

# Faster Digital Quantum Simulation by Randomization

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<sup>1</sup>Faster quantum simulation by randomization, arXiv:1805.08385.

<sup>2</sup>Time-dependent Hamiltonian simulation with  $L^1$ -norm scaling, arXiv:1906.07115.

# Outline

- ① Quantum computing basics
- ② Digital quantum simulation
- ③ Randomization and mixing lemma
- ④ Randomized product formulas
- ⑤ Randomized time-dependent Hamiltonian simulation
- ⑥ Summary and outlook

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# Quantum computing basics

## Quantum operation

Quantum operations on a closed quantum system are described by unitaries

$$U^\dagger U = UU^\dagger = I.$$

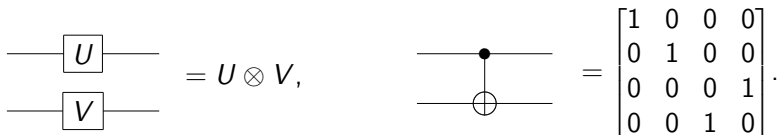
- Single-qubit operations are unitaries acting on  $\mathbb{C}^2$ :

$$\text{---} \boxed{\sigma_x} \text{---} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{---} \boxed{\sigma_y} \text{---} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{---} \boxed{\sigma_z} \text{---} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\text{---} \boxed{\text{Had}} \text{---} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{---} \boxed{\text{P}} \text{---} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{---} \boxed{\text{T}} \text{---} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}} \end{bmatrix}.$$

# Quantum computing basics

- $n$ -qubit operations are unitaries acting on  $\mathbb{C}^{2^n}$ :



The diagram shows two quantum circuit components. On the left, two parallel horizontal lines represent qubits. The top line has a box labeled 'U', and the bottom line has a box labeled 'V'. This is followed by an equals sign and the mathematical expression  $U \otimes V$ . On the right, two parallel horizontal lines represent qubits. The top line has a solid black dot (control), and a vertical line connects it to a circle with a plus sign (target) on the bottom line. This is followed by an equals sign and a 4x4 matrix: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- In the circuit model, quantum computation is realized by a sequence of elementary quantum gates (such as CNOT, Had, P, and T).
- Complexity is quantified by the number of gates used in the computation.

# Factoring and unstructured search



- The difficulty of integer factoring has been used to design modern cryptosystems.
- In 1994, Peter Shor designed a polynomial time algorithm for factoring integers, based on a quantum algorithm for computing periodicity.

- Grover gave a quantum algorithm that solves an unstructured search problem with  $n$  possible solutions, using only  $O(\sqrt{n})$  queries.
- This is a polynomial speedup to a very generic problem.



# Quantum algorithms

- Algebraic problems:  
Factoring integers, computing discrete logarithms, ...
- Simulating quantum dynamics:  
Quantum chemistry, materials science, ...
- Matrix arithmetics:  
Linear equations, differential equations, ...
- Unstructured search:  
Collision finding, graph problems, ...
- ...

# Quantum algorithms

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# Quantum dynamics

- The dynamics of a quantum system are determined by its Hamiltonian  $H(t)$  according to the Schrödinger equation

$$\frac{d}{dt}U(t) = -iH(t)U(t), \quad U(0) = I.$$

- $H(t)^\dagger = H(t)$  is Hermitian, so  $U(t)$  is unitary.
- When  $H(t) \equiv H$  is time-independent, we have the closed-form solution  $U(t) = e^{-itH}$ .
- For a general  $H(t)$ , we formally represent the evolution as  $U(t) = \exp_{\mathcal{T}}\left(-i \int_0^t d\tau H(\tau)\right)$ .

# Digital quantum simulation

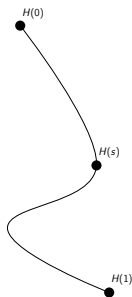
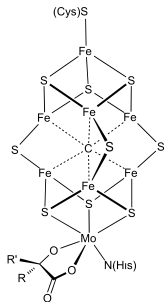
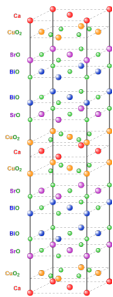
## Quantum simulation problem

Given a description of the Hamiltonian  $H$  and evolution time  $t$ , perform  $e^{-itH}$  up to some error  $\epsilon$  (in spectral norm)

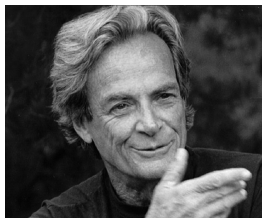
$$\|U - e^{-itH}\| \leq \epsilon.$$

- A quantum computer can simulate the Hamiltonian efficiently if  $H$  is local/sparse.
- Upon measurement, it can efficiently answer questions that a classical one cannot.
- More generally, we can consider simulating time-dependent Hamiltonians.

