Introduction for Quantum Algorithms for Scientific Computation: An Applied Math **Perspective**

Di Fang

Department of Mathematics Duke Quantum Center Duke University

Duke Summer School, August 2023

Outline

• Basics of OC

- ² [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0)
- ³ [Other advanced topics](#page-156-0)
	- [General Differential Equations](#page-156-0) *(optional)*
	- [Ham. Sim. with Unbounded Operators](#page-157-0) *(workshop talk)*

Part 1.1: Some **Motivations** for Quantum **Computations**

Different Levels of Physics

multiscale physics fig by Prof. Qin Li

Different Levels of Physics

multiscale physics fig by Prof. Qin Li

Different Levels of Physics

"the underlying physical laws necessary for the mathematical theory of a large part of physics and the whole of chemistry are thus completely known."

Paul A. M. Dirac (1929)

Different Levels of Physics

"the underlying physical laws necessary for the mathematical theory of a large part of physics and the whole of chemistry are thus completely known, and the difficulty is only that the exact application of these laws leads to equations much too complicated to be soluble."

Paul A. M. Dirac (1929)

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) Computer advanced topics

Block Encoding Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer

Block Encoding

[Motivations](#page-2-0)

Schrödinger equation for Molecular Dynamics

To describe its behaviour: $(x:$ nuclei coordinates, $y:$ electronic coordinates, M : mass of a nucleus, m : mass of an electron.)

$$
\hat{H}_{\text{total}} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2M} \Delta_x - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta_y + V(x, y), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d, y \in \mathbb{R}^n
$$

$$
i\hbar \partial_t \psi = \hat{H}_{\text{total}} \psi
$$

Quantum Computing 101

"... 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 (1981)

Quantum Computing 101

"... 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 (1981)

Hamiltonian Simulation Problem (original motivation for quantum computers): Given a description of the Hamiltonian $H(t)$, an evolution time t and an initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle$, to produce the final state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ within in some error tolerance ϵ .

Quantum Computing 101

"... 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 (1981)

Hamiltonian Simulation Problem (original motivation for quantum computers): Given a description of the Hamiltonian $H(t)$, an evolution time t and an initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle$, to produce the final state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ within in some error tolerance ϵ .

$$
i\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle = H(t) |\psi(t)\rangle, \quad |\psi(0)\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle.
$$

 $H(t) \equiv H$, to simulate e^{-iHt} for H of very high dimension!.

[Motivations](#page-2-0)

Why on a Quantum Computer?

[Motivations](#page-2-0)

Why on a Quantum Computer?

Left: Google; Picture by Stephen Shankland (CNET). Right: Ion-trap quantum computer at Duke quantum center.

Di Fang (Duke) **[Introduction for Quantum Algorithms for Scientific Computation](#page-0-0)** 7/37

[Motivations](#page-2-0)

Why on a Quantum Computer?

Left: Google; Picture by Stephen Shankland (CNET). Right: Ion-trap quantum computer at Duke quantum center.

Di Fang (Duke) **[Introduction for Quantum Algorithms for Scientific Computation](#page-0-0)** 7/37

[Motivations](#page-2-0)

Why on a Quantum Computer?

Left: Google; Picture by Stephen Shankland (CNET). Right: Ion-trap quantum computer at Duke quantum center.

Di Fang (Duke) **[Introduction for Quantum Algorithms for Scientific Computation](#page-0-0)** 7/37

[Motivations](#page-2-0)

Why on a Quantum Computer?

Left: Google; Picture by Stephen Shankland (CNET).

[Motivations](#page-2-0)

Why on a Quantum Computer?

in $(poly)log(N)$ for certain A but requiring no structure of v .

Quantum Advantage:

Quantum computers can give potential exponential speed ups.

Left: Google; Picture by Stephen Shankland (CNET). Right: for fault-tolerant quantum computers.

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) Computer advanced topics

Block Encoding Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer

Block Encoding

[Motivations](#page-2-0)

Why on a Quantum Computer?

in $(poly)|og(N)$ for certain A but requiring no structure of v .

Quantum Advantage:

Quantum computers can give potential exponential speed ups.

Potential Applications: numerical algebra, numerical differential equations, and many more scientific computing topics

Left: Google; Picture by Stephen Shankland (CNET). Right: for fault-tolerant quantum computers.

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Part 1.2: How? Some **Basics** of Quantum **Computations**

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary

Basic QC Glossary

Quantum State Space:

In quantum mechanics, the (quantum) state of a physical system is represented by a normalized vector in a Hilbert space, denoted as $H:$ a complex vector space with an inner product.

Basic QC Glossary

Quantum State Space:

In quantum mechanics, the (quantum) state of a physical system is represented by a normalized vector in a Hilbert space, denoted as $H:$ a complex vector space with an inner product.

• Braket Notations: For $\dim(\mathcal{H}) = N$,

$$
\left|\psi\right\rangle:=\psi=\begin{pmatrix}\psi_0\\\psi_1\\\vdots\\\psi_{N-1}\end{pmatrix},\,\left\langle\psi\right|:=\psi^\dagger\text{ complex conjugate.}\\[5mm] \text{Inner product}\,\left\langle\psi\middle|\phi\right\rangle:=\left\langle\psi,\phi\right\rangle=\sum_{j\in[N]}\bar{\psi}_j\phi_j.\\[5mm] \text{Normalized: }\left\langle\psi\middle|\psi\right\rangle=1\text{ for any }\psi\text{ in the state space }\mathcal{H}.
$$

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary

Quantum State Space:

In quantum mechanics, the (quantum) state of a physical system is represented by a normalized vector in a Hilbert space, denoted as $H:$ a complex vector space with an inner product.

• Braket Notations: For $\dim(\mathcal{H})=N$,

$$
|\psi\rangle := \psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_0 \\ \psi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_{N-1} \end{pmatrix}, \langle \psi | := \psi^{\dagger} \text{ complex conjugate.}
$$

Inner product $\langle \psi | \phi \rangle := \langle \psi, \phi \rangle = \sum_{j \in [N]} \bar{\psi}_j \phi_j$. Normalized: $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$ for any ψ in the state space H. Outer Product of two quantum states $|x\rangle$ and $|y\rangle$:

$$
\left|x\right\rangle \left\langle y\right| = \left(\begin{array}{c} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_{N-1} \end{array}\right) \left(y_0^\dagger \quad y_1^\dagger \quad \cdots \quad y_{N-1}^\dagger\right)
$$

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary

Quantum State Space:

In quantum mechanics, the (quantum) state of a physical system is represented by a normalized vector in a Hilbert space, denoted as $H:$ a complex vector space with an inner product.

• Braket Notations: For $\dim(\mathcal{H})=N$.

$$
|\psi\rangle := \psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_0 \\ \psi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_{N-1} \end{pmatrix}, \langle \psi | := \psi^{\dagger} \text{ complex conjugate.}
$$

Inner product $\langle \psi | \phi \rangle := \langle \psi | \phi \rangle = \sum_{\psi \in \phi} \psi(\phi)$.

Inner product $\langle \psi | \phi \rangle := \langle \psi, \phi \rangle = \sum_{j \in [N]} \bar{\psi}_j \phi_j$. Outer Product of two quantum states $|x\rangle$ and $|y\rangle$:

$$
|x\rangle \langle y| = \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ \cdots \\ x_{N-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_0^{\dagger} & y_1^{\dagger} & \cdots & y_{N-1}^{\dagger} \end{pmatrix}
$$
 maps $|y\rangle$ to $|x\rangle$.
Tr $(|x\rangle \langle y|) = \langle y|x\rangle$, $|x\rangle \langle x|$ is a projection operator.

Di Fang (Duke) **[Introduction for Quantum Algorithms for Scientific Computation](#page-0-0)** 9/37

• Simple example: 2 dimensional case

Standard/ Computational Basis Vectors $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ θ $\Big\}, |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 1 .

• Simple example: 2 dimensional case Standard/ Computational Basis Vectors $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ θ $\Big\}, |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 1 . Superposition: A (Quantum) State

$$
\left|\psi\right\rangle = \alpha \left|0\right\rangle + \beta \left|1\right\rangle,
$$

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$.

• Simple example: 2 dimensional case Standard/ Computational Basis Vectors $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ θ $\Big\}, |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 1 . Superposition: A (Quantum) State

 $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle,$

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. \Rightarrow One Qubit (quantum bit)!

• Simple example: 2 dimensional case

Standard/ Computational Basis Vectors $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ θ $\Big\}, |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 1 . Superposition: A (Quantum) State of a one-qubit system

 $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$,

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. \Rightarrow One Qubit (quantum bit)! When we observe (or measure) in this basis, we "see" (get an outcome of) 0 with probability $|\alpha|^2$, and 1 with probability $|\beta|^2$.

