-fermion Theory (orange) for QFI. The solid straight lines represent logarithmic fits to the numerical results for the experimentally applied Hamiltonian (light blue) and postselected data for results with 5 spin flips (light green). The increase in the postselected QFI and the agreement between the postselected data and numerical simulations supports the claim that experimental imperfections decrease the value of the QFI for the full experimental data.



Extended Data Figure 7: QFI and entanglement entropy from exact diagonalization ($\alpha = 3$ 259 and W/J = 8). Left panel: When subject to disorder, the QFI of the staggered magnetization 260 shows a characteristic growth of entanglement (blue lines; from dark to light: N = 8, 10, 12, 14261 averaged over $10^6, 3 \times 10^5, \ldots, 2500$ disorder realizations). This growth is absent in a theory of 262 free-fermions with long-range hopping and pairing (green dashed lines with N = 14 (dark green) 263 averaged over 10000 realizations). Left panel inset: In a time window dominated by next-nearest 264 neighbor interactions, $2^{\alpha} < tJ < 3^{\alpha}$, one observes a characteristic logarithmic entanglement 265 growth, expected for a MBL system with short-range interactions. Right panel: The entanglement 266 entropy between two halves of the chain shows long-time logarithmic growth for the interacting 267 case and saturates for the free-fermion theory consistent with the expectation for a MBL state and 268 single-particle localized state, respectively, and a qualitative agreement between growth in QFI and 269 entanglement entropy. 270



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Extended Data Figure 8: **QFI and entanglement entropy from exact diagonalization** ($\alpha =$ **1.13 and W/J** = 8). Same color coding as in Extended Data Fig. 7. Importantly, for the experimentally relevant system size of N = 10, we again find a time window consistent with a logarithmic growth of entanglement in the growth of QFI (see left inset) and half-chain entanglement entropy.



Extended Data Figure 9: Difference between numerics for the interacting model Hamiltonian and free-fermion theory for QFI and entanglement entropy ($\alpha = 3$ and W/J = 8). There is a clear departure between the numerically calculated QFI and entanglement entropy for the model Hamiltonian and the free-fermion theory.



Extended Data Figure 10: Difference between numerics for the interacting model Hamiltonian and free-fermion theory for QFI and entanglement entropy ($\alpha = 1.13$ and W/J = 8). There is a clear departure between the numerically calculated QFI and entanglement entropy for the model Hamiltonian and the free-fermion theory for N=10 on the experimental timescale.