# Reasons to study quantum simulation



$$\boxed{A} \boxed{x} = \boxed{b}$$



“...nature isn't classical, dammit, and if you want to make a simulation of nature, you'd better make it quantum mechanical, and by golly it's a wonderful problem, because it doesn't look so easy.”

— Richard Feynman

# Product formulas

- Also known as Trotterization or the splitting method.
- Target system:  $H = \sum_{j=1}^n h_j H_j$ , where each  $H_j$  is both unitary and Hermitian and can be implemented with constant cost.
- Can use the first-order Lie-Trotter formula<sup>1</sup>

$$S_1(t) := e^{-ith_n H_n} \dots e^{-ith_1 H_1} \approx e^{-it(h_n H_n + \dots + h_1 H_1)}.$$

- Generalizations to  $(2k)$ th-order formula  $S_{2k}(t)$  exist<sup>2</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup>[Lloyd 96]

<sup>2</sup>[Suzuki 92]

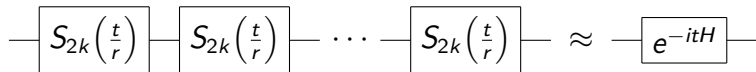
# The product-formula algorithm

## The product-formula algorithm

- Divide the evolution into  $r$  steps.
- Use the first-/( $2k$ )th-order product formula within each step.
- Choose  $r$  sufficiently large so that

$$\left\| S_{2k}^r\left(\frac{t}{r}\right) - e^{-itH} \right\| \leq \epsilon.$$

- Circuit representation:



# Complexity of product-formula simulation

- Within a short time  $t/r$ , we have **Trotter error**

$$\left\| S_{2k}\left(\frac{t}{r}\right) - e^{-i\frac{t}{r}H} \right\| = O\left(\left(\frac{\|h\|_1 t}{r}\right)^{2k+1}\right).$$

- Repeating  $r$  **Trotter steps**, the total error becomes

$$\left\| S_{2k}^r\left(\frac{t}{r}\right) - e^{-itH} \right\| = O\left(\frac{(\|h\|_1 t)^{2k+1}}{r^{2k}}\right).$$

- To achieve accuracy  $\epsilon$ , it suffices to choose **Trotter number**

$$r = O\left(\frac{(\|h\|_1 t)^{1+\frac{1}{2k}}}{\epsilon^{\frac{1}{2k}}}\right) = O\left(\frac{(nt)^{1+\frac{1}{2k}}}{\epsilon^{\frac{1}{2k}}}\right),$$

giving gate complexity  $O(n^{2+1/2k} t^{1+1/2k} / \epsilon^{1/2k})$ .

# Other simulation algorithms

- Recent algorithms have improved asymptotic performance as a function of  $t$  and  $\epsilon$  over the product-formula approach ...

| Algorithm                                    | Gate complexity ( $n, t$ )                   |
|--|--|
| Product formula (PF), 1st order              | $O(n^3 t^2)$                                 |
| Product formula (PF), $(2k)$ th order        | $O(5^{2k} n^{2+1/2k} t^{1+1/2k})$            |
| Quantum walk                                 | $O(n^3 t \log n)$                            |
| Fractional-query simulation                  | $O(n^3 t \frac{\log t}{\log \log t})$        |
| Taylor series <sup>3</sup> (TS)              | $O(n^2 t \frac{\log n \log t}{\log \log t})$ |
| Linear combination of quantum walk           | $O(n^3 t \frac{\log t}{\log \log t})$        |
| Quantum signal processing <sup>4</sup> (QSP) | $O(n^2 t \log n)$                            |

- ... but the  $n$ -scaling seems unavoidable.**

<sup>3</sup>[Berry, Childs, Cleve, Kothari, Somma 15]

<sup>4</sup>[Low, Chuang 17]



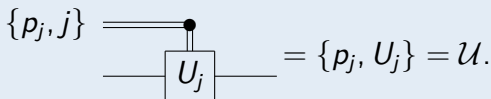
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# Mixed-unitary quantum channel

## Mixed-unitary quantum channel

Performing unitary operation  $U_j$  with probability  $p_j$  implements the mixed-unitary quantum channel  $\mathcal{U} = \{p_j, U_j\}$



- A unitary operation  $U$  can be seen as a unitary channel with  $\mathcal{U} = \{1, U\}$ .
- For a fair comparison, we may describe all quantum simulation algorithms using quantum channels and fix a channel distance as the unified error metric.

