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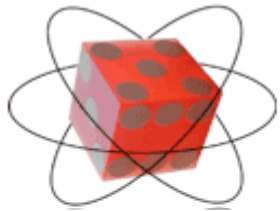
**Workshop on
Noise and Instabilities in Quantum Mechanics**

3 - 7 October 2005

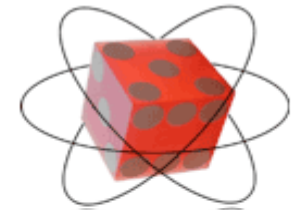
Random circuits for efficient noise estimation

**Joseph EMERSON
Perimeter Institute for Theoretical Physics
31 Caroline Str. N.
Waterloo ON N2L 2Y5
CANADA**

These are preliminary lecture notes, intended only for distribution to participants



Random Circuits for Efficient Noise Estimation



Joseph Emerson

**Department of Applied Math
and Institute for Quantum Computing
University of Waterloo**

Noise and Instabilities in Quantum Mechanics

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Noise Determination for Quantum Information Processing

Knowledge of the **strength** and **type of noise** (e.g., unitary control errors, decoherence from the environment, etc) affecting a prototype quantum processor is crucial for:

- **Engineering of the device design**
 - To determine the physical mechanisms responsible for the noise
 - To benchmark various implementation schemes
 - Etc.
- **Optimizing algorithmic error-correction methods**
 - To determine the “block-size” of correlations
 - To identify the presence of decoherence free subspaces
 - Etc.

The Difficulty of Noise Determination

Full characterization of the noise can be achieved via Quantum Process Tomography (QPT) – this procedure is not *scalable*:

- QPT requires $O(2^{4n})$ experiments (n = number of qubits).
- Analysis of the tomographic data is complex and inefficient, requiring manipulation of matrices of dimension $2^{2n} \times 2^{2n}$

Recent implementation of QPT for 3 qubits using NMR:

Y. Weinstein, J. Emerson, N. Boulant, M. Saraceno, D. Cory,
Quantum Process Tomography of the Quantum Fourier Transform
J. of Chem. Phys. 121, 6117 (2004).

Question: Can we measure a *benchmark* fidelity of the implementation without requiring an **exponentially large** number of experiments?

Answer: Yes, using *random unitary operators*!

Random Unitary Operators

Some basic concepts

- The “natural” measure that defines random unitary operators is the (unique) invariant group measure (ie., *the Haar measure*) for $U(D)$:

$$\mu_H(dU) = \mu_H(W dU V)$$

where W and V are arbitrary unitary operators.

- An operator drawn from this measure is an element of the Circular Unitary Ensemble (CUE) - it is “*Haar-random*”.
- Given some function f on $U(D)$, we can define the Haar-average as,

$$\langle f(U) \rangle = \int_{U(D)} \mu_H(dU) f(U)$$

- Note that the Haar-average is often *analytically tractable*.

Random Unitary Operators

Some basic concepts

- The Haar-average is useful because of the “concentration of measure” effect:

For a *wide class* of test functions, (e.g, eigenvalue fluctuations), most unitary operators give values that are *close to the Haar-average*, i.e.,

$$\langle f(U)^2 \rangle - \langle f(U) \rangle^2 = O(1/D^a), \quad \text{with } a > 0 \quad (D=2^n).$$

- A similar “concentration of measure” effect holds for the Haar-induced measure on the space of pure quantum states:

$$\langle f(\psi) \rangle = \int \mu(d\psi) f(\psi)$$

$$\langle f(\psi)^2 \rangle - \langle f(\psi) \rangle^2 = O(1/D^a), \quad \text{with } a > 0.$$

Fidelity Loss under Imperfect Motion Reversal

The **fidelity loss** (instability) under perturbation was proposed initially by Peres (1984) as a means of **characterizing the presence of quantum chaos for a dynamical system**.

The **intuitive idea** was that the inner product between two states, one evolved under the system dynamical operator U , and one under the perturbed operator U_p , would decrease more rapidly with the number of iterations t when the system U is classically chaotic.

$$F_{\psi}(t) = \left| \langle \psi | (U_p)^{-t} (U)^t | \psi \rangle \right|^2$$

$$U_p = U \exp(-iV_p)$$

It turns out this wasn't exactly right – *often regular systems can exhibit a faster rate of decay* - but it is still a very useful way to characterize stability!