 \bigcirc 0

 \bullet 1

Classical Bit

• Simple example: 2 dimensional case

Standard/ Computational Basis Vectors $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ θ $\Big\}, |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 1 . Superposition: A (Quantum) State of a one-qubit system

 $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$,

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. \Rightarrow One Qubit (quantum bit)! When we observe (or measure) in this basis, we "see" (get an outcome of) 0 with probability $|\alpha|^2$, and 1 with probability $|\beta|^2$.

 \bigcirc 0 $\ket{0} + \ket{1}$ $\overline{1}$ **Oubit Classical Bit**

• Simple example: 2 dimensional case

Standard/ Computational Basis Vectors $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ θ $\Big\}, |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 1 . Superposition: A (Quantum) State of a one-qubit system

$$
\left|\psi\right\rangle =\alpha\left|0\right\rangle +\beta\left|1\right\rangle ,
$$

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. \Rightarrow One Qubit (quantum bit)! When we observe (or measure) in this basis, we "see" (get an outcome of) 0 with probability $|\alpha|^2$, and 1 with probability $|\beta|^2$.

Geometry of a qubit: Bloch Sphere

• Simple example: 2 dimensional case

Standard/ Computational Basis Vectors $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ θ $\Big\}, |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 1 . Superposition: A (Quantum) State of a one-qubit system

 $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$.

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. \Rightarrow One Qubit (quantum bit)! When we observe (or measure) in this basis, we "see" (get an outcome of) 0 with probability $|\alpha|^2$, and 1 with probability $|\beta|^2$.

Basic QC Glossary – one-qubit state

Quantum Principle: Physical properties remain unchanged w.r.t. a global phase.

 $|\psi\rangle \rightarrow e^{i\theta} |\psi\rangle$, $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$.

Undistinguishable under the laws of quantum mechanism.

fig from QuTech.

Basic QC Glossary – one-qubit state

Quantum Principle: Physical properties remain unchanged w.r.t. a global phase.

$$
|\psi\rangle \to e^{i\theta} |\psi\rangle \,, \quad \theta \in \mathbb{R}.
$$

Undistinguishable under the laws of quantum mechanism.

 $|0\rangle$, $|1\rangle$ also called Z basis states.

fig from QuTech.

Basic QC Glossary – one-qubit state

Quantum Principle: Physical properties remain unchanged w.r.t. a global phase.

$$
|\psi\rangle \to e^{i\theta} |\psi\rangle \,, \quad \theta \in \mathbb{R}.
$$

Undistinguishable under the laws of quantum mechanism.

 $|0\rangle$, $|1\rangle$ also called Z basis states.

When
$$
\theta = \pi/2
$$
, $\phi = 0$,
 $|\pm\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$

When $\theta = \pi/2$, $\phi = \pi$, $|-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ (|0) – |1))

called the X basis states.

fig from QuTech.

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary – multi-qubit state

For general n-qubit system, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n}$.

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary – multi-qubit state

- For general n-qubit system, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n}$.
- **Tensor Product**

,

.
[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) [Other advanced topics](#page-156-0)

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary – multi-qubit state

- For general n-qubit system, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n}$.
- **Tensor Product**

 $|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\big\}$ ⊗ $\big\{ \frac{y_0}{y_0} \big\}$ \setminus \overline{x}_1 y_1 $\sqrt{ }$ $x_0\left(\frac{y_0}{y_0}\right)$ \setminus \setminus $\sqrt{ }$ \setminus x_0y_0 \otimes \otimes y_1 x_0y_1 $\overline{}$ $\Bigg) =$ $\overline{}$ $\Big\}$ = $x_1\left(\frac{y_0}{y_1}\right)$ \setminus x_1y_0 y_1 x_1y_1 **E.g.,** $|00\rangle := |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = (1, 0, 0, 0)^T$, $|01\rangle := |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = (0, 1, 0, 0)^T$, $|10\rangle := |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = (0, 0, 1, 0)^T$, $|11\rangle := |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = (0, 0, 0, 1)^T$. Tensor product is non-commutative!

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) **[Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation**

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary – multi-qubit state

- For general n-qubit system, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n}$.
- **Tensor Product**

 $|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\big\}$ ⊗ $\big\{ \frac{y_0}{y_0} \big\}$ \setminus \overline{x}_1 y_1 $\sqrt{ }$ $x_0\left(\frac{y_0}{y_0}\right)$ \setminus \setminus $\sqrt{ }$ \setminus x_0y_0 \otimes \otimes y_1 x_0y_1 $\overline{}$ $\Bigg) =$ $\overline{}$ $\Big\}$ = $x_1\left(\frac{y_0}{y_1}\right)$ \setminus x_1y_0 y_1 x_1y_1 **E.g.,** $|00\rangle := |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = (1, 0, 0, 0)^T$, $|01\rangle := |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = (0, 1, 0, 0)^T$, $|10\rangle := |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = (0, 0, 1, 0)^T$, $|11\rangle := |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = (0, 0, 0, 1)^T$. Tensor product is non-commutative!

In quantum braket notation,

 $|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle := (x_0 |0\rangle + x_1 |1\rangle) \otimes (y_0 |0\rangle + y_1 |1\rangle)$ $=x_0y_0 |00\rangle + x_0y_1 |01\rangle + x_1y_0 |10\rangle + x_1y_1 |11\rangle.$

What is the relationship with N and n ?

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary – multi-qubit state

- For general n-qubit system, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{B}^{\otimes n}$.
- **Tensor Product**

 $|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\big\}$ ⊗ $\big\{ \frac{y_0}{y_0} \big\}$ \setminus \overline{x}_1 y_1 $\sqrt{ }$ $x_0\left(\frac{y_0}{y_0}\right)$ \setminus \setminus $\sqrt{ }$ \setminus x_0y_0 \otimes \otimes y_1 x_0y_1 $\overline{}$ $\Bigg) =$ $\overline{}$ $\Big\}$ = $x_1\left(\frac{y_0}{y_1}\right)$ \setminus x_1y_0 y_1 x_1y_1 **E.g.,** $|00\rangle := |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = (1, 0, 0, 0)^T$, $|01\rangle := |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = (0, 1, 0, 0)^T$, $|10\rangle := |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = (0, 0, 1, 0)^T$, $|11\rangle := |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = (0, 0, 0, 1)^T$. Tensor product is non-commutative!

In quantum braket notation,

 $|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle := (x_0 |0\rangle + x_1 |1\rangle) \otimes (y_0 |0\rangle + y_1 |1\rangle)$ $=x_0y_0 |00\rangle + x_0y_1 |01\rangle + x_1y_0 |10\rangle + x_1y_1 |11\rangle.$

What is the relationship with N and $n^2 |N = 2^n |!$

• An n-qubit state is called a product state, if it can be represented as the tensor product of one-qubit states $|\phi_1\rangle \otimes |\phi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\phi_n\rangle$. **E.g.**, $|00\rangle$, $\frac{1}{2} (|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle)$

- An n-qubit state is called a product state, if it can be represented as the tensor product of one-qubit states $|\phi_1\rangle \otimes |\phi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\phi_n\rangle$. **E.g.**, $|00\rangle$, $\frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle) = |+\rangle \otimes |+\rangle$
- Are all n-qubit states are product states?

- An n-qubit state is called a product state, if it can be represented as the tensor product of one-qubit states $|\phi_1\rangle \otimes |\phi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\phi_n\rangle$. **E.g.**, $|00\rangle$, $\frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle) = |+\rangle \otimes |+\rangle$
- Are all n-qubit states are product states? No! Entangled States E.g., $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ $_{\overline{2}}\left(\left\vert 00\right\rangle +\left\vert 11\right\rangle \right)$ Bell State (EPR pair)

- An n-qubit state is called a product state, if it can be represented as the tensor product of one-qubit states $|\phi_1\rangle \otimes |\phi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\phi_n\rangle$. **E.g.**, $|00\rangle$, $\frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle) = |+\rangle \otimes |+\rangle$
- Are all n-qubit states are product states? No! Entangled States E.g., $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ $_{\overline{2}}\left(\left\vert 00\right\rangle +\left\vert 11\right\rangle \right)$ Bell State (EPR pair) *Proof:* Suppose <u>→</u> $\overline{a}_{\overline{2}}\left(|00\rangle + |11\rangle \right) = (a\,|0\rangle + b\,|1\rangle) \otimes (c\,|0\rangle + d\,|1\rangle)$ $ac = bd = 1/$ √ 2, $ad = bc = 0$. Impossible.

Two important quantum features:

Superposition and Entanglement

Basic QC Glossary – operators: quantum gates

Are quantum state allowed to change over time?

Are quantum state allowed to change over time? Yes!

 \bullet Quantum Gates: unitary operators acting over the state space \mathcal{H} . A gate acting on n qubits is represented by $2^n\times 2^n$ unitary matrix (denote as U).

$$
\left|\psi\right\rangle \longrightarrow\boxed{U}\longrightarrow U\left|\psi\right\rangle
$$

Are quantum state allowed to change over time? Yes!