# Diamond-norm distance

- The distance between quantum channels  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$  can be quantified by the diamond-norm distance  $\|\mathcal{U} - \mathcal{V}\|_{\diamond}$ .
- If unitary operations  $U$  and  $V$  are close in spectral-norm distance, the corresponding channels  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$  are close in diamond-norm distance.
- More specifically<sup>5</sup>,

$$\|\mathcal{U} - \mathcal{V}\|_{\diamond} \leq 2 \|U - V\|.$$

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<sup>5</sup>[Berry, Childs, Kothari 15]

# Mixing lemma

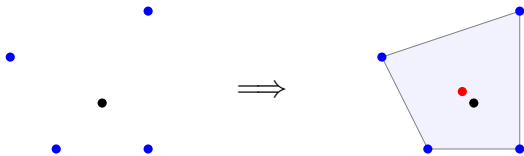
## Mixing lemma<sup>6</sup>

Given mixed-unitary channel  $\mathcal{U} = \{p_j, U_j\}$  and unitary channel  $\mathcal{V} = \{1, V\}$ , suppose that

- (i)  $\|U_j - V\| \leq a$  for all  $j$ ; and
- (ii)  $\|(\sum_j p_j U_j) - V\| \leq b$ .

Then,  $\|\mathcal{U} - \mathcal{V}\|_{\diamond} \leq a^2 + 2b$ .

- Geometrical interpretation:



<sup>6</sup>[Campbell 17], [Hastings 17]

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# Randomized first-order algorithm

- With  $H = A + B$  and  $\lambda = -it$ ,

$$S_{1,\text{orig}}(\lambda) := e^{\lambda B} e^{\lambda A} = I + \lambda(A + B) + \frac{\lambda^2}{2}(A^2 + 2AB + B^2) + O(\lambda^3),$$

$$V(\lambda) := e^{\lambda(A+B)} = I + \lambda(A + B) + \frac{\lambda^2}{2}(A^2 + AB + BA + B^2) + O(\lambda^3).$$

- Using the triangle inequality,

$$\|S_{1,\text{orig}}(\lambda) - V(\lambda)\| \leq \frac{|\lambda|^2}{2} \|[A, B]\| + O(\lambda^3).$$

- A uniform mixture of  $S_{1,\text{orig}}(\lambda)$  and  $S_{1,\text{rev}}(\lambda) := e^{\lambda A} e^{\lambda B}$  gives a better approximation<sup>7</sup>

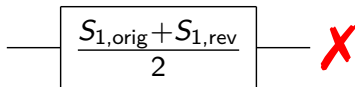
$$\left\| \frac{1}{2} (S_{1,\text{orig}}(\lambda) + S_{1,\text{rev}}(\lambda)) - V(\lambda) \right\| = O(\lambda^3).$$

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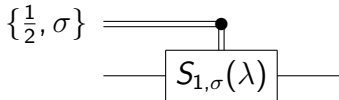
<sup>7</sup>[Zhang 12]

# Implementing randomized simulation

- $(S_{1,\text{orig}}(\lambda) + S_{1,\text{rev}}(\lambda))/2$  cannot be operationally implemented on a quantum computer.



- **Workaround:** apply  $S_{1,\sigma}(\lambda)$  with  $\sigma \in \{\text{orig}, \text{rev}\}$  chosen uniformly at random to implement a quantum channel.

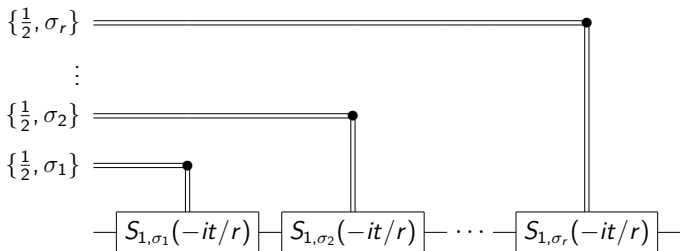


# Complexity analysis

- Invoking the mixing lemma with  $a = O(\lambda^2)$  and  $b = O(\lambda^3)$ ,

$$\left\| \frac{1}{2} \left( S_{1,\text{orig}}(\lambda) + S_{1,\text{rev}}(\lambda) \right) - V(\lambda) \right\|_{\diamond} = O(\lambda^3).$$

- We can thus **use randomness to promote a first-order formula to a second-order formula.**
- To simulate for time  $t$ , divide the evolution into  $r$  steps and use the randomized product formula within each step.

