#### Quantum Algorithms for Systems of Linear Equations

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References:

- "Quantum linear systems algorithm with exponentially improved dependence on precision", A.M. Childs, R. Kothari, and **R.D. Somma**, SIAM J. Comp. **46**, 1920 (2017).
- "Quantum algorithms for linear systems inspired by adiabatic quantum computing", Y. Subasi, **R.D. Somma**, and D. Orsucci, arXiv:1805.10549 (2018).







- Simulating quantum systems was the main motivation behind Feynman's idea of a quantum computer (1982).
- For example, algorithms for simulating the dynamics of *n* spin systems with classical computers have complexity that is exponential in *n*. Quantum algorithms, in principle, have only complexity that is polynomial in *n*.





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- Peter Shor discovers a quantum algorithm for efficient factorization of integers with important applications to cryptography. Shor's algorithm results in a superpolynomial quantum speedup (1994). His result was a main motivation for the discovery of other quantum algorithms.

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#### Other quantum algorithms for linear algebra problems?



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Let's consider the problem of solving a system of linear equations or the related problem of inverting a matrix:

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- A result [HHL08]: Quantum computers can prepare a quantum state proportional to the solution of the system in time that is polynomial in the condition number, inverse of precision, and the logarithm of the dimension (under some assumptions).

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- Note: This is a somewhat different problem (QLSP) and classical algorithms may do better in this case. However, the QLSP is BQP-Complete.



 $A.\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ Assumptions  $\begin{cases}
\cdot & A \text{ is Hermitian of dimension } NxN \\
\cdot & A \text{ is } s\text{-sparse} \\
\cdot & A \text{ is invertible and its condition number is } \kappa < \infty \\
\cdot & The spectral norm of A \text{ is bounded by 1}
\end{cases}$ 

We define the quantum states 
$$|b\rangle := \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} b_i |i\rangle}{\|\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} b_i |i\rangle\|}$$
 and  $|x\rangle := \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i |i\rangle}{\|\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i |i\rangle\|}$ 

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Let  $C_A(t,\epsilon)$  be the cost of simulating  $e^{-iAt}$  with precision  $\epsilon$ 

Let  $U_b$  be a procedure that runs in time  $T_b$  and prepares the state  $|b\rangle$ 

The goal is to prepare a quantum state  $|\tilde{x}\rangle$  such that  $||\tilde{x}\rangle - |x\rangle|| \leq \epsilon$ with probability  $\geq 1/2$ , with a flag indicating success



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The goal is to prepare a mixed state  $\rho_x$  such that  $\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} |\rho_x - |x\rangle \langle x|| \leq \epsilon$ 

#### Hamiltonian simulation

Note: Recent advances in Hamiltonian simulation resulted in

$$C_A(t,\epsilon) = \tilde{O}(tsT_A\log(t/\epsilon))$$

- Complexity almost linear in the evolution time
- Complexity is polylogarithmic in the inverse of a precision parameter

D. Berry, A. Childs, R. Cleve, R. Kothari, and RDS, PRL 114, 090502 (2015)
D. Berry, A. Childs, and R. Kothari, FOCS 2015, 792 (2015)
G.H. Low and I. Chuang, PRL 118, 010501 (2017)

Some applications:

- In physics, where the goal is to compute the expectation value of the inverse of a matrix. This idea was used in [1] for obtaining the resistance of a network.
- In stat mech, where, e.g., estimating the hitting time of a Markov chain also reduces to computing the expectation value of the inverse of a matrix [2]
- In ML, for solving problems related to least-squares estimation [3], by applying the pseudoinverse:  $\arg \min_{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^M} \|F\vec{\lambda} - \vec{y}\| \to \lambda = \frac{1}{F^{\dagger}F}F^{\dagger}\vec{y}.$
- For solving certain linear differential equations [4]:  $\vec{x}(t) = A(t)\vec{x}(t) + \vec{b}(t)$

- [1] G. Wang, arXiv:1311.1851 (2013). [2] A. Chowdhury and R. Somma, QIC 17, 0041 (2017)
- [3] N. Wiebe, D. Braun, and S. Lloyd, PRL 109, 050505 (2012).
- [4] D. Berry, A. Childs, A. Ostrander, and G. Wang, CMP 356, 1057 (2017)

<u>A note:</u> Even for those applications, a number of assumptions must be made in order to obtain quantum speedups. These assumptions include efficient preparation of certain states (of exp many amplitudes), nice scaling of the condition number, and solving certain problems like computing expectation values. For these reasons, shown quantum speedups are typically polynomial.

