Complexity of Reconstructing Quantum States and Green's Functions PhD Thesis Defense

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Reconstructing Quantum States

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Part I

Quantum State Tomography

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You have a procedure for preparing a quantum state, and you want to know what that state is.

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You have a procedure for preparing a quantum state, and you want to know what that state is.

- Identifying the output of a quantum circuit
- Characterizing the result of some experiment
- Calibrating a quantum device (photonics, superconducting qubits, etc.)

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Quantum State Tomography

Tomography of the quantum state of photons entangled in high dimensions

Megan Agnew, Jonathan Leach, Melanie McLaren, F. Stef Roux, and Robert W. Boyd Phys. Rev. A 84, 062101 – Published 2 December 2011

Scalable on-chip quantum state tomography

James G. Titchener 🖾, Markus Gräfe, René Heilmann, Alexander S. Solntsev, Alexander Szameit & Andrey A. Sukhorukov

npj Quantum Information 4, Article number: 19 (2018) Cite this article

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Experimental Single-Setting Quantum State Tomography

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Roman Stricker, Michael Meth, Lukas Postler, Claire Edmunds, Chris Ferrie, Rainer Blatt, Philipp Schindler, Thomas Monz, Richard Kueng, and Martin Ringbauer PRX Quantum 3, 040310 – Published 21 October 2022



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We have some unknown quantum state $|\psi\rangle$ (or a mixed state ρ). We have a method to repeatedly prepare $|\psi\rangle$:

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Repeatedly prepare $|\psi\rangle$ and measure it (in *some* basis), take these measurements to estimate $|\psi\rangle$.

Hilbert space dimension small $d,\ |\psi\rangle\in\mathbb{C}^d.$ Demand a full picture of ψ

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Quantum State Tomography: Usually Works?

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The reconstruction step:

Given the measurement data, find $|\psi\rangle$

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Given the measurement data, find $|\psi\rangle$

 $|\psi\rangle$ is a unit vector in \mathbb{C}^d . I have taken some number *n* of measurements, and now I would like to estimate ψ as accurately as possible.

• Measurement outcomes $|\gamma_i\rangle$ are (wlog) unit vectors in \mathbb{C}^d , each ψ has a likelihood $|\langle \psi | \gamma_i \rangle|^2$

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Main result: this is NP-hard to approximate, even within an exponential factor!

Produce a non-normalized $|\psi\rangle$ (hoping for ok $\langle\psi|\mathcal{O}|\psi\rangle$)



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Principled approach:

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Principled approach: Bayesian statistics!

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Principled approach: Bayesian statistics!

Integrate over all possible $|\psi\rangle$, weighted by the likelihood of observed data.

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Unknown probability distribution P over d elements



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- A weighted die with d sides, a bag with d different colors of marble in it

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- A weighted die with d sides, a bag with d different colors of marble in it
- With d = 3, I have counts k_1 , k_2 , k_3 of my observations
- Want to know p_1 , p_2 , p_3 .

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With d = 2 weighted coin, just trying to estimate one number: p_{Heads} . Initial distribution over possible *p*'s is flat:



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After flipping the coin and getting tails once, the likelihoods update. I can rule out $p_{Heads} = 1.0$.



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After 2 heads and 9 tails, the possible probabilities begin to concentrate:



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Likelihood of a hypothetical p:

$$L(p) = p^{\# ext{ of Heads}} (1-p)^{\# ext{ of Tails}}$$

e.g. after 10 heads and 20 tails,

$$L(p) = p^{10}(1-p)^{20}$$

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Chance of getting heads next time, is $\mathbb{E}[p]$, which is integrating p across possible coins:

$$\mathbb{E}[p] = \int_{\mathfrak{p}=0}^1 \mathfrak{p} L(\mathfrak{p}) \, d\mathfrak{p} = \int_{\mathfrak{p}=0}^1 \mathfrak{p} \mathfrak{p}^{10} (1-\mathfrak{p})^{20} \, d\mathfrak{p}$$

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With d = 3, I have counts k_1 , k_2 , k_3 of my observations:

$$Z = \iint_{\mathbf{p} \in \Delta_3} L(\mathbf{p}) \, d\mathbf{p} = \iint_{\mathbf{p} \in \Delta_3} \mathfrak{p}_1^{k_1} \mathfrak{p}_2^{k_2} \mathfrak{p}_3^{k_3} \, d\mathbf{p}$$

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 \implies chance of getting outcome "1" on another sample.

