## Lecture 2: Quantum Numerical Linear Algebra

## Resources: IPAM:

Mathematical and Computational Challenges in Quantum Computing, Long Program
(https://www.ipam.ucla.edu/programs/long-programs/mathematical-and-computational-challenges-in-quantumcomputing/?tab=activities)
Quantum Numerical Linear Algebra, Workshop
(https://www.ipam.ucla.edu/programs/workshops/quantum-numerical-linear-algebra/?tab=schedule)

Question: What are the fundamental components of linear algebra?

### 2.1 Introduction

In classical computing, solving a linear system involves matrix-vector multiplication and various algorithms like Gaussian elimination or LU decomposition.

The Quantum Linear System Algorithm (QLSA) is designed to leverage the properties of quantum computing for solving linear systems:

Given a matrix $A$ and a vector $b$, the goal is to find a quantum state $|\tilde{x}\rangle$ that encodes the solution $x$ of $A x=b$.

### 2.2 Quantum Linear System Problem (QLSP)

Example: $A=\frac{1}{4} X+\frac{3}{4} I,|b\rangle=|0\rangle$

### 2.3 Review: What is a Quantum Computer?

## Quantum State Vectors

A quantum state is represented by a complex vector in a Hilbert space. For example, a qubit state can be written as:

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

where $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are complex probability amplitudes, and $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ are the basis states.

## Pauli Matrices

Used for quantum state manipulation, qubit rotations, and creating entanglement.

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad Y=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad Z=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right), \quad I=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Hadamard Gate

The Hadamard gate creates superposition:

$$
H=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Quantum Superposition

Using the Hadamard gate, we can transform basis states, and create a quantum superposition:

$$
H|0\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle+|1\rangle), \quad H|1\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle-|1\rangle)
$$

The qubits are simultaneously in both states $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$.

### 2.3.1 Tensor Product of Basis States

The tensor product is used to describe composite quantum systems.

## Tensor Product

The tensor product combines two quantum states to describe their joint state. For example:

$$
|0\rangle \otimes|0\rangle=|00\rangle
$$

This represents the joint state of two qubits, where the first qubit is in state $|0\rangle$ and the second qubit is in state $|0\rangle$.

## Basis States

Consider the basis states for two qubits:
$|00\rangle=$
$|01\rangle=$
$|10\rangle=$
$|11\rangle=$

## Quantum States

Using the tensor product, we can represent the combined states of two qubits:

$$
|00\rangle=|0\rangle \otimes|0\rangle|01\rangle=|0\rangle \otimes|1\rangle|10\rangle=|1\rangle \otimes|0\rangle|11\rangle=|1\rangle \otimes|1\rangle
$$

The CNOT gate is a fundamental two-qubit gate in quantum computing:

CNOT $=\left[\begin{array}{llll}1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0\end{array}\right]$

### 2.4 Block Encoding

## Example:

### 2.4.1 Block Encoding $A^{-1}$

Polynomials and Matrices:
Characteristic Equation for $A$ :
$p(A)$ :

Taylor Expansion of $e^{A}$ :

Polynomial Approximation of $A^{-1} / \alpha$ :

Constructing $U_{A^{-1}}|b\rangle$

### 2.5 Quantum Iterative Solvers

## Complexity of Conjugate Gradient:

$$
\begin{equation*}
O(N \sqrt{\kappa(A)} \log (1 / \epsilon)) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lower Bound: There is a tradeoff between the condition number of $A$, the desired accuracy of the solution, and the number of quantum operations required. These operations scale logarithmically with the condition number and high accuracy can require a significant number of quantum operations.

Goal: Achieve a near-optimal quantum linear solver with $\tilde{O}(\kappa(A) \operatorname{poly} \log (1 / \epsilon))$.

| Algorithm | Complexity |
| :--- | :--- |
| Quantum Phase Estimation (HHL) | $\tilde{O}\left(\frac{\kappa^{2}}{\epsilon}\right)$ |
| Linear Combination of Unitaries (LCU) | $\tilde{O}\left(\kappa^{2} \operatorname{polylog}(1 / \epsilon)\right.$ |
| Quantum Singular Value Transformation (QSVT) | $\tilde{O}\left(\kappa^{2}(A) \log (1 / \epsilon)\right)$. |
| Time-Optimal Adiabatic Quantum Computing (AQC(exp)) | $\tilde{O}(\kappa \operatorname{polylog}(1 / \epsilon))$ |
| Eigenstate Filtering | $\tilde{O}(\kappa \log (1 / \epsilon)$ |

Table 2.1:

### 2.6 Adiabatic Computation

If a physical system starts in a ground state and evolves slow, it will remain close to the instantaneous ground state. $\Leftrightarrow$ A physical system remains in its instantaneous eigenstate if a given perturbation is acting on it slowly enough and if there is a gap between the eigenvalue and the rest of the Hamiltonian's spectrum.

## Review: Eigendecomposition

### 2.6.1 Reformulating QLSP as an Eigenvalue Problem

Let's do it classically...
Consider a linear system $A \mathbf{x}=\mathbf{b}$, where $A$ is a Hermitian matrix.
Introduce another vector $\mathbf{y}$ and consider the following transformation:

$$
(A-\lambda I) \mathbf{y}=\mathbf{b}
$$

where $\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of matrix $A$, and $I$ is the identity matrix. Now let $B=A-\lambda I$, and we have

$$
B \mathbf{x}=\mathbf{y}
$$

## Rewriting in "quantum":

QLSP $\rightarrow$ Eigenproblem: Find an eigenvector of $H$ with eigenvalue 0.

### 2.7 Preconditioned Quantum Linear System Solver

### 2.7.1 Fast Inversion of Diagonal Matrices

### 2.7.2 Sparse Approximate Inverses

$$
\min \|M A-I\|_{F}^{2}=\sum_{k=1}^{N}\left\|(M A-I) e_{k}\right\|_{2}^{2}
$$

$N$ Independent Least Squares Problems:

$$
\min _{m_{k}} \sum_{k=1}^{N}\left\|A m_{k}-e_{k}\right\|_{2}^{2}
$$

### 2.8 Quantum SVD

## Review: (Classical) SVD

### 2.8.1 Entanglement and the SVD

Entanglement: Two or more quantum systems become correlated such that one cannot be described independently of the other.

Relationship to the SVD: We can think about $U$ and $V$ being correlated via $\Sigma$, and measured by the number of nonzero singular values.

Conclusion: $\psi$ is entangled if its Schmidt rank is strictly greater than 1 (else, it is not entangled).