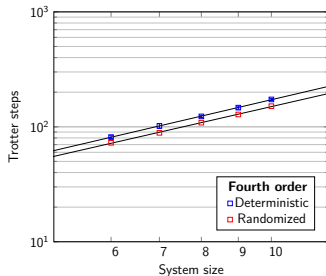
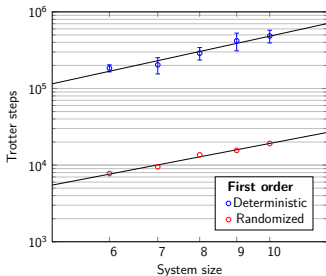




# Randomized higher-order algorithm

- The analysis for higher-order formulas is more challenging due to their more complicated combinatorial structures.
- Introduce **more randomness**: randomly permute all  $n$  summands instead of choosing whether or not to reverse.

| Bounds on $r$ | 1st-order  | $(2k)$ th-order  |
|---------------|--|--|
| Deterministic | $O\left(\frac{(nt)^2}{\epsilon}\right)$                          | $O\left(nt\left(\frac{nt}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{1}{2k}}\right)$  |
| Randomized    | $O\left(nt\left(\frac{nt}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)$ | $\max\left\{O\left(nt\left(\frac{nt}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{1}{4k+1}}\right), O\left(nt\left(\frac{t}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{1}{2k}}\right)\right\}$ |



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# Simulation without explicit $n$ -scaling

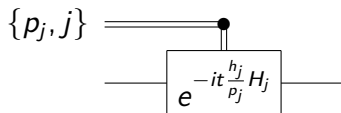
- Target system:  $H = \sum_{j=1}^n h_j H_j$ , where each  $H_j$  is both unitary and Hermitian and can be implemented with constant cost.

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| Linear combination of quantum walk    | $O(n^3 t \frac{\log t}{\log \log t})$        |
| Quantum signal processing (QSP)       | $O(n^2 t \log n)$                            |

- A deterministic approach has complexity scaling at least linearly in  $n$ . Not optimal for large  $n$  and unbalanced  $|h_j|$ .

# A quantum drift protocol

- To reduce the simulation cost, we bias toward those terms with large coefficients.
- More specifically<sup>8</sup>, we choose the  $j$ th term with probability  $p_j = |h_j| / \|h\|_1$  and perform  $e^{-ith_j H_j / p_j}$ .



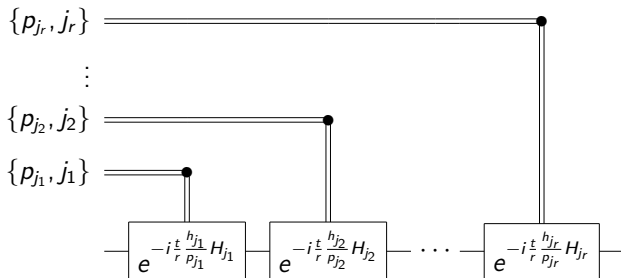
- Applying the mixing lemma with  $a = \|e^{-ith_j H_j / p_j} - e^{-itH}\| = O(t)$  and  $b = \|\sum_j p_j e^{-ith_j H_j / p_j} - e^{-itH}\| = O(t^2)$ , we see that the protocol is first-order accurate.

---

<sup>8</sup>[Campbell 19]

# Complexity analysis

- A more careful calculation shows that  $\{p_j, e^{-ith_j H_j / p_j}\}$  approximates  $\{1, e^{-itH}\}$  with diamond-norm error  $4(\|h\|_1 t)^2$ .
- We can thus **use randomness to avoid the  $n$ -scaling of quantum simulation.**
- To simulate for time  $t$ , divide the evolution into  $r$  steps and use the quantum drift protocol within each step.

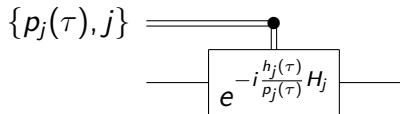


# Simulation without $L^\infty$ -norm scaling

- Target system:  $H(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n h_j(t) H_j$ , where  $H_j$  are both unitary and Hermitian and can be implemented with constant cost.
- Reduces to the time-independent case for each short-time step.
- Intuitively the complexity should scale with the  $L^1$  norm  $\int_0^t d\tau \|h(\tau)\|_1$ . But previous simulation algorithms scale with the  $L^\infty$  norm  $\sup_{\tau \in [0, t]} \max_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}} \|h_j(\tau)\|$ .
- Not optimal when the Hamiltonian varies significantly with time.