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Not easy immediately, really this is

$$\mathbb{E}[p_1] = \int_{\mathfrak{p}_1=0}^1 \int_{\mathfrak{p}_2=0}^{1-\mathfrak{p}_1} \mathfrak{p}_1^{k_1} \mathfrak{p}_2^{k_2} (1-\mathfrak{p}_1-\mathfrak{p}_2)^{k_3} d\mathbf{p}$$

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But! Integrand is **convex**, and so can be computed efficiently! Picture:

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Reconstructing Quantum States

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Quantum Case

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Integral

$$Z = \int_{\psi} {\it L}(\psi) \, d\psi = \int_{\psi} \prod_i |\langle \psi | \gamma_i
angle|^2 \, d\psi$$

The integrand:

$$\prod_{i} |\langle \psi | \gamma_i \rangle|^2$$

is a polynomial in the coordinates of ψ . Each observation γ_i adds a zero hyperplane to this polynomial: zero chance that ψ is perpendicular to γ_i .

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is a polynomial in the coordinates of ψ . Each observation γ_i adds a zero hyperplane to this polynomial: zero chance that ψ is perpendicular to γ_i .

Lots of zeros \rightarrow highly oscillatory function \rightarrow hard to maximize.

•
$$|\gamma_1\rangle = |1\rangle = (1, 0, 0, ...)$$

• $|\gamma_2\rangle = |2\rangle = (0, 1, 0, ...)$

etc.

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 ψ can't have any zero (or small) entries. If kth entry is zero, then $\langle\psi|\gamma_k\rangle$ is zero, an impossible observation

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By taking many copies of each basis vector (say, poly(d) many), we ensure that each entry of ψ is roughly equal in magnitude.

Only significant terms in the integral are:

$$\psi pprox rac{1}{\sqrt{d}}(e^{i heta_1},e^{i heta_2},\dots e^{i heta_d})$$

By symmetry, we can fix $\theta_1 = 0$. Not physical anyway



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$$\gamma_{+,2} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, 0, 0, \dots\right)$$

 $\gamma_{-,2} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, 0, 0, \dots\right)$

Then $e^{i\theta_2}$ cannot be close to -1 or +1. Probability is maximized with +i and -i.

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Then $e^{i\theta_2}$ cannot be close to -1 or +1. Probability is maximized with +i and -i.

By taking many copies of $\gamma_{+,k}$ and $\gamma_{-,k}$, ensure that all $e^{i\theta_k}$ are close to +i or -i.

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For d = 2 qubit, this looks like:

- 2 Many X basis measurements, getting both $|+\rangle$ and $|-\rangle$ many times. \implies Must be a $\pm Y$ eigenstate, but we don't know which

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For higher d, we get exponentially many different options, 2^{d-1} many

Illustration for d=3

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Now integral concentrates on these 2^{d-1} discrete points: total integral is proportional to sum of likelihood of these points, plus an exponentially smaller additive error (the other implausible points).

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Cut out some of that list of points.

The state

$$\gamma_{(234)} = \left(0, \frac{-2}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, 0, 0, 0\dots\right)$$

is perpendicular to (0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0...), and eliminates the possibility that all three signs are equal.

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$$\gamma_{(234),B} = \left(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{-2}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, 0, 0, 0\dots\right)$$
$$\gamma_{(234),C} = \left(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{-2}{\sqrt{6}}, 0, 0, 0\dots\right)$$

to keep the probability symmetric across which of the three signs should differ.

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Hardness: Main Result

Reduce from NOT-ALL-EQUAL-3SAT: given some triples of variables, finding an assignment of Boolean variables such that no specified triple has all equal values. NP-complete.

- "Set $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5\}$ so that each of (v_1, v_2, v_4) , (v_1, v_3, v_5) , (v_2, v_4, v_5) , (v_2, v_3, v_5) have at least one TRUE and one FALSE"
- "Set the phases in $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(1, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, s_5) \dots$ "

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"

Given a NAE-3SAT problem on v variables, can write down a set of n = poly(v) measurements Γ on d = v + 1 variables, such that:

- For each solution to the original problem, there is exactly one $|\psi\rangle$ with high likelihood, at least f(n).
- If no solutions to the original, all $|\psi\rangle$ are exponentially unlikely, at most $f(n)2^{-\operatorname{poly}(d)}$.

Widely believed that P \neq NP, that you cannot solve NAE-3SAT efficiently. If you had an algorithm to find a good $|\psi\rangle$ given the measurement data, you could use it to solve NAE-3SAT, so we conclude that this should be impossible.

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Formally: for any C < 1, NP-hard to find $|\psi\rangle$ with likelihood within a factor $2^{n^{C}}$ of the optimal answer.

