Simulating Hamiltonian dynamics on a quantum computer

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Why quantum computing?

Information is physical. Physics is quantum mechanical.

In particular: Physical systems are described by vectors in Hilbert space that evolve by unitary transformations and can be measured by projection onto orthogonal subspaces.

The quantum circuit model

- Start in the state $|0\rangle$
- Apply a sequence of unitary transformations U₁, U₂, ..., U_k chosen from a universal gate set, e.g. {H,T,CNOT}
- Measure in the computational basis

But time is not really discrete!

Hamiltonian dynamics

Quantum systems evolve according to the Schrödinger equation:

$$i rac{\mathsf{d}}{\mathsf{d}t} |\psi(t)
angle = H(t) |\psi(t)
angle$$

H(*t*) is the **Hamiltonian**.

 $H=H^{\dagger}$ so that the time evolution is *unitary*: $\frac{d}{dt}\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = i\langle\psi|H^{\dagger}|\psi\rangle - i\langle\psi|H|\psi\rangle = 0$

Solution of Schrödinger equation

$$i \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle$$

Eigenstates of *H*: $H |\phi_j\rangle = E_j |\phi_j\rangle$ `time independent

 $H = \sum_{j} E_{j} |\phi_{j}\rangle\langle\phi_{j}| \qquad E_{j} \in \mathbb{R} \text{ since } H = H^{\dagger}$

Suppose $|\psi(0)\rangle = |\phi_j\rangle$ Then $|\psi(t)\rangle = \exp(-i E_j t) |\phi_j\rangle$

Expand a general initial state: $|\psi(0)\rangle = \sum_{j} c_{j} |\phi_{j}\rangle$ $|\psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{j} c_{j} \exp(-i E_{j} t) |\phi_{j}\rangle = U(t) |\psi(0)\rangle$ where $U(t) = \exp(-i H t) = \sum_{j} (-i H t)^{j} / j!$

Solution of Schrödinger equation

Time dependent case

 $|\psi(t)\rangle = U(t) |\psi(0)\rangle$ where $U(t) = T \exp[-i \int_0^t d\tau H(\tau)]$ time ordering operator

Special case: Suppose H(t) changes very slowly. Then the evolution is much simpler because of the *Adiabatic Theorem*. More on this later.

Relation to the circuit model

Unitary quantum gates arise from Hamiltonian dynamics.

Simple example: Two level atom.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} - & |1\rangle \\ - & |0\rangle \end{array} \quad \text{Apply a laser pulse.} \quad H = \omega \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ U(t) = e^{-iHt} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \omega t & \sin \omega t \\ -\sin \omega t & \cos \omega t \end{pmatrix} \\ U(\pi/4\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

But perhaps we can use *many-body* Hamiltonians to perform interesting computations.

Why consider Hamiltonians?

Simulating physical systems

New kinds of quantum algorithms

- Quantum walks
- Adiabatic quantum computation

Quantum analogue of the Cook-Levin Theorem (Kitaev: "LOCAL HAMILTONIAN is QMA-complete")

Efficiently realizable Hamiltonians

How do we know what Hamiltonians are legal for use in computations?

Example: Let x = instance of a hard problem Let $s_x =$ solution of x

The Hamiltonian

$$H = \sum_{x} (|0, s_x\rangle \langle x, 0| + |x, 0\rangle \langle 0, s_x|)$$

seems hard to implement!

Efficiently realizable Hamiltonians

Two notions of efficient realizability:

 H is the Hamiltonian of a physical system we can "easily" build

Spins arranged on a 2D lattice



$$H = \sum_{j,k} a_{jk} \sigma_z^{(j)} \sigma_z^{(k)} + \sum_j b_j \sigma_x^{(j)}$$

where $a_{ik} = 0$ for non-adjacent sites

Efficiently realizable Hamiltonians

Two notions of efficient realizability:

- **2.** *H* is a Hamiltonian that can be efficiently simulated in the circuit model
- **Def.** A Hamiltonian *H* acting on *n* qubits can be *efficiently simulated* if for any $\varepsilon > 0$, t > 0 there is a quantum circuit *U* consisting of poly $(n,t,1/\varepsilon)$ gates such that $||U - e^{-iHt}|| < \varepsilon$.

Note: This will include the "physically reasonable" Hamiltonians.

Rule 1. Local Hamiltonians.

If H acts on O(1) qubits, it can be efficiently simulated.

Rule 2. Rescaling.

If *H* can be efficiently simulated, then cH can be efficiently simulated for any c=poly(n).