# A continuous quantum drift protocol

- We sample  $j$  and  $\tau$  according to the probability density function  $p_j(\tau) = |h_j(\tau)| / \int_0^t d\tau \|h(\tau)\|_1$  and perform  $e^{-ih_j(\tau)H_j/p_j(\tau)}$ .



- Applying the mixing lemma with

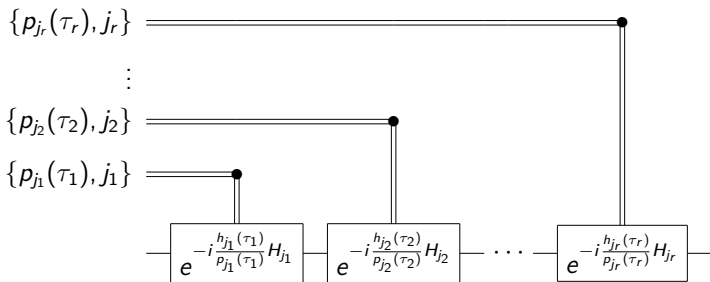
$$a = \left\| e^{-ih_j(\tau)H_j/p_j(\tau)} - \exp_{\mathcal{T}} \left( -i \int_0^t d\tau H(\tau) \right) \right\| = O(t),$$

$$b = \left\| \int_0^t d\tau \sum_j p_j(\tau) e^{-ih_j(\tau)H_j/p_j(\tau)} - \exp_{\mathcal{T}} \left( -i \int_0^t d\tau H(\tau) \right) \right\| = O(t^2),$$

we see that the protocol is first-order accurate.

# Complexity analysis

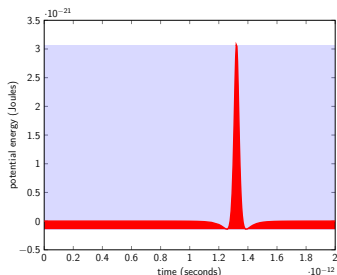
- A more careful calculation shows that  $\{p_j(\tau), e^{-ih_j(\tau)H_j/p_j(\tau)}\}$  approximates  $\{1, \exp_{\mathcal{T}}(-i \int_0^t d\tau H(\tau))\}$  with diamond-norm error  $4(\int_0^t d\tau \|h(\tau)\|_1)^2$ .
- We can thus **use randomness to simulate time-dependent Hamiltonians with  $L^1$ -norm scaling**.
- To simulate for time  $t$ , divide the evolution into  $r$  steps and use the continuous quantum drift protocol within each step.





# Applications to scattering theory

- The  $L^1$ -norm scaling result can be used in the semiclassical simulation of scattering processes in quantum chemistry.
- Target system:  $H(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n h_j(t)H_j$ , where  $H_j$  are both unitary and Hermitian.
- $\|h(\tau)\|_1 = O(N^{5/3})$  when the nuclear charges are dilute and  $\|h(\tau)\|_1 = O(N^2)$  when they are concentrated. So the  $L^1$ -norm scaled algorithms can perform significantly better.

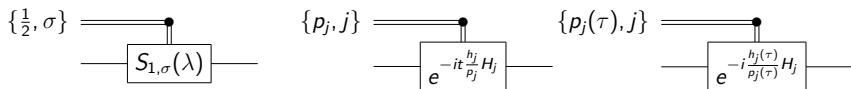


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# Summary

- Randomized quantum simulation algorithms:



- Randomization can be used
  - to improve the accuracy of product formulas;
  - to avoid the dependence on the number of terms in the Hamiltonian; and
  - to simulate time-dependent Hamiltonians with  $L^1$ -norm scaling.

# Outlook

- Other applications of randomization: quantum simulation<sup>9</sup>, optimization<sup>10</sup>, ...
- Derandomizing randomized quantum simulation: Hamiltonian truncation<sup>11</sup>, ...
- Better analysis of randomized quantum algorithms: going beyond the triangle-inequality bound, ...

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<sup>9</sup>[Ouyang, White, Campbell 19]

<sup>10</sup>[Sweke et al. 19]

<sup>11</sup>[Tran et al. 19]