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Partition function Z:

- Approximately counts good "solutions" ψ , each one contributes a similar amount
- \blacksquare Can be used to recover a solution ψ
- Must be hard to approximate within exponential factor too!
- Turns out to mathematically take the form of a positive semidefinite permanent

A series of works from the mathematical side:

- **1** Marcus '63: *n*! factor approximation
- 2 Rahimi-Keshari/Lund/Ralph '17: Stockmeyer counting approach
- 3 Anari/Gurvits/Gharan/Saberi '17: 4.85ⁿ approximation
- 4 Grier & Schaeffer '18: Hard to compute exactly
- **5** Barvinok '20: Fast algorithm for $\lambda_{\max}/\lambda_{\min} \leq 2$
- 6 Yuan & Parrilo '21: Fast algorithm, also requires close eigenvalues

Conjectured by several to be easy to approximate

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Connections to thermal BosonSampling devices:

- **1** Connection between BosonSampling with quantum and classical input states, Kim et al.
- 2 *Multiboson correlation interferometry with multimode thermal sources*, Tamma et al.
- 3 Chakhmakhchyan et al. '17 Quantum inspired(!) algorithm for estimation
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The hardness of finding $|\psi\rangle \implies$ hardness of approximation $Z \implies$ hardness of approximating these permanents! Thermal inputs should not lose much computational power

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- **Easy** for classical case, $O(nd^3)$
- Hard for logarithmically many qubits / particles
- Classical: probabilities are positive. Quantum: sign problem.

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- Proved that O(n^d) is essentially optimal (parameterized complexity)
- PSD permanent hardness

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- Not hard because quantum has exponentially big Hilbert space
- **Easy** for classical case, $O(nd^3)$
- Hard for logarithmically many qubits / particles
- Classical: probabilities are positive. Quantum: sign problem.
 Can't guess the signs
- There is a $O(n^d)$ algorithm for computing it exactly
- For a fixed Hilbert space dimension d, it's tractable in n
- Proved that O(n^d) is essentially optimal (parameterized complexity)
- PSD permanent hardness
- State estimation requires some other assumption (about "typical" measurement outcomes)

Part II

Green's Function Estimation

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 We would like to use quantum computers to calculate physical quantities of interest

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- Green's function: $G(t) = \langle \psi | \exp(iHt) \mathcal{O}^{\dagger} \exp(-iHt) \mathcal{O} | \psi \rangle$

Green's Functions: ARPES



$$egin{aligned} & I(\mathbf{k},\omega) \propto A(\mathbf{k},\omega) \ A(\mathbf{k},\omega) &= -rac{1}{\pi}\Im\hat{G}(\mathbf{k},\omega) \end{aligned}$$

Here $\hat{G}(\omega)$ is the Fourier transform of G(t), where \mathcal{O} is $a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger}$. G also gives linear response theory (electrical or thermal conductivity) via Kubo relations, etc.

Source: Probing the Electronic Structure of Complex Systems by ARPES, Damascelli 2004

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Usual Green's function has \mathcal{O} as creation operator,

$$G(t) = \langle \psi | \exp(iHt) a \exp(-iHt) a^{\dagger} | \psi \rangle$$

- Our discussion will apply to, generally, any correlation functions
- We restrict to unitary \mathcal{O}
 - Can recover \mathcal{O} : take unitary $\mathcal{O}_{\pm} = a^{\dagger} \pm a$
 - Obtain associated correlation functions G_{\pm}
 - Standard G is $\frac{G_++G_-}{2}$
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- I'll probably keep calling them all "Green's functions" ☺

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Compared with just getting a single $\langle {\cal O} \rangle$ or $\rho,$ this is harder, because we're trying to do across all time

G(t) is just a single complex scalar, so the dimension is very low (two). We focus our attention will be on dealing with time-dependence

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What We Sample

$${\cal G}(t) = \langle \psi | \exp(iHt) {\cal O}^{\dagger} \exp(-iHt) {\cal O} | \psi
angle$$

• At each
$$t$$
, $|G(t)| \leq 1$

- One n = 2 quantum phase estimation gives a random bit, $p = \frac{1 + \Re[G(t)]}{2}$
- Slight modification, can also get $p = \frac{1 + \Im[G(t)]}{2}$

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- Slight modification, can also get $p = \frac{1+\Im[G(t)]}{2}$
- After N runs, can measure G(t) to $1/\sqrt{N}$ accuracy
- ... but we want to know G(t) across all (or at least a full interval) of time!
- Simplest approach: linear interpolation