 \bullet Quantum Gates: unitary operators acting over the state space \mathcal{H} . A gate acting on n qubits is represented by $2^n\times 2^n$ unitary matrix (denote as U).

$$
\left|\psi\right\rangle \longrightarrow\boxed{U}\longrightarrow U\left|\psi\right\rangle
$$

- Properties:
	- Quantum gates preserve the norm.

Are quantum state allowed to change over time? Yes!

 \bullet Quantum Gates: unitary operators acting over the state space \mathcal{H} . A gate acting on n qubits is represented by $2^n\times 2^n$ unitary matrix (denote as U).

$$
\left|\psi\right\rangle \longrightarrow\boxed{U}\longrightarrow U\left|\psi\right\rangle
$$

• Properties:

• Quantum gates preserve the norm.

Proof: $(U|\psi\rangle)^{\dagger}U|\psi\rangle = \langle \psi | U^{\dagger}U | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$, for $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$.

Quantum gates preserve angle between two quantum states.

Are quantum state allowed to change over time? Yes!

 \bullet Quantum Gates: unitary operators acting over the state space \mathcal{H} . A gate acting on n qubits is represented by $2^n\times 2^n$ unitary matrix (denote as U).

$$
\left|\psi\right\rangle \longrightarrow\boxed{U}\longrightarrow U\left|\psi\right\rangle
$$

• Properties:

• Quantum gates preserve the norm.

- Quantum gates preserve angle between two quantum states.
- Quantum gates are invertible (reversible).

Basic QC Glossary – operators: quantum gates

Are quantum state allowed to change over time? Yes!

 \bullet Quantum Gates: unitary operators acting over the state space H . A gate acting on n qubits is represented by $2^n\times 2^n$ unitary matrix (denote as U).

$$
\left|\psi\right\rangle \text{--- }U\text{--- }U\left|\psi\right\rangle
$$

- Properties:
	- Quantum gates preserve the norm.

- Quantum gates preserve angle between two quantum states.
- Quantum gates are invertible (reversible).
- Examples commonly used single-qubit gates:

Hadamard Gate
$$
H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}
$$
, $H^{\dagger} = H^{-1} = H$
 $|0\rangle$ \longrightarrow \boxed{H} \longrightarrow $|1\rangle$ \longrightarrow \boxed{H} \longrightarrow ?

Basic QC Glossary – operators: quantum gates

Are quantum state allowed to change over time? Yes!

 \bullet Quantum Gates: unitary operators acting over the state space H . A gate acting on n qubits is represented by $2^n\times 2^n$ unitary matrix (denote as U).

$$
\left|\psi\right\rangle \text{--- }U\text{--- }U\left|\psi\right\rangle
$$

- Properties:
	- Quantum gates preserve the norm.

- Quantum gates preserve angle between two quantum states.
- Quantum gates are invertible (reversible).
- Examples commonly used single-qubit gates:

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\text{Hadamard Gate } H &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \, H^{\dagger} = H^{-1} = H \\
\text{(i)} & \longrightarrow H \quad \text{(ii)} \quad \text{(iii)} \quad \text{(iv)} \quad \text{(iv)} \quad \text{(iv)} \quad \text{(v)} \quad \text{(
$$

**[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) Computer Computing Computer Computer Compu
Computer Computing Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer Computer**

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary – common one-qubit gates cont'd

Pauli matrices $X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $i=0$ $Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $0 -1$ $\big)$. (also denote as σ_x , σ_y , σ_z .) $Y = iXZ$

Basic QC Glossary – common one-qubit gates cont'd

Pauli matrices $X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $i=0$ $Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $0 -1$ $\big)$. (also denote as σ_x , σ_y , σ_z .) $Y = iXZ$ $X:|0\rangle\leftrightarrow|1\rangle$ bit flip; $Z:|x\rangle\rightarrow(-1)^x\,|x\rangle$, $x=0,1$ phase-flip.

Basic QC Glossary – common one-qubit gates cont'd

Pauli matrices $X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $i=0$ $Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $0 -1$ $\big)$. (also denote as σ_x , σ_y , σ_z .) $Y = iXZ$ $X:|0\rangle\leftrightarrow|1\rangle$ bit flip; $Z:|x\rangle\rightarrow(-1)^x\,|x\rangle$, $x=0,1$ phase-flip. Multi-qubit Paulis: tensors of single qubit Paulis. Properties:

Basic QC Glossary – common one-qubit gates cont'd

- Pauli matrices $X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $i=0$ $Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $0 -1$ $\big)$. (also denote as σ_x , σ_y , σ_z .) $Y = iXZ$
	- $X:|0\rangle\leftrightarrow|1\rangle$ bit flip; $Z:|x\rangle\rightarrow(-1)^x\,|x\rangle$, $x=0,1$ phase-flip.

Multi-qubit Paulis: tensors of single qubit Paulis.

Properties:

- Their inverses are themselves. (Hermitian + Unitary)
- $X/Y/Z$ basis vectors are eigenvectors of X, Y, Z , respectively.
- They anti-commute.
- (many-body) Hamiltonian (Hermitian matrices) can be written as linear combinations of (n-qubit) Paulis.

Basic QC Glossary – common one-qubit gates cont'd

- Pauli matrices $X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $i=0$ $Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $0 -1$ $\big)$. (also denote as σ_x , σ_y , σ_z .) $Y = iXZ$
	- $X:|0\rangle\leftrightarrow|1\rangle$ bit flip; $Z:|x\rangle\rightarrow(-1)^x\,|x\rangle$, $x=0,1$ phase-flip.

Multi-qubit Paulis: tensors of single qubit Paulis.

Properties:

- Their inverses are themselves. (Hermitian + Unitary)
- $X/Y/Z$ basis vectors are eigenvectors of X, Y, Z , respectively.
- They anti-commute.
- (many-body) Hamiltonian (Hermitian matrices) can be written as linear combinations of (n-qubit) Paulis.

• Phase-shift Gate:
$$
P(\phi) = P(\varphi) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\varphi} \end{bmatrix}
$$

\n
$$
Z = P(\pi), S = P(\pi/2) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix}, T = P(\pi/4) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}}
$$

1

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) **[Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0)** Computing and Computing Computi

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) [Other advanced topics](#page-156-0)

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) [Other advanced topics](#page-156-0)

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Clifford gates: elements of Clifford group $\mathbf{C}_n = \{V \in U_{2^n} \mid V \mathbf{P}_n V^\dagger = \mathbf{P}_n\}.$ Here P_n is the n-qubit Pauli group. Generators: {H, S, CNOT}.

Clifford gates: elements of Clifford group $\mathbf{C}_n = \{V \in U_{2^n} \mid V \mathbf{P}_n V^\dagger = \mathbf{P}_n\}.$ Here P_n is the n-qubit Pauli group. Generators: {H, S, CNOT}.

3-qubit gates? 4-qubit gates? General n -qubit gates? tons of gates to remember??

Clifford gates: elements of Clifford group $\mathbf{C}_n = \{V \in U_{2^n} \mid V \mathbf{P}_n V^\dagger = \mathbf{P}_n\}.$ Here P_n is the n-qubit Pauli group. Generators: {H, S, CNOT}.

3-qubit gates? 4-qubit gates? General n -qubit gates? tons of gates to remember??

Upshot: Universality!

A set of quantum gates is called universal, if composing gates from it can approximate any quantum gate to any desired precision. Some examples of universal gate sets are:

- \bullet {CNOT, all single-qubit gates}
- \bullet {CNOT, H, T}
- \bullet {Toffoli, H}

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) [Other advanced topics](#page-156-0)

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary – Measurements

Measurement:

Basic QC Glossary – Measurements

Measurement:

2-qubit example $|\psi\rangle = \alpha_{00} |00\rangle + \alpha_{01} |01\rangle + \alpha_{10} |10\rangle + \alpha_{11} |11\rangle$

Basic QC Glossary – Measurements

O Measurement:

2-qubit example $|\psi\rangle = \alpha_{00} |00\rangle + \alpha_{01} |01\rangle + \alpha_{10} |10\rangle + \alpha_{11} |11\rangle$ $\sqrt{ }$ $|00$ with prob $|\alpha_{00}|^2$

 \int

 01 with prob $|\alpha_{01}|^2$ 10 with prob $|\alpha_{10}|^2$ 11 with prob $|\alpha_{11}|^2$

 $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$

Partial Measurement:

2

2

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary – Measurements

O Measurement:

2-qubit example $|\psi\rangle = \alpha_{00} |00\rangle + \alpha_{01} |01\rangle + \alpha_{10} |10\rangle + \alpha_{11} |11\rangle$ 2

will observe\n
$$
\begin{cases}\n00 \text{ with prob } |\alpha_{00}| \\
01 \text{ with prob } |\alpha_{01}| \\
10 \text{ with prob } |\alpha_{10}|\n\end{cases}
$$

$$
\int_{11}^{10} \frac{\text{min } \text{pros } |\alpha_{10}|}{\text{with prob } |\alpha_{11}|^2}
$$

Partial Measurement:

Basic QC Glossary – Measurements

O Measurement:

2-qubit example $|\psi\rangle = \alpha_{00} |00\rangle + \alpha_{01} |01\rangle + \alpha_{10} |10\rangle + \alpha_{11} |11\rangle$ $\rm Circuit$ $\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \hline \hline \hline \hline \hline \hline \end{array}$ We will observe $\sqrt{ }$ \int $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ $|00$ with prob $|\alpha_{00}|^2$ 01 with prob $|\alpha_{01}|^2$ 10 with prob $|\alpha_{10}|^2$ 11 with prob $|\alpha_{11}|^2$

Partial Measurement:

If we observe 0, the joint state after the measurement becomes $\alpha_{00}\ket{00}+\alpha_{01}\ket{01}$ $\frac{\alpha_{00}\left|00\right\rangle+\alpha_{01}\left|01\right\rangle}{\sqrt{\left|\alpha_{00}\right|^{2}+\left|\alpha_{01}\right|^{2}}}= \left|0\right\rangle\otimes\frac{\alpha_{00}\left|0\right\rangle+\alpha_{01}\left|1\right\rangle}{\sqrt{\left|\alpha_{00}\right|^{2}+\left|\alpha_{01}\right|^{2}}}.$ "Unentangled" Wave function collapse after measurement

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) [Other advanced topics](#page-156-0)

Basic QC Glossary – quantum circuits

Quantum algorithms (QA) are represented by quantum circuits.

Basic QC Glossary – quantum circuits

Quantum algorithms (QA) are represented by quantum circuits.

Complexity of a QA: Gate complexity, Query complexity (oracle)

Basic QC Glossary – quantum circuits

Quantum algorithms (QA) are represented by quantum circuits.

Complexity of a QA: Gate complexity, Query complexity (oracle) Question: Relationship of QA v.s. Classical algorithms?

Basic QC Glossary – quantum circuits

Quantum algorithms (QA) are represented by quantum circuits.

Complexity of a QA: Gate complexity, Query complexity (oracle)

Question: Relationship of QA v.s. Classical algorithms?

- Is QC at least as powerful as classical computing?
- Is there always an exponential (superpolynomial) quantum advantage?

Basic QC Glossary – QC vs CC

Question 1: Is QC at least as powerful as classical computing?

Basic QC Glossary – QC vs CC

Question 1: Is QC at least as powerful as classical computing? Yes! Classical arithmetic operations can be performed quantumly.

Basic QC Glossary – QC vs CC

Question 1: Is QC at least as powerful as classical computing? Yes! Classical arithmetic operations can be performed quantumly.

Really? Reversibility?

Question 1: Is QC at least as powerful as classical computing? Yes! Classical arithmetic operations can be performed quantumly.

Really? Reversibility?

Question 1: Is QC at least as powerful as classical computing? Yes! Classical arithmetic operations can be performed quantumly.

Really? Reversibility?

What about Probabilistic Computing? Success prob $>$ (say 0.99)

Question 1: Is QC at least as powerful as classical computing? Yes! Classical arithmetic operations can be performed quantumly.

Really? Reversibility?

What about Probabilistic Computing? Success prob $>$ (say 0.99)

$$
\boxed{\text{CoinFlip}} \qquad \qquad |0\rangle \longrightarrow H \longrightarrow \boxed{\mathcal{P}}
$$

Question 2: Always exponential quantum speedup (b/c $2^n = N$)?

Question 1: Is QC at least as powerful as classical computing? Yes! Classical arithmetic operations can be performed quantumly.

Really? Reversibility?

What about Probabilistic Computing? Success prob $>$ (say 0.99)

$$
\boxed{\text{CoinFlip}} \qquad \qquad |0\rangle \longrightarrow H \longrightarrow \boxed{\mathcal{P}}
$$

Question 2: Always exponential quantum speedup (b/c $2^n = N$)? No!! Restrictions:

- Unitary + Measurement (Needs structure of tasks!)
- No cloning theorem

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) [Other advanced topics](#page-156-0)

Basic QC Glossary: No-cloning Theorem

There is no quantum circuit that clones an arbitrary quantum state!

No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$.

There is no quantum circuit that clones an arbitrary quantum state!

No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$. *Proof:* Suppose there exists U s.t. $U |\psi\rangle |s\rangle = |\psi\rangle |\psi\rangle$ for all $|\psi\rangle$. $\Rightarrow U |x_1\rangle |s\rangle = |x_1\rangle |x_1\rangle, \quad U |x_2\rangle |s\rangle = |x_2\rangle |x_1\rangle$

There is no quantum circuit that clones an arbitrary quantum state!

No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$. *Proof:* Suppose there exists U s.t. $U |\psi\rangle |s\rangle = |\psi\rangle |\psi\rangle$ for all $|\psi\rangle$. $\Rightarrow U |x_1\rangle |s\rangle = |x_1\rangle |x_1\rangle, \quad U |x_2\rangle |s\rangle = |x_2\rangle |x_1\rangle$ \Rightarrow $\langle x_1 | x_2 \rangle = \langle x_1 | x_2 \rangle^2$ (taking the inner product)

There is no quantum circuit that clones an arbitrary quantum state!

No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$. *Proof:* Suppose there exists U s.t. $U |\psi\rangle |s\rangle = |\psi\rangle |\psi\rangle$ for all $|\psi\rangle$. $\Rightarrow U |x_1\rangle |s\rangle = |x_1\rangle |x_1\rangle, \quad U |x_2\rangle |s\rangle = |x_2\rangle |x_1\rangle$ \Rightarrow $\langle x_1 | x_2 \rangle = \langle x_1 | x_2 \rangle^2$ (taking the inner product) $\Rightarrow \langle x_1 | x_2 \rangle = 0$ or 1. Contradiction! \square

- No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$.
- Consequence: Iterative-type algorithms for scientific computing tasks are difficult to implement efficiently.

- No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$.
- Consequence: Iterative-type algorithms for scientific computing tasks are difficult to implement efficiently.
- Wait... Something is weird? CNOT

$$
|a\rangle \longrightarrow |a\rangle
$$

$$
|b\rangle \longrightarrow |a \oplus b\rangle
$$

- No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$.
- Consequence: Iterative-type algorithms for scientific computing tasks are difficult to implement efficiently.
- Wait... Something is weird? CNOT

$$
|a\rangle \longrightarrow |a\rangle | \psi\rangle \longrightarrow | \psi\rangle
$$

$$
|b\rangle \longrightarrow |a \oplus b\rangle |0\rangle \longrightarrow | \psi\rangle
$$

- No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$.
- Consequence: Iterative-type algorithms for scientific computing tasks are difficult to implement efficiently.
- Wait... Something is weird? CNOT

| $ a\rangle$ | $ v\rangle$ | $ \psi\rangle$ | Copyright | | |
|-------------|----------------------|----------------|------------|----------------|-------------------|
| $ b\rangle$ | $ a \oplus b\rangle$ | $ 0\rangle$ | $0\rangle$ | $ \psi\rangle$ | info. No contrad. |

There is no quantum circuit that clones an arbitrary quantum state!

- No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$.
- Consequence: Iterative-type algorithms for scientific computing tasks are difficult to implement efficiently.
- Wait... Something is weird? CNOT

| $ a\rangle$ | $ w\rangle$ | $ \psi\rangle$ | Copyright | |
|-------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------------------|
| $ b\rangle$ | $ a \oplus b\rangle$ | $ 0\rangle$ | $ \psi\rangle$ | Graphs of classical |
| $ b\rangle$ | $ a \oplus b\rangle$ | $ 0\rangle$ | $ \psi\rangle$ | $info. No$ contrad. |

• Another important remark: If we know how to prepare $|\psi\rangle$ (from $|s\rangle$), i.e. $|\psi\rangle = U |s\rangle$ for a known unitary U. Then

There is no quantum circuit that clones an arbitrary quantum state!

- No-cloning Theorem (simple ver.): There is no unitary operation that can enact the evolution $|\psi\rangle|s\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$ for all states $|\psi\rangle$.
- Consequence: Iterative-type algorithms for scientific computing tasks are difficult to implement efficiently.
- Wait... Something is weird? CNOT

| $ a\rangle$ | $ w\rangle$ | $ \psi\rangle$ | Copyright | |
|-------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------|------------------------|
| $ b\rangle$ | $ a \oplus b\rangle$ | $ 0\rangle$ | $ \psi\rangle$ | Informing of classical |

• Another important remark: If we know how to prepare $|\psi\rangle$ (from $|s\rangle$), i.e. $|\psi\rangle = U |s\rangle$ for a known unitary U. Then

$$
(I \otimes U) |\psi\rangle |s\rangle = |\psi\rangle |\psi\rangle .
$$

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Basic QC Glossary: Exponential Quantum Advantage

Exponential Quantum Advantage (EQA) (often this is also used to refer superpolynomial speedup)

Criteria to claim EQA:

Basic QC Glossary: Exponential Quantum Advantage

Exponential Quantum Advantage (EQA) (often this is also used to refer superpolynomial speedup)

Criteria to claim EQA:

• There is a QA with quantum complexity \leq polylog N.