## The HHL Algorithm for the QLSP [5]

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 $\tilde{O}\left[\kappa T_b + C_A(\kappa/\epsilon^3,\epsilon)\right] \longrightarrow \text{Almost linear in }\kappa!$ 

• Note that the best Hamiltonian simulation methods have query and gate complexities almost linear in evolution time and logarithmic in precision

[5] Harrow, Hassidim, Lloyd, PRL 103, 150502 (2009)[6] A. Ambainis, STACS 14, 636 (2012)

HHL has three registers: I that holds the state  $|b\rangle$ , E that holds an estimate of the eigenvalue, and O that is an ancilla qubit.  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_I \otimes \mathcal{H}_E \otimes \mathcal{H}_O$ 

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. Then,  $|b\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} c_i |v_i\rangle$ 

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We now use phase estimation to estimate the eigenvalues as follows:

$$|b\rangle \rightarrow \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} c_j |v_j\rangle_I |\tilde{\lambda}_j\rangle_E$$

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This register contains the eigenvalue estimate (superposition):

- It suffices to have the estimate with relative precision  $\epsilon$
- Order  $log(\kappa/\epsilon)$  ancillary qubits

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Amplitude amplification for amplifying the amplitude of the  $|0\rangle_O$  state

Roughly, the scaling of the HHL algorithm can be analyzed from the worst case:

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From here we see that we need to evolve with A for time that is, at least, order  $\kappa^2/\epsilon$
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- First we do a bad-precision phase estimation to distinguish large from small eigenvalues. This may be done evolving with A for time independent of  $\kappa$
- Then we implement a rough approximation of  $1/\kappa A$  to eigenstates of large eigenvalue
- We need order  $\kappa$  amplitude amplification steps
- We implement an accurate approximation of 1/  $\kappa A$  to eigenstates of small eigenvalue
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The complexity of VTAA in terms of precision is worse than that of HHL

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 $\tilde{O}\left[\kappa(T_b + C_A(\kappa \log(\kappa/\epsilon, \epsilon/\kappa)))\right]$ 

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- This results in an exponential improvement on the precision parameter
- It can be improved using a version of VTAA to:

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Why these improvements are important?

- The previous result allowed us to prove a polynomial quantum speedup for hitting time estimation in terms of the spectral gap of a Markov chain and precision (A. Chowdhury, R.D. Somma, QIC 17, 0041 (2017)).
- Having a small complexity dependence on precision is important for, e.g., computing expectation values of observables at the quantum metrology limit.

• I will present two quantum algorithms for the QLSP that improve previous results in different ways:

[8] There exists a quantum algorithm that solves the QLSP by evolving with Hamiltonians that are linear combinations of (products of) A, the projector in the initial state, and Pauli matrices. The overall evolution time is  $\tilde{O}(\kappa/\epsilon)$ 

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• The method is very different and based on adiabatic evolutions. It does not require of complicated subroutines such as phase estimation and variable time amplitude amplification, therefore reducing the number of ancillary qubits substantially.

[8] Y. Subasi, **RDS**, D. Orsucci, arXiv:1805.10549 (2018).

Why this improvement is important?

- Phase estimation and VTAA require several ancillary qubits (beyond those needed for Hamiltonian simulation)
- Within two weeks of posting our result, a group implemented our algorithm in NMR, claiming that it is the largest simulated instance so far (8x8) [9]

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• 1/A is not unitary and we need to find a unitary implementation for it. We then go through a sequence of approximations:

$$\frac{1}{x} = \int_0^\infty dy \ xy e^{-(xy)^2/2} \ , \ xy e^{-(xy)^2/2} = \frac{i}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^\infty dz \ z e^{-z^2/2} e^{-ixyz}$$

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$$\implies \frac{1}{A} \approx_{\varepsilon} \frac{i\delta y \, \delta z}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{j=0}^{J} \sum_{k=-K}^{K} z_{k} \, e^{-(z_{k})^{2}/2} \, e^{-iA(y_{j}z_{k})} \qquad \text{we are getting closer: Linear combination of unitaries}$$

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The accuracy of the approximation will determine  $J, K, \Delta y, \Delta z$ 