Linear interpolation

S = 1 XXX Heisenberg model, ground state excitation

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^{L} \vec{S}_i \cdot \vec{S}_{i+1}, \qquad L = 6$$



Cubic interpolation

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Integrate over all possible functions, weight by their likelihood (prior and observations), and take pointwise mean

 \implies Totally intractable

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Gaussian Process (GP)

- Approximate your prior knowledge by an infinite-dimensional Gaussian distribution
 - Gaussian in the vector space of functions, not that the functions themselves look Gaussian
- Each finite set of points {*G*(*t*₀), *G*(*t*₁), *G*(*t*₂),...} is a multivariate Gaussian distribution



Source: Scikit-learn Gaussian Process

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Reconstructing Quantum States

Gaussian Process (GP)

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 - Gaussian in the vector space of functions, not that the functions themselves look Gaussian
- Each finite set of points {*G*(*t*₀), *G*(*t*₁), *G*(*t*₂),...} is a multivariate Gaussian distribution
- Can be efficiently evaluated exactly, $\sim {\it O}(N^3)$ time
- All marginals are Gaussian, prediction is the mean
- Prior is specified by "kernel", $K(x) = \langle G(t)G(t+x) \rangle$
- Appropriate kernels ensure smoothness

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Gaussian Process with Link Function

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- Extended this to 2D, G(t) in complex unit disk, (f_{\Re}, f_{\Im})

Cubic interpolation



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GP interpolation



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- Moderately better scaling not just constant factor reduction

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- Could be improved with careful linear algebra routines, matrix sparsity, etc.
- Good kernel function, link function is somewhat system dependent

Fact:

$$egin{aligned} G(t) &= \sum_k a_k \exp(i\omega_k t) \ a_k &\geq 0, \quad \sum a_k = 1 \end{aligned}$$

If $|\psi
angle$ is ground state, $\omega_k\geq 0$ as well.



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angle$ is ground state, $\omega_k \geq$ 0 as well.

 \implies Big statement about Fourier transform! All phases are zero, and \mathcal{L}^1 distribution

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Find:

$$egin{aligned} G(t) &= \sum_k a_k \exp(i\omega_k t) \ a_k &\geq 0, \quad \sum a_k = 1 \end{aligned}$$

that best fits the observed data.



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that best fits the observed data.

Difficult, highly nonlinear in ω_k . \otimes

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that best fits the observed data. Fix some dense set of ω_k , say, $\{-10, -9.9, -9.8 \cdots + 9.9, +10\}$.

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Model is linear in a_k , linear constraint on a_k , convex likelihood function \odot

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Maximum likelihood estimator, 30 samples:



Maximum likelihood estimator, 300 samples:



Maximum likelihood estimator, 3000 samples:



Bayesian Statistics: GP vs Fourier



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Bayesian Statistics: GP vs Fourier



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- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE): L² vs Bayes
- Going beyond MLE
- Adaptive sampling

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE): L² vs Bayes

Bayes: find the true maximum likelihood estimator. Converges fast

- Going beyond MLE
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- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE): L² vs Bayes
 - Bayes: find the true maximum likelihood estimator. Converges fast
 - *L*² approximation: linearize the problem, fast to find the optimum
 - Didn't observe any significant improvement between them
- Going beyond MLE
- Adaptive sampling

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- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE): L² vs Bayes
- Going beyond MLE
 - Finding the mean estimator: averaging *a_k*'s weighted by likelihood

Adaptive sampling

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- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE): L² vs Bayes
- Going beyond MLE
 - Finding the mean estimator: averaging *a_k*'s weighted by likelihood
 - Polynomial time in theory integrating over convex likelihood function
 - In practice, slow-ish but workable, but not much benefit

Adaptive sampling

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Details

- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE): L² vs Bayes
- Going beyond MLE
- Adaptive sampling
 - Choose points to sample based on what gives the most "information"
 - e.g. if $G(t) \approx 0.99$, further samples of $\Re[G(t)]$ are not useful
 - ... but $\Im[G(t)]$ is less certain, that could be useful to sample
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 - ... but $\Im[G(t)]$ is less certain, that could be useful to sample
 - Nonlinear interaction of Fourier terms means that uncertainty varies considerably
 - Hard to quantify "information" well
 - There is a good answer, but it requires integrating over likelihood function again
 - Impractical for now, requires fast integrals of Gaussians over simplex

Performance Comparison



At an accuracy of $\approx 1\%$ in G(t), roughly 100x sample efficiency

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Performance Comparison



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• Interpolation: $N \approx \epsilon^{-2.9}$



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Thank you!