Rule 3. Linear combination.

If H_j can be efficiently simulated, then $\sum_j H_j$ can be efficiently simulated.

Lemma. Lie product formula. Let $h = \max_{j} ||H_{j}||$. Then $e^{-i(H_{1} + \dots + H_{k})t} = (e^{-iH_{1}t/r} \cdots e^{-iH_{k}t/r})^{r}$ $+ O\left(\frac{kh^{2}t^{2}}{r}\right)$

Lie product formula

Proof.

By Taylor expansion, $e^{-iHt/r} = 1 - iHt/r + O(h^2t^2/r^2)$

Thus $(e^{-iH_1t/r} \cdots e^{-iH_kt/r})^r$ $= [1 - i(H_1 + \cdots + H_k)t/r + O(kh^2t^2/r^2)]^r$ $= [e^{-i(H_1 + \cdots + H_k)t/r} + O(kh^2t^2/r^2)]^r$ $= e^{-i(H_1 + \cdots + H_k)t} + O(kh^2t^2/r) \square$

The story so far

Using Rules 1,2,3 we can simulate many "physical" Hamiltonians.

H = sum of terms, each acting on a constant number of qubits

Recall example of a spin glass:

$$H = \sum_{j,k} a_{jk} \sigma_z^{(j)} \sigma_z^{(k)} + \sum_j b_j \sigma_x^{(j)}$$

Lloyd 96

Rule 4. Commutation.

If H_1 , H_2 can be efficiently simulated, then $i[H_1, H_2]$ can be efficiently simulated.

Rule 5. Unitary conjugation.

If *H* can be efficiently simulated and the unitary operation *U* can be efficiently implemented, then $U^{\dagger}HU$ can be efficiently simulated.

Proof. $e^{-iU^{\dagger}HUt} = U^{\dagger}e^{-iHt}U$

Rule 6. Computable phase shifts.

If *H* is diagonal and the diagonal element $d(a) = \langle a | H | a \rangle$ can be efficiently computed for any *a*, then *H* can be efficiently simulated.

Proof.





Rule 7. Sparse Hamiltonians.

Suppose that for any *a*, one can efficiently compute all the values of *b* for which $\langle a|H|b \rangle$ is nonzero. Then *H* can be efficiently simulated.

Example:



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Example:



Lemma.

Given an undirected graph *G* with *N* vertices and maximum degree *d*, suppose one can efficiently compute the neighbors of a given vertex. Then there is an efficiently computable function c(a,b)=c(b,a) taking $O(d^2 \log^2 N)$ values such that for all *a*, c(a,b)=c(a,b') implies b=b'.

Proof.

Let index(a,b) be the index of b in the list of neighbors of a.

Let k(a,b) be the smallest k such that $a \neq b \pmod{k}$. Note k(a,b)=k(b,a) and $k=O(\log N)$.

For a < b, define $c(a,b) := (index(a,b)) index(b,a), k(a,b), b \mod k(a,b))$ For a > b, define c(a,b) := c(b,a).

Suppose c(a,b)=c(a,b'). Four cases:

i. a < b, a < b'. index $(a,b) = index(a,b') \Rightarrow b = b'$.

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Suppose c(a,b)=c(a,b'). Four cases:

- i. a < b, a < b'. index $(a,b) = index(a,b') \Rightarrow b = b'$.
- ii. a > b, a > b'. index $(a,b) = index(a,b') \Rightarrow b = b'$.

Proof.

Let index(a,b) be the index of b in the list of neighbors of a.

Let k(a,b) be the smallest k such that $a \neq b \pmod{k}$. Note k(a,b)=k(b,a) and $k=O(\log N)$.

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Suppose c(a,b)=c(a,b'). Four cases:

- i. a < b, a < b'. index $(a,b) = index(a,b') \Rightarrow b = b'$.
- ii. a > b, a > b'. index $(a,b) = index(a,b') \Rightarrow b = b'$.

iii. a < b, a > b'. k(a,b) = k(a,b'), $a = b \mod k$, contradiction.

Proof.

Let index(a,b) be the index of b in the list of neighbors of a.

Let k(a,b) be the smallest k such that $a \neq b \pmod{k}$. Note k(a,b)=k(b,a) and $k=O(\log N)$.

For a < b, define $c(a,b) := (index(a,b), index(b,a), k(a,b), b \mod k(a,b))$ For a > b, define c(a,b) := c(b,a).