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• So far we approximated 1/A, within the desired accuracy, by a finite linear combination of unitaries. Each unitary corresponds to evolving with A for certain time, and the max evolution time is almost linear in the condition number

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Suppose we want to implement the operator  $\lambda_1 U_1 + \lambda_2 U_2$  to some state  $|\psi\rangle$ where  $\lambda_i \ge 0$ ,  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 1$ , and  $U_i$  unitary

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M-1

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$$\frac{1}{\lambda} (\sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \lambda_i U_i) |\psi\rangle |0 \dots 0\rangle + |\xi^{\perp}\rangle$$

Suppose we want to implement the operator  $\lambda_1 U_1 + \lambda_2 U_2$  to some state  $|\psi\rangle$ where  $\lambda_i \ge 0$ ,  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 1$ , and  $U_i$  unitary



This idea can be generalized to the case where the goal is to implement  $\sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \lambda_i U_i$ 

 $\Lambda I = 1$ 

Amplitude amplification to obtain the correct part

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This is almost quadratic in the condition number. To improve it to almost linear we use a version of VTAA that doesn't ruin the logarithmic scaling in precision

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- At each step we do the following: i) We determine the region of the eigenvalue with high confidence. ii) We apply 1/A within the necessary precision for that region (replacing the condition number)

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# First algorithm: A Fourier approach for solving the QSLP

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Using the best Hamiltonian simulation methods, this is almost linear in the condition number and polylog in inverse of precision

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- We now seek the family of interpolating Hamiltonians

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$$\begin{array}{l} |x\rangle \\ s=1 \\ H(1)=A.P_b^{\perp}.A \end{array}$$

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• The minimum eigenvalue gap is order  $1/\kappa^2$  and the length of the path L is  $\log(\kappa)$ 



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- The expected evolution time with the Hamiltonians in the randomization method satisfies  $(\kappa^2 \log^2(\kappa))$

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- For this problem, spectral gap amplification [10] is useful:

$$H(s) \to H'(s) = B^{\dagger}(s) \otimes \sigma^{-} + B(s) \otimes \sigma^{+} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B(s) \\ B^{\dagger}(s) & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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• Some results:

Let  $|x(s)\rangle$  be the eigenstate of 0-eigenvalue of H(s). Then,  $|x(s)\rangle|1\rangle$  is an eigenstate of 0-eigenvalue of H'(s). This eigenstate is separated from others by an eigenvalue gap  $\sqrt{\Delta(s)}$ 

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• Note that the path length did not change. The only change for the RM is the use of a different Hamiltonian.

• Using the randomization method with the new Hamiltonian, the expected evolution time is  $(\kappa \log^2(\kappa))$ 

$$T_{RM} = O\left(\frac{\kappa \log^2(\kappa)}{\epsilon}\right)$$

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• The case of non-positive matrix A can be analyzed similarly using

$$A(s) = (1-s)(\sigma_z^{anc} \otimes I) + s(\sigma_x^{anc} \otimes A)$$

For A > 0, the Hamiltonian is  $H'(s) = (I - |b\rangle \langle b|)((1 - s)I + sA)\sigma^{-} + H.c.$ 

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We can use a Hamiltonian simulation method to build a quantum circuit that simulates the evolution. The quantum circuit will use queries.

- The complexity in terms of queries for  $|b
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- The complexity in terms of queries for A is almost order  $C_A(\kappa/\epsilon,\epsilon)$
- The scaling in the precision parameter can be done polyligarithmic by using faster methods for eigenpath traversal [11]

[11] S. Boixo, E. Knill, and R.D. Somma, arXiv:1005.3034 (2010)

#### Some conclusions and observations

- Quantum computing seems promising. Several quantum algorithms for problems in linear algebra with significant speedups exist
- I presented quantum algorithms to solve the quantum linear systems problem. The techniques can be generalized to apply other operators (other than the inverse of a matrix) to quantum states.
- The advantages of the first algorithm are in that the complexity dependence on precision is only polylogarithmic, exponentially improving previous algorithms for this problem
- The advantages of the second algorithm are in that it doesn't require many ancillary qubits and the problem reduces to a simple Hamiltonian simulation problem
- It would be important to understand the applicability of this algorithm to scientific problems beyond the ones I mentioned. How important are the problems and algorithms?