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Defn:

$$\operatorname{Perm}(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \prod_{i=1}^n A_{i,\sigma(i)}$$
(1)

...similar to determinant of A, but without the $(-1)^{\sigma}$.



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- Can be computed in *O*(2^{*n*}) [Ryser, 63]
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 - Can be written as an an integral of a nonnegative function, so $\operatorname{Perm}(A) \geq 0$

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 - Easy to estimate if $\lambda_{max}/\lambda_{min} \leq 2$ [Barvinok, 20]

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 This quantum connection inspired other algorithms, that also work better when spectral radius is small [CCG, 17]

Question remains: are these PSD permanents hard to approximate?

Measurements γ_i form an $n \times d$ matrix Γ . Partition function Z is a function only of Γ .

$$Z = \int_{\mathbb{C}_1^d} \prod_i P(\gamma_i | \psi) \, d\psi = \int_{\mathbb{C}_1^d} \prod_i (\psi^{\dagger} \gamma_i) (\gamma_i^{\dagger} \psi) \, d\psi$$



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Invariant under permutations of *n* rows. Order of observations doesn't matter, each was from a fresh $|\psi\rangle$.

Invariant under a unitary transformation acting on the *d*-dimensional space. Just a change of basis.

Linear in each γ_i and its adjoint γ_i^{\dagger} . Enough to establish:

 $Z = C \operatorname{Perm}(\Gamma^{\dagger}\Gamma)$

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This matrix $\Gamma^{\dagger}\Gamma$ is $n \times n$ PSD. Constant *C* is easily computed as

$$C=\frac{2\pi^n}{(d+n-1)!}$$

Hardness of quantum state estimation \rightarrow hardness of PSD permanents.

Z as an integral over unit sphere is very similar to other formulations (Barvinok) of PSD permanents as a spherical integral

Consequences, Future Work

- No APX for PSD permanents (unless P = NP)
- Haven't ruled out $(1 + \epsilon)^n$ approximation algorithms
- These PSD matrices are always rank d ≪ n. Likely to be more improvements in terms of spectral radius, λ_{min} > 0
- Only showed NP-hardness (0 solutions or ≥ 1?). Can likely improve to approximately counting solutions
- Doesn't mean quantum state tomography is *typically* hard: these types of measurements are unlikely
- Would be nice to show that some efficient algorithms for state reconstructions converge with high probability as more measurements are taken (from any basis)

Consequences, Future Work

- O(n^d) algorithm means that this is in the XP complexity class, *slicewise polynomial*
- Could hope that the *d* part becomes some constant factor of difficulty, e.g. O(2^d n²)
- Would be called *fixed-parameter tractable*, or FPT

Consequences, Future Work

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- Could hope that the *d* part becomes some constant factor of difficulty, e.g. O(2^d n²)
- Would be called *fixed-parameter tractable*, or FPT
- More involved construction lets relate this to MAX-CLIQUE in graph, which is W[1]-hard
- Low-rank PSD permanent is W[1]-hard as well
- \blacksquare Parameterized complexity theory: if P \neq NP, then W[1] \neq FPT
- Proves that we can't do better than $O(n^{f(d)})$

• Thermal Boson sampling is *sort of roughly* as hard as coherent Boson sampling, with maybe an $n \rightarrow n^3$ type of slowdown

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- Thermal Boson sampling is *sort of roughly* as hard as coherent Boson sampling, with maybe an $n \rightarrow n^3$ type of slowdown... in the sense of how many modes you need to encode a SAT-type problem
- Can't make this statement rigorous, because no one has actually shown either one to be hard (in a sampling sense).

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Relation to Boson sampling

Linear optical circuit mixes modes with some unitary, e.g.

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1,1} & u_{1,2} & u_{1,3} \\ u_{2,1} & u_{2,2} & u_{3,3} \\ u_{3,1} & u_{3,2} & u_{3,3} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Rows = Input modes, columns = Output modes

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Reconstructing Quantum States

Jun 5 2023

Linear optical circuit mixes modes with some unitary, e.g.

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1,1} & u_{1,2} & u_{1,3} \\ u_{2,1} & u_{2,2} & u_{2,3} \\ u_{3,1} & u_{3,2} & u_{3,3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Rows = Input modes, columns = Output modes

If I put two Bosons at mode 2-in and one at mode 3-in, what's the probability of observing one excitation at mode 1-out and two at mode 3-out?

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Permanent approximation is #P-Hard, which is expected to be much more than what quantum computers can achieve.

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