Basic QC Glossary: Exponential Quantum Advantage

Exponential Quantum Advantage (EQA) (often this is also used to refer superpolynomial speedup)

Criteria to claim EQA:

• There is a QA with quantum complexity \leq polylog N.

0

 \int

 \mathcal{L}

 (A) Best-known Classical Alg. has complexity $\geq e^{\text{polylog } N}$

Basic QC Glossary: Exponential Quantum Advantage

Exponential Quantum Advantage (EQA) (often this is also used to refer superpolynomial speedup)

Criteria to claim EQA:

• There is a QA with quantum complexity \leq polylog N.

0

 \mathcal{L}

 $\sqrt{ }$ \int (A) Best-known Classical Alg. has complexity $\geq e^{\text{polylog }N}$

(B) Show that the task is BQP-complete

(Any Classical Alg. under reasonable complexity conjectures)

٠

Basic QC Glossary: Exponential Quantum Advantage

Exponential Quantum Advantage (EQA) (often this is also used to refer superpolynomial speedup)

Criteria to claim EQA:

• There is a QA with quantum complexity \leq polylog N.

 $\sqrt{ }$ \int \mathcal{L} (A) Best-known Classical Alg. has complexity $\geq e^{\text{polylog }N}$ (B) Show that the task is BQP-complete (Any Classical Alg. under reasonable complexity conjectures)

Examples of Tasks with EQA:

- Factoring \Rightarrow Shor's Algorithm (A)
- Invert a large sparse linear system \Rightarrow HHL Algorithm (A)(B)
- Hamiltonian Simulation (B)

Summary of Part 1

- Motivation: first principle, potential EQA
- Quantum State
- **Quantum Gates / Circuits**
- **•** Measurement
- QA v.s. CA; no-cloning; EQA

[Basics of QC](#page-18-0)

Part 2: Block-encoding and Hamiltonian **Simulation**

Hamiltonian Simulation Problem: Given a description of the Hamiltonian $H(t)$, an evolution time t and an initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle$, to produce the final state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ within in some error tolerance ϵ .

Hamiltonian Simulation Problem: Given a description of the Hamiltonian $H(t)$, an evolution time t and an initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle$, to produce the final state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ within in some error tolerance ϵ .

Time-independent: $H(t) \equiv H$ is a $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix

 $i\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle, \quad |\psi(0)\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle.$

Hamiltonian Simulation Problem: Given a description of the Hamiltonian $H(t)$, an evolution time t and an initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle$, to produce the final state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ within in some error tolerance ϵ .

Time-independent: $H(t) \equiv H$ is a $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix

$$
i\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle, \quad |\psi(0)\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle.
$$

$$
\left\|\mathcal{U}_{\text{app}}\left|\psi_0\right\rangle - e^{-iHt}\left|\psi_0\right\rangle\right\|
$$

Hamiltonian Simulation Problem: Given a description of the Hamiltonian $H(t)$, an evolution time t and an initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle$, to produce the final state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ within in some error tolerance ϵ .

Time-independent: $H(t) \equiv H$ is a $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix

 $i\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle, \quad |\psi(0)\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle.$

$$
\left\| \mathcal{U}_{\text{app}} \left| \psi_0 \right\rangle - e^{-iHt} \left| \psi_0 \right\rangle \right\| \le \left\| \mathcal{U}_{\text{app}} - e^{-iHt} \right\| \le \epsilon.
$$

Hamiltonian Simulation Problem: Given a description of the Hamiltonian $H(t)$, an evolution time t and an initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle$, to produce the final state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ within in some error tolerance ϵ .

Time-independent: $H(t) \equiv H$ is a $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix

$$
i\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle, \quad |\psi(0)\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle.
$$

$$
\left\|\mathcal{U}_{\text{app}}\left|\psi_0\right\rangle-e^{-\mathrm{i}Ht}\left|\psi_0\right\rangle\right\|\,\leq\boxed{\left\|\mathcal{U}_{\text{app}}-e^{-\mathrm{i}Ht}\right\|\leq\epsilon}.
$$

Hamiltonian Simulation Problem: Given a description of the Hamiltonian $H(t)$, an evolution time t and an initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle$, to produce the final state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ within in some error tolerance ϵ .

Time-independent: $H(t) \equiv H$ is a $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix

$$
i\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle, \quad |\psi(0)\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle.
$$

$$
\left\|\mathcal{U}_{\text{app}}\left|\psi_0\right\rangle-e^{-\mathrm{i}Ht}\left|\psi_0\right\rangle\right\|\,\leq\boxed{\left\|\mathcal{U}_{\text{app}}-e^{-\mathrm{i}Ht}\right\|\leq\epsilon}.
$$

Examples of H : many-body Hamiltonian

$$
H = \sum_{E \in S \subset \{I, X, Y, Z\}^{\otimes n}} \lambda_E E,
$$

 k -local Hamiltonian (TFIM, Heisenberg models, etc), etc.

Hamiltonian Simulation Problem: Given a description of the Hamiltonian $H(t)$, an evolution time t and an initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle$, to produce the final state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ within in some error tolerance ϵ .

Time-independent: $H(t) \equiv H$ is a $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix

$$
i\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle, \quad |\psi(0)\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle.
$$

$$
\left\|\mathcal{U}_{\text{app}}\left|\psi_0\right\rangle-e^{-\mathrm{i}Ht}\left|\psi_0\right\rangle\right\|\,\leq\boxed{\left\|\mathcal{U}_{\text{app}}-e^{-\mathrm{i}Ht}\right\|\leq\epsilon}.
$$

Examples of H : many-body Hamiltonian

$$
H = \sum_{E \in S \subset \{I, X, Y, Z\}^{\otimes n}} \lambda_E E,
$$

 k -local Hamiltonian (TFIM, Heisenberg models, etc), etc.

No-fast-forwarding Theorem*(informal)*: Simulating Hamiltonian dynamics for time t requires complexity $\Omega(t)$.

• Trotterization (= Product Formulae = Time/Operator Splitting) 1st-order Trotter formula (Lie-Trotter) for $H = H_1 + H_2$

$$
e^{-\mathrm{i} H t} \approx \left(e^{-\mathrm{i} H_2 t/L} e^{-\mathrm{i} H_1 t/L}\right)^L
$$

Cost/Complexity?

• Trotterization (= Product Formulae = Time/Operator Splitting) 1st-order Trotter formula (Lie-Trotter) for $H = H_1 + H_2$

$$
e^{-\mathrm{i} H t} \approx \left(e^{-\mathrm{i} H_2 t/L} e^{-\mathrm{i} H_1 t/L}\right)^L
$$

Cost/Complexity? error estimate and circuit implementation

• Trotterization (= Product Formulae = Time/Operator Splitting) 1st-order Trotter formula (Lie-Trotter) for $H = H_1 + H_2$

$$
e^{-\mathrm{i} H t} \approx \left(e^{-\mathrm{i} H_2 t/L} e^{-\mathrm{i} H_1 t/L}\right)^L
$$

Cost/Complexity? error estimate and circuit implementation

$$
e^{-\mathrm{i} H t} = \left(e^{-\mathrm{i} H_2 t/L} e^{-\mathrm{i} H_1 t/L} \right)^L + \mathcal{O}\left(\| [H_1, H_2] \| t^2/L \right)
$$

• Trotterization (= Product Formulae = Time/Operator Splitting) 1st-order Trotter formula (Lie-Trotter) for $H = H_1 + H_2$

$$
e^{-\mathrm{i}Ht} \approx \left(e^{-\mathrm{i}H_2t/L}e^{-\mathrm{i}H_1t/L}\right)^L
$$

Cost/Complexity? error estimate and circuit implementation

$$
e^{-iHt} = \left(e^{-iH_2t/L}e^{-iH_1t/L}\right)^L + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{||[H_1, H_2]||t^2/L\right)
$$

$$
e^{-iH_1t/L}
$$
 $e^{-iH_2t/L}$ $e^{-iH_2t/L}$ $e^{-iH_1t/L}$ $e^{-iH_2t/L}$

• Trotterization (= Product Formulae = Time/Operator Splitting) 1st-order Trotter formula (Lie-Trotter) for $H = H_1 + H_2$

$$
e^{-\mathrm{i} H t} \approx \left(e^{-\mathrm{i} H_2 t/L} e^{-\mathrm{i} H_1 t/L}\right)^L
$$

Cost/Complexity? error estimate and circuit implementation

$$
e^{-iHt} = \left(e^{-iH_2t/L}e^{-iH_1t/L}\right)^L + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{||[H_1, H_2]||t^2/L\right)
$$

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n\stackrel{\cdot}{\longleftarrow} e^{-iH_1t/L} & e^{-iH_2t/L} \\
\hline\n\end{array}\n\qquad \qquad e^{-iH_2t/L} \qquad \qquad e^{-iH_1t/L} \qquad e^{-iH_2t/L} \qquad \qquad
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \mathcal{O}\left(\left\| [H_1, H_2] \right\| t^2 / \epsilon\right) \text{ queries to } e^{-iH_1s} \text{ and } e^{-iH_2s}.
$$

• Trotterization (= Product Formulae = Time/Operator Splitting) 1st-order Trotter formula (Lie-Trotter) for $H = H_1 + H_2$

$$
e^{-\mathrm{i} H t} \approx \left(e^{-\mathrm{i} H_2 t/L} e^{-\mathrm{i} H_1 t/L}\right)^L
$$

Cost/Complexity? error estimate and circuit implementation

$$
e^{-iHt} = \left(e^{-iH_2t/L}e^{-iH_1t/L}\right)^L + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{||[H_1, H_2]||t^2/L\right)
$$

$$
\overbrace{\qquad \qquad }^n \overbrace{e^{-iH_1t/L}} \overbrace{e^{-iH_2t/L}} \overbrace{e^{-iH_2t/L}} \cdots \overbrace{e^{-iH_1t/L}} \overbrace{e^{-iH_2t/L}} \overbrace{e^{-iH_2t/L}} \overbrace{e^{-iH_2t/L}}
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \mathcal{O}\left(\left\|\left[H_1, H_2\right]\right\|t^2/\epsilon\right) \text{ queries to } e^{-iH_1s} \text{ and } e^{-iH_2s}.
$$
\nHigh order (p-th): query complexity $\mathcal{O}\left(\alpha_H t^{1+1/p}/\epsilon^{1/p}\right)$.

• Trotterization (= Product Formulae = Time/Operator Splitting) 1st-order Trotter formula (Lie-Trotter) for $H = H_1 + H_2$

· · · n e [−]iH1t/L e [−]iH2t/L e [−]iH1t/L e −iH2t/L

High order (p-th): query complexity $\mathcal{O}\left(\alpha_H t^{1+1/p}/\epsilon^{1/p}\right)$.

- Everything is unitary! No ancilla needed.
- But it needs e^{-iH_js} efficiently implementable.
Hamiltonian Simulation Algorithms

• Trotterization (= Product Formulae = Time/Operator Splitting) 1st-order Trotter formula (Lie-Trotter) for $H = H_1 + H_2$

· · · n e [−]iH1t/L e [−]iH2t/L e [−]iH1t/L e −iH2t/L

High order (p-th): query complexity $\mathcal{O}\left(\alpha_H t^{1+1/p}/\epsilon^{1/p}\right)$.

- Everything is unitary! No ancilla needed.
- But it needs e^{-iH_js} efficiently implementable.
- Post-Trotter, e.g., truncated Taylor series, quantum signal processing (QSP), quantum singular value transformation (QSVT), etc.

$$
e^{-iHt} \approx \sum_{k=0}^{K} \frac{(-iHt)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{K} \sum_{\ell_1, \cdots, \ell_k} \frac{(-it)^k}{k!} H_{\ell_1} H_{\ell_2} \cdots H_{\ell_k}.
$$

Upshot: $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O}(t \log(1/\epsilon))$

Hamiltonian Simulation Algorithms

• Trotterization (= Product Formulae = Time/Operator Splitting) 1st-order Trotter formula (Lie-Trotter) for $H = H_1 + H_2$

· · · n e [−]iH1t/L e [−]iH2t/L e [−]iH1t/L e −iH2t/L

High order (p-th): query complexity $\mathcal{O}\left(\alpha_H t^{1+1/p}/\epsilon^{1/p}\right)$.

- Everything is unitary! No ancilla needed.
- But it needs e^{-iH_js} efficiently implementable.
- Post-Trotter, e.g., truncated Taylor series, quantum signal processing (QSP), quantum singular value transformation (QSVT), etc.

$$
e^{-iHt} \approx \sum_{k=0}^{K} \frac{(-iHt)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{K} \sum_{\ell_1, \cdots, \ell_k} \frac{(-it)^k}{k!} H_{\ell_1} H_{\ell_2} \cdots H_{\ell_k}.
$$

Upshot: $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O}(t \log(1/\epsilon)) \Rightarrow$ Even better, say, $\mathcal{O}(t + \log(1/\epsilon))$?

Let A be a general $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix. Idea:

$$
U_A = \begin{pmatrix} A & * \\ * & * \end{pmatrix} \quad \rightarrow \text{ancilla qubits}
$$

Let A be a general $2^n\times 2^n$ matrix. $\|A\|\leq \alpha$ Idea:

$$
U_A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{A}{\alpha} & * \\ * & * \end{pmatrix} \quad \to \text{ancilla qubits},
$$

Let A be a general $2^n\times 2^n$ matrix. $\|A\|\leq \alpha$ Idea: i.

$$
U_A = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A} & \\ \overline{\alpha} & \\ * & * \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \left\| \tilde{A} - A \right\| \le \epsilon
$$
\n
$$
\text{ancilla qubits,}
$$

Let A be a general $2^n\times 2^n$ matrix. $\|A\|\leq \alpha$ Idea:

$$
U_A = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A} & \\ \alpha & \\ * & \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \left\| \tilde{A} - A \right\| \le \epsilon
$$
\n
$$
\to m \text{ ancilla qubits},
$$

Definition (Block-encoding)

 U_A is an (α, m, ϵ) -block-encoding of A, if

$$
||A - \alpha (\langle 0^m | \otimes I_n) U_A (|0^m \rangle \otimes I_n)|| \le \epsilon,
$$

for some $\alpha \ge ||A||$, $m > 0$ and $\epsilon > 0$. Here α is called the *subnormalization* factor and m is the number of ancilla qubits, and n is the number of system qubits. When $\epsilon = 0$, it is also called an (α, m) -block-encoding.

Let A be a general $2^n\times 2^n$ matrix. $\|A\|\leq \alpha$ Idea:

$$
U_A = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A} & \\ \alpha & \\ * & \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \left\| \tilde{A} - A \right\| \le \epsilon
$$
\n
$$
\to m \text{ ancilla qubits},
$$

Definition (Block-encoding)

 U_A is an (α, m, ϵ) -block-encoding of A, if

$$
||A - \alpha (\langle 0^m | \otimes I_n) U_A (|0^m \rangle \otimes I_n)|| \le \epsilon,
$$

for some $\alpha \ge ||A||$, $m > 0$ and $\epsilon > 0$. Here α is called the *subnormalization* factor and m is the number of ancilla qubits, and n is the number of system qubits. When $\epsilon = 0$, it is also called an (α, m) -block-encoding.

Understanding: $U_A: 2^{m+n} \times 2^{m+n}$.

Let A be a general $2^n\times 2^n$ matrix. $\|A\|\leq \alpha$ Idea:

$$
U_A = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{A} & \\ \alpha & \\ * & \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \left\| \tilde{A} - A \right\| \le \epsilon
$$
\n
$$
\to m \text{ ancilla qubits},
$$

Definition (Block-encoding)

 U_A is an (α, m, ϵ) -block-encoding of A, if

$$
||A - \alpha (\langle 0^m | \otimes I_n) U_A (|0^m \rangle \otimes I_n)|| \le \epsilon,
$$

for some $\alpha \ge ||A||$, $m > 0$ and $\epsilon > 0$.

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) [Other advanced topics](#page-156-0)

Block-Encoding – Definition cont'd

[Intro to Quantum Computing](#page-2-0) [Block Encoding and Hamiltonian Simulation](#page-94-0) Computer Computing Computer Computer Computing Computer Compute

Block-Encoding – Definition cont'd

$$
|0^{m}\rangle
$$

\n
$$
| \psi \rangle
$$

\

Question: Well-defined? Not an empty set?

$$
|0^{m}\rangle
$$

\n
$$
| \psi \rangle
$$

\

Question: Well-defined? Not an empty set?

• Trivial example (unitary): U is a $(1, 0, 0)$ -block-encoding of U.

$$
|0^{m}\rangle
$$

\n
$$
| \psi \rangle
$$

\

Question: Well-defined? Not an empty set?

- Trivial example (unitary): U is a $(1, 0, 0)$ -block-encoding of U.
- \bullet (α , 1)-block-encoding is general. WLOG, assume $||A|| \leq 1$.

Question: Well-defined? Not an empty set?

- Trivial example (unitary): U is a $(1, 0, 0)$ -block-encoding of U.
- \bullet (α , 1)-block-encoding is general. WLOG, assume $||A|| \leq 1$. *Proof*: $A = W\Sigma V^{\dagger}$. All singular values $\in [0, 1]$.

Reference: [Gilyen-Su-Low-Wiebe 2018/2019], Lecture notes by Lin Lin

Question: Well-defined? Not an empty set?

- Trivial example (unitary): U is a $(1, 0, 0)$ -block-encoding of U.
- \bullet (α , 1)-block-encoding is general. WLOG, assume $||A|| \leq 1$. *Proof*: $A = W\Sigma V^{\dagger}$. All singular values $\in [0, 1]$.

$$
U_A := \begin{pmatrix} W & 0 \\ 0 & I_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma & \sqrt{I_n - \Sigma^2} \\ \sqrt{I_n - \Sigma^2} & -\Sigma \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V^{\dagger} & 0 \\ 0 & I_n \end{pmatrix}
$$

$$
= \begin{pmatrix} A & W\sqrt{I_n - \Sigma^2} \\ \sqrt{I_n - \Sigma^2}V^{\dagger} & -\Sigma \end{pmatrix}
$$

Reference: [Gilyen-Su-Low-Wiebe 2018/2019], Lecture notes by Lin Lin

Properties: Let U_A be an (α, a, ϵ) -BE of A; U_B be a (β, b, δ) -BE of B **1** (BE of cA) U_A is an $(c\alpha, a, c\epsilon)$ -BE of cA.

- **1** (BE of cA) U_A is an $(c\alpha, a, c\epsilon)$ -BE of cA.
- 2 (BE of AB) $W = (I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)$ is an $(\alpha \beta, a + b, \alpha \delta + \beta \epsilon)$ -BE of AB.

- **1** (BE of cA) U_A is an $(c\alpha, a, c\epsilon)$ -BE of cA.
- 2 (BE of AB) $W = (I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)$ is an $(\alpha \beta, a + b, \alpha \delta + \beta \epsilon)$ -BE of AB. *Proof:*

$$
\|AB - \alpha\beta(\langle 0|^{\otimes a+b} \otimes I)(I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)(|0\rangle^{\otimes a+b} \otimes I)\|
$$

=
$$
\|AB - \underbrace{\alpha(\langle 0|^{\otimes a} \otimes I)U_A(|0\rangle^{\otimes a} \otimes I)\beta(\langle 0|^{\otimes b} \otimes I)U_B(|0\rangle^{\otimes b} \otimes I)}_{\tilde{B}}\|
$$

- **1** (BE of cA) U_A is an $(c\alpha, a, c\epsilon)$ -BE of cA.
- \bullet (BE of AB) $W = (I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)$ is an $(\alpha \beta, a + b, \alpha \delta + \beta \epsilon)$ -BE of AB. *Proof:*

$$
\|AB - \alpha\beta(\langle 0|^{\otimes a+b} \otimes I)(I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)(|0\rangle^{\otimes a+b} \otimes I)\|
$$

=\|AB - \alpha(\langle 0|^{\otimes a} \otimes I)U_A(|0\rangle^{\otimes a} \otimes I)\beta(\langle 0|^{\otimes b} \otimes I)U_B(|0\rangle^{\otimes b} \otimes I)\|
=\|AB - \tilde{A}B + \tilde{A}B - \tilde{A}\tilde{B}\| = \|(A - \tilde{A})B + \tilde{A}(B - \tilde{B})\|

- **1** (BE of cA) U_A is an $(c\alpha, a, c\epsilon)$ -BE of cA.
- \bullet (BE of AB) $W = (I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)$ is an $(\alpha \beta, a + b, \alpha \delta + \beta \epsilon)$ -BE of AB. *Proof:*

$$
\|AB - \alpha\beta(\langle 0|^{\otimes a+b} \otimes I)(I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)(|0\rangle^{\otimes a+b} \otimes I)\|
$$

=\|AB - \alpha(\langle 0|^{\otimes a} \otimes I)U_A(|0\rangle^{\otimes a} \otimes I)\beta(\langle 0|^{\otimes b} \otimes I)U_B(|0\rangle^{\otimes b} \otimes I)\|
=\|AB - \tilde{A}B + \tilde{A}B - \tilde{A}\tilde{B}\| = \|(A - \tilde{A})B + \tilde{A}(B - \tilde{B})\|
 $\leq \alpha\delta + \beta\epsilon$.

Properties: Let U_A be an (α, a, ϵ) -BE of A; U_B be a (β, b, δ) -BE of B

- **1** (BE of cA) U_A is an $(c\alpha, a, c\epsilon)$ -BE of cA.
- \bullet (BE of AB)

 $W = (I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)$ is an $(\alpha \beta, a + b, \alpha \delta + \beta \epsilon)$ -BE of AB.

 \bullet (BE of $A + B$)

- **1** (BE of cA) U_A is an $(c\alpha, a, c\epsilon)$ -BE of cA.
- \bullet (BE of AB)
	- $W = (I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)$ is an $(\alpha \beta, a + b, \alpha \delta + \beta \epsilon)$ -BE of AB.
- **3** (BE of $A + B$) U_A : $(1, m, \epsilon)$ -BE of A ; U_B : $(1, m, \delta)$ -BE of B

Properties: Let U_A be an (α, a, ϵ) -BE of A; U_B be a (β, b, δ) -BE of B

- **1** (BE of cA) U_A is an $(c\alpha, a, c\epsilon)$ -BE of cA.
- \bullet (BE of AB)

 $W = (I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)$ is an $(\alpha \beta, a + b, \alpha \delta + \beta \epsilon)$ -BE of AB.

3 (BE of $A + B$) U_A : $(1, m, \epsilon)$ -BE of A ; U_B : $(1, m, \delta)$ -BE of B The following circuit constructs a $(2, m, \delta + \epsilon)$ -BE of $A + B$.

Properties: Let U_A be an (α, a, ϵ) -BE of A; U_B be a (β, b, δ) -BE of B

- **1** (BE of cA) U_A is an $(c\alpha, a, c\epsilon)$ -BE of cA.
- \bullet (BE of AB)

 $W = (I_b \otimes U_A)(I_a \otimes U_B)$ is an $(\alpha \beta, a + b, \alpha \delta + \beta \epsilon)$ -BE of AB.

3 (BE of $A + B$) U_A : $(1, m, \epsilon)$ -BE of A ; U_B : $(1, m, \delta)$ -BE of B The following circuit constructs a $(2, m, \delta + \epsilon)$ -BE of $A + B$.

More generally, linear combination of block-encodings can be constructed via Linear Combination of Unitaries (LCU) Lemma.

LCU Lemma

LCU Lemma: $T = \sum_{j \in [L]} c_j U_j$ for unitaries $U_j.$ $\|c\|_1 = \sum_{j \in [L]} |c_j|.$

LCU [Berry-Childs-Kothari 2015], General LCBE [Gilyen-Su-Low-Wiebe 2018]

LCU Lemma

LCU Lemma: $T = \sum_{j \in [L]} c_j U_j$ for unitaries $U_j.$ $\|c\|_1 = \sum_{j \in [L]} |c_j|.$

One can get a $(\|c\|_1$, $\lceil \log_2 L \rceil)$ -block-encoding by:

LCU [Berry-Childs-Kothari 2015], General LCBE [Gilyen-Su-Low-Wiebe 2018]

LCU Lemma

LCU Lemma: $T = \sum_{j \in [L]} c_j U_j$ for unitaries $U_j.$ $\|c\|_1 = \sum_{j \in [L]} |c_j|.$

One can get a $(\|c\|_1$, $\lceil \log_2 L \rceil)$ -block-encoding by:

LCU [Berry-Childs-Kothari 2015], General LCBE [Gilyen-Su-Low-Wiebe 2018]

We can "+" and " \times " \Rightarrow we can BE $\text{poly}(A)$

We can "+" and " \times " \Rightarrow we can BE $\text{poly}(A)$

 \Rightarrow We can BE $f(A)$. Super Powerful!!!

We can "+" and " \times " \Rightarrow we can BE $\text{poly}(A)$

 \Rightarrow We can BE $f(A)$. Super Powerful!!!

e.g., e^{-iHt} Hamiltonian Simulation, $e^{-\beta H}$ Gibbs distribution, A^{-1} matrix inversion, etc.

We can "+" and " \times " \Rightarrow we can BE $\text{poly}(A)$

 \Rightarrow We can BE $f(A)$. Super Powerful!!!

e.g., e^{-iHt} Hamiltonian Simulation, $e^{-\beta H}$ Gibbs distribution, A^{-1} matrix inversion, etc.

But $A + A^2 + \cdots + A^d$ Number of ancillas: $m + 2m + \cdots + dm \Rightarrow dm + \log(d)$ HUGE!

Question: Can we do better?

We can "+" and " \times " \Rightarrow we can BE $\text{poly}(A)$

 \Rightarrow We can BE $f(A)$. Super Powerful!!!

e.g., e^{-iHt} Hamiltonian Simulation, $e^{-\beta H}$ Gibbs distribution, A^{-1} matrix inversion, etc.

But $A + A^2 + \cdots + A^d$ Number of ancillas: $m + 2m + \cdots + dm \Rightarrow dm + \log(d)$ HUGE!

Question: Can we do better? Yes! 1 additional ancilla is sufficient! Quantum Singular Value Transformation (QSVT) / Quantum Signal Processing (QSP)

QSVT

$A = W \Sigma V^\dagger$ $f^\diamond(A) := W f(\Sigma) V^\dagger$ Generalized Matrix Function

QSVT

$A = W \Sigma V^\dagger$ $f^\diamond(A) := W f(\Sigma) V^\dagger$ Generalized Matrix Function

Theorem (QSVT with odd real polynomial) Let U_A be a $(1,m)$ -block-encoding of $A\in\mathbb{C}^{2^n\times 2^n}.$ Given an odd polynomial $P_{\mathbb{F}}(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of odd degree d satisfying

 $|P_{\mathbb{R}}(x)| \leqslant 1, \forall x \in [-1,1].$

We can find a sequence of phase factors $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ and construct a $(1, m + 1)$ -block-encoding of $P_{\Re}^{\diamond}(A)$ that uses U_A, U_A^{\dagger} , m-qubit controlled NOT, and single qubit rotation gates for $\mathcal{O}(d)$ times.

QSVT

$A = W \Sigma V^\dagger$ $f^\diamond(A) := W f(\Sigma) V^\dagger$ Generalized Matrix Function

Theorem (QSVT with odd real polynomial) Let U_A be a $(1,m)$ -block-encoding of $A\in\mathbb{C}^{2^n\times 2^n}.$ Given an odd polynomial $P_{\mathbb{R}}(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of odd degree d satisfying

 $|P_{\mathbb{R}}(x)| \leqslant 1, \forall x \in [-1,1].$

We can find a sequence of phase factors $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ and construct a $(1, m + 1)$ -block-encoding of $P_{\Re}^{\diamond}(A)$ that uses U_A, U_A^{\dagger} , m-qubit controlled NOT, and single qubit rotation gates for $O(d)$ times.

Given U_H : an $(\alpha, m, 0)$ -block-encoding of H. Goal: an algorithm that makes $\mathcal{O}(t + \log(1/\epsilon))$ queries to U_H .

Given U_H : an $(\alpha, m, 0)$ -block-encoding of H. Goal: an algorithm that makes $\mathcal{O}(t + \log(1/\epsilon))$ queries to U_H . $e^{iHt}=e^{i\frac{H}{\alpha}\alpha t}$. WLOG, assume $\alpha=1$.

Given U_H : an $(\alpha, m, 0)$ -block-encoding of H. Goal: an algorithm that makes $\mathcal{O}(t + \log(1/\epsilon))$ queries to U_H .

 $e^{iHt}=e^{i\frac{H}{\alpha}\alpha t}$. WLOG, assume $\alpha=1.$ $e^{itx}=\cos(tx)+i\sin(tx)$

Given U_H : an $(\alpha, m, 0)$ -block-encoding of H. Goal: an algorithm that makes $\mathcal{O}(t + \log(1/\epsilon))$ queries to U_H .

- $e^{iHt}=e^{i\frac{H}{\alpha}\alpha t}$. WLOG, assume $\alpha=1.$ $e^{itx}=\cos(tx)+i\sin(tx)$
- Jacobi-Anger expansion on [-1, 1]:

$$
\cos(tx) = J_0(t) + 2\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k J_{2k}(t) T_{2k}(x),
$$

$$
\sin(tx) = 2\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k J_{2k+1}(t) T_{2k+1}(x).
$$

 $J_{\nu}(t)$ denotes Bessel functions of the first kind.

Given U_H : an $(\alpha, m, 0)$ -block-encoding of H. Goal: an algorithm that makes $\mathcal{O}(t + \log(1/\epsilon))$ queries to U_H .

- $e^{iHt}=e^{i\frac{H}{\alpha}\alpha t}$. WLOG, assume $\alpha=1.$ $e^{itx}=\cos(tx)+i\sin(tx)$
- Jacobi-Anger expansion on [-1, 1]:

$$
\cos(tx) = J_0(t) + 2\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k J_{2k}(t) T_{2k}(x),
$$

$$
\sin(tx) = 2\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k J_{2k+1}(t) T_{2k+1}(x).
$$

• This series converges rapidly. Truncating it with

$$
r = \Theta\left(t + \frac{\log(1/\epsilon)}{\log(e + \log(1/\epsilon)/t)}\right)
$$

terms gives a polynomial approximation (with precision ϵ and degree $2r + 1$) of $cos(tx) + i sin(tx) = e^{itx}$.

Given U_H : an $(\alpha, m, 0)$ -block-encoding of H. Goal: an algorithm that makes $\mathcal{O}(t + \log(1/\epsilon))$ queries to U_H .

 $e^{iHt}=e^{i\frac{H}{\alpha}\alpha t}$. WLOG, assume $\alpha=1.$ $e^{itx}=\cos(tx)+i\sin(tx)$

Query Complexity: $(\alpha \geq ||H||)$.

$$
\mathcal{O}\left(\alpha t + \frac{\log(1/\epsilon)}{\log(e+\log(1/\epsilon)/t)}\right).
$$

 e^{-iHt} is unitary. Success probability upon measurement is ok. ¹

¹In fact, it is an issue even for Hamiltonian simulation that leads to exponential cost in time. But for unitary dynamics, OAA (can be viewed as a form of QSVT) can solve the issue.

 e^{-iHt} is unitary. Success probability upon measurement is ok. ¹ But BE of non-unitary. Success probability can be very small!!

¹In fact, it is an issue even for Hamiltonian simulation that leads to exponential cost in time. But for unitary dynamics, OAA (can be viewed as a form of QSVT) can solve the issue.

 e^{-iHt} is unitary. Success probability upon measurement is ok. ¹ But BE of non-unitary. Success probability can be very small!!

Suppose $\ket{\psi}$ can be prepared by U_ψ , i.e., $U_\psi\ket{0^n}=\ket{\psi}$, and

 $|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{p} |\psi_{\text{good}}\rangle + \sqrt{1-p} |\psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle.$

The success probability of getting ψ_{good} is p. \Rightarrow need to repeat measurement $\mathcal{O}(1/p)$ times.

¹In fact, it is an issue even for Hamiltonian simulation that leads to exponential cost in time. But for unitary dynamics, OAA (can be viewed as a form of QSVT) can solve the issue.

 e^{-iHt} is unitary. Success probability upon measurement is ok. ¹ But BE of non-unitary. Success probability can be very small!!

Suppose $\ket{\psi}$ can be prepared by U_ψ , i.e., $U_\psi\ket{0^n}=\ket{\psi}$, and

 $|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{p} |\psi_{\text{good}}\rangle + \sqrt{1-p} |\psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle.$

The success probability of getting ψ_{good} is p. \Rightarrow need to repeat measurement $\mathcal{O}(1/p)$ times. What if p is too small?

¹In fact, it is an issue even for Hamiltonian simulation that leads to exponential cost in time. But for unitary dynamics, OAA (can be viewed as a form of QSVT) can solve the issue.

 e^{-iHt} is unitary. Success probability upon measurement is ok. ¹ But BE of non-unitary. Success probability can be very small!!

Suppose $\ket{\psi}$ can be prepared by U_ψ , i.e., $U_\psi\ket{0^n}=\ket{\psi}$, and

 $|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{p} |\psi_{\text{good}}\rangle + \sqrt{1-p} |\psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle.$

The success probability of getting ψ_{good} is p.

 \Rightarrow need to repeat measurement $\mathcal{O}(1/p)$ times.

What if p is too small?

Amplitude Amplification (AA): The success probability can be boosted from p to $\Omega(1)$ via AA that accesses $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{p})$ times of the circuit U.

¹In fact, it is an issue even for Hamiltonian simulation that leads to exponential cost in time. But for unitary dynamics, OAA (can be viewed as a form of QSVT) can solve the issue.

Summary of Part 2

- **Hamiltonian simulation and Trotterization**
- Block-encoding: Definition and Properties
- **LCU and OSVT**
- Optimal Hamiltonian Simulation via QSVT
- Success Probability

[General Differential Equations](#page-156-0) *(optional)*

Other advanced topics

- General Linear Differential Equation *(optional)*
- Hamiltonian Simulation time dependent case? with unboundeded operator? *(workshop talk)*

[Ham. Sim. with Unbounded Operators](#page-157-0) *(workshop talk)*

References on Quantum Algorithms

- M. Nielsen and I. Chuang. Quantum Computation and Quantum Information, Cambridge University Press *(classics)*
- Lecture Notes on Quantum Computation by Umesh Vazirani (UC Berkeley) *(entry level)*
- Lecture Notes on Quantum Computation by John Preskill (Caltech) *(entry level)*
- Lecture Notes on Quantum Computation by Ryan O'Donnell (CMU) *(entry level)*
- Lecture notes on Quantum Algorithms for Scientific Computations by Lin Lin (UC Berkeley) [arXiv:2201.08309] *(advanced topics)*
- Lecture notes on Quantum Algorithms by Andrew Childs (U Maryland) *(advanced topics)*
- Qiskit Textbook by IBM (https://qiskit.org/learn) *(Algorithm Demos)*

Thank you for your attention!