Universal Fidelity Loss for a Random Unitary

A fundamental conjecture of quantum chaos is that a classically *chaotic quantum system* may be modeled by *a random unitary matrix*.

For a random unitary matrix, the fidelity loss is *tightly concentrated* about the Haar-average:

$$\left\langle F_{\psi}^2(t) \right\rangle - \left\langle F_{\psi}(t) \right\rangle^2 = O(D^{-1}) \equiv O(2^{-n})$$

Due to this *concentration of measure*, the fidelity loss under imperfect motion reversal is *universal* for any *typical* or *generic* unitary operator and a generic initial state:

$$F_{\psi}(t) = \left\langle F_{\psi}(t) \right\rangle + O(D^{-1/2})$$

FGR Fidelity Loss for a Chaotic System Modeled as Random Matrix

Under certain conditions, the fidelity loss for a classically chaotic unitary operator is given by the “Fermi Golden Rule” (P. Jacquod et al , PRE, 2001):

$$F_{\psi}(t) \cong \langle F_{\psi}(t) \rangle \cong \exp(-\Gamma t),$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{1}{D} \|V_p\|_2^2 = \frac{1}{D} \text{Tr}(V^2)$$

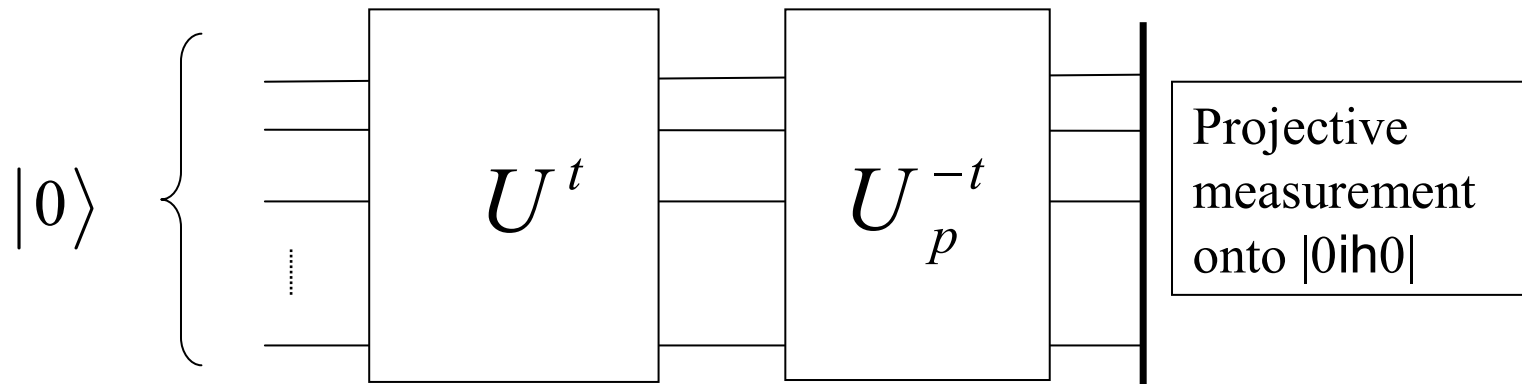
The decay rate **depends only** on the 2-norm of the perturbation operator V_p .

Note: *The random matrix assumption often fails!*

For example, *if* the perturbation operator has a semi-classical interpretation, *then* the FGR decay may not be observed, e.g., instead one sees a perturbation-independent Lyapunov decay (Jalabert and Pastawski, PRL, 2001).

Measurement of the Fidelity Loss under Imperfect Motion Reversal

The **fidelity loss** can be *estimated efficiently*, e.g., via the following circuit:



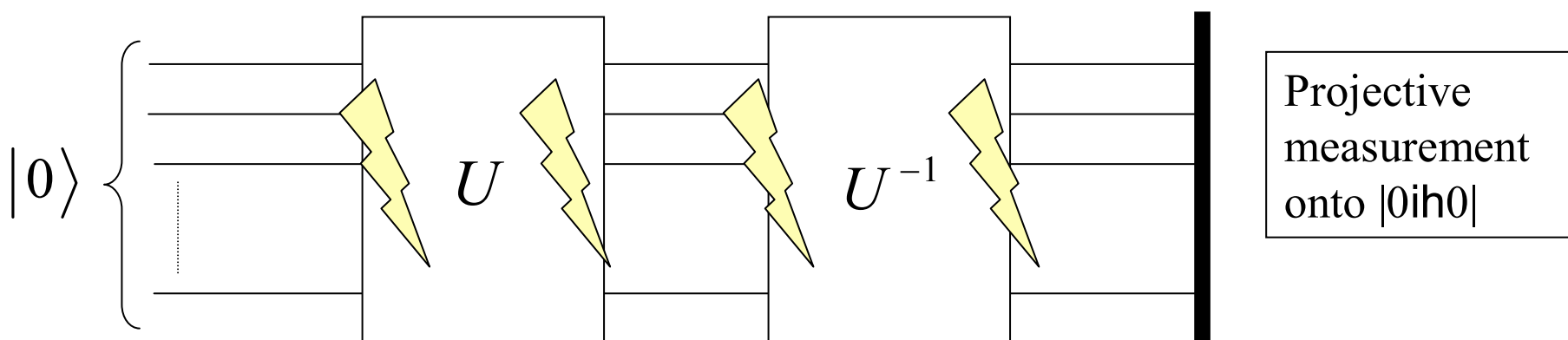
Note: This provides one efficient solution to the “read-out” problem, ie, measuring how some system under study responds to *a known perturbation*.

Note: *Even a regular system can exhibit FGR decay when the perturbation is “complex”* – so this is really a *test of “relative randomness”*.

J. Emerson, Y. Weinstein, S. Lloyd, D. Cory, **Phys. Rev. Lett.** **89**, 284102 (2002).

How to Measure Unknown Device Noise via a “Perfect” Motion Reversal Circuit

Now suppose that the unitary is chosen at “random” and that the only perturbation is due to the **actual (unknown) noise mechanisms** of the *device*:



$$F(U, \Lambda) = \sum_k \langle 0 | U^\dagger A_k U | 0 \rangle \langle 0 | U^\dagger A_k^\dagger U | 0 \rangle$$

where $\Lambda(\rho) = \sum_k A_k \rho A_k^\dagger$ is a **CP map representing arbitrary (non-unitary) noise**.

Note that this CP map corresponds to the **cumulative noise** occurring **throughout** the implementation of the entire motion-reversal circuit.

Universal Fidelity Loss Under General Noise

Key Idea: Due to concentration of measure, the *observed fidelity decay* under this motion reversal experiment does *not depend* on the choice of random unitary (nor on the initial state), but *depends only on the physical noise mechanisms affecting the implementation*.

$$\langle F(U, \Lambda) \rangle = p + \frac{(1-p)}{D}$$

$$p = \frac{\sum_k |Tr(A_k)|^2 - 1}{D^2 - 1} \leq 1$$

$$F(U, \Lambda) = \langle F(U, \Lambda) \rangle + O(D^{-1/2})$$

- The fidelity loss under the experiment is uniquely characterized by a single invariant of the noise, the noise *strength parameter* p .

J. Emerson, R. Alicki, and K. Zyczkowski, *J. Opt. B: Quantum and Semiclassical Optics*, 7 (2005) S347-S352 (quant-ph/0503243).

Randomization in Quantum Information

➤ There is a **growing body of work** making use of **Haar-randomization** across quantum information theory:

- ✓ Random unitaries lead to **resource savings in remote state preparation** (Bennett et al., 2003)

- ✓ Random unitaries enable **superdense coding of quantum states** (Harrow et al., 2003)

- ✓ Random unitaries provide **approximate encryption and data-hiding of quantum states** (Hayden et al., 2003)

- ✓ Random unitaries can be used in quantum simulations on a quantum processor to study the **quantitative aspects of decoherence** under **engineered couplings** to a complex environment (Ryan et al., 2005).

➤ Also, since random (and pseudo-random) numbers play a fundamental role in classical information theory, **random (and pseudo-random) states and operators** should play an equally fundamental role in quantum information theory.

Generating Haar-Random Unitary Operators on a Quantum Information Processor

➤ The implementation of Haar-random unitary operators on a quantum processor is useful for randomization in quantum information theory.

Problem: any circuit generating *Haar*-random unitary operators requires **exponential** resources:

- $O(n^3 D^2)$ quantum gates (where $D = 2^n$)
- D^2 random classical input parameters.

From Haar-Random to “Pseudo-Random” Unitary Operators

Challenge: generate unitary operators that exhibit useful statistical features of uniformly random unitary operators but require only $\text{polylog}(D)$ resources. Call these “**pseudo-random**” unitary operators.

Question: Is it possible to efficiently generate pseudo-random operators that are *sufficiently randomizing* for practical applications?