Suppose c(a,b)=c(a,b'). Four cases:

i. a < b, a < b'. index $(a,b) = index(a,b') \Rightarrow b = b'$.

ii. a > b, a > b'. index $(a,b) = index(a,b') \Rightarrow b = b'$.

iii. a < b, a > b'. k(a,b) = k(a,b'), $a = b \mod k$, contradiction.

iv. a > b, a < b'. k(a,b) = k(a,b'), $a = b' \mod k$, contradiction.

Proof.

Let index(a,b) be the index of b in the list of neighbors of a.

Let k(a,b) be the smallest k such that $a \neq b \pmod{k}$. Note k(a,b)=k(b,a) and $k=O(\log N)$.

Suppose c(a,b)=c(a,b'). Four cases:

i.
$$a < b$$
, $a < b'$. index $(a,b) = index(a,b') \Rightarrow b = b'$.

ii. a > b, a > b'. index $(a,b) = index(a,b') \Rightarrow b = b'$.

iii. a < b, a > b'. k(a,b) = k(a,b'), $a = b \mod k$, contradiction.

iv. a > b, a < b'. k(a,b) = k(a,b'), $a = b' \mod k$, contradiction.

Simulating a sparse Hamiltonian

Proof. (of Rule 7)

Write *H* as a diagonal matrix plus a matrix with zeros on the diagonal. The diagonal part can be simulated using Rule 6 and combined with the off-diagonal piece using Rule 3. Thus assume *H* has zeros on the diagonal WLOG.

Let $v_c(a)$ be the vertex connected to a by an edge of color c. Let $x_c(a) := \text{Re } \langle a | H | v_c(a) \rangle$, $y_c(a) := \text{Im } \langle a | H | v_c(a) \rangle$.

Consider the state space $|a,b,z\rangle$ where vertices are $|a,0,0\rangle$.

We can efficiently implement unitary operators (If no such vertex, $V_c |a,0,0\rangle = |a, v_c(a), x_c(a)\rangle$ $W_c |a,0,0\rangle = |a, v_c(a), y_c(a)\rangle$. (If no such vertex, $v_c(a)=11...1$, $X_c(a)=y_c(a)=0$.)

We can efficiently simulate the Hamiltonians $S |a,b,x\rangle = x |b,a,x\rangle$ $T |a,b,y\rangle = i y |b,a,-y\rangle$

using Rules 1,5,6.

CCDFGS 02

Simulating a sparse Hamiltonian

Proof. (of Rule 7, continued)

Using Rules 3,5 we can efficiently simulate $\tilde{H} = \sum_{c} (V_{c}^{\dagger}SV_{c} + W_{c}^{\dagger}TW_{c}).$

This has the proper action on vertices:

$$\begin{split} \tilde{H}|a,0,0\rangle &= \sum_{c} [V_{c}^{\dagger}S|a,v_{c}(a),x_{c}(a)\rangle \\ &+ W_{c}^{\dagger}T|a,v_{c}(a),y_{c}(a)\rangle] \\ &= \sum_{c} [x_{c}(a) V_{c}^{\dagger}|v_{c}(a),a,x_{c}(a)\rangle \\ &+ iy_{c}(a) W_{c}^{\dagger}|a,v_{c}(a),-y_{c}(a)\rangle] \\ &= \sum_{c} [x_{c}(a) + iy_{c}(a)]|v_{c}(a),0,0\rangle \quad \Box \end{split}$$

CCDFGS 02

Example: Particle in a potential

Consider the Hamiltonian

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x), \qquad p^2 = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$$

Lattice version (lattice spacing /):

$$p^{2}|x\rangle = \frac{1}{l^{2}}(2|x\rangle - |x+1\rangle - |x-1\rangle)$$

 p^2 is diagonal in the Fourier basis, and the unitary operator corresponding to the Fourier transform is efficiently implementable, so H can be simulated using Rules 3,5,6.

Alternatively, just note that H is sparse and computable, so Rule 7 applies.

Summary

Quantum systems evolve according to the Schrödinger equation $i \frac{d}{dt} |\psi(t)\rangle = H(t) |\psi(t)\rangle$

Such systems can be efficiently simulated by a universal quantum computer when *H*

- Is a sum of terms, each acting on at most a constant number of qubits (Rule 1,2,3)
- Is *i* times the commutator of two simulable Hamiltonians (Rule 4)
- Differs from a simulable Hamiltonian by an efficiently implementable unitary transformation (Rule 5)
- Is sparse and efficiently computable (Rules 6,7)

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Hamiltonian dynamics in quantum algorithms: See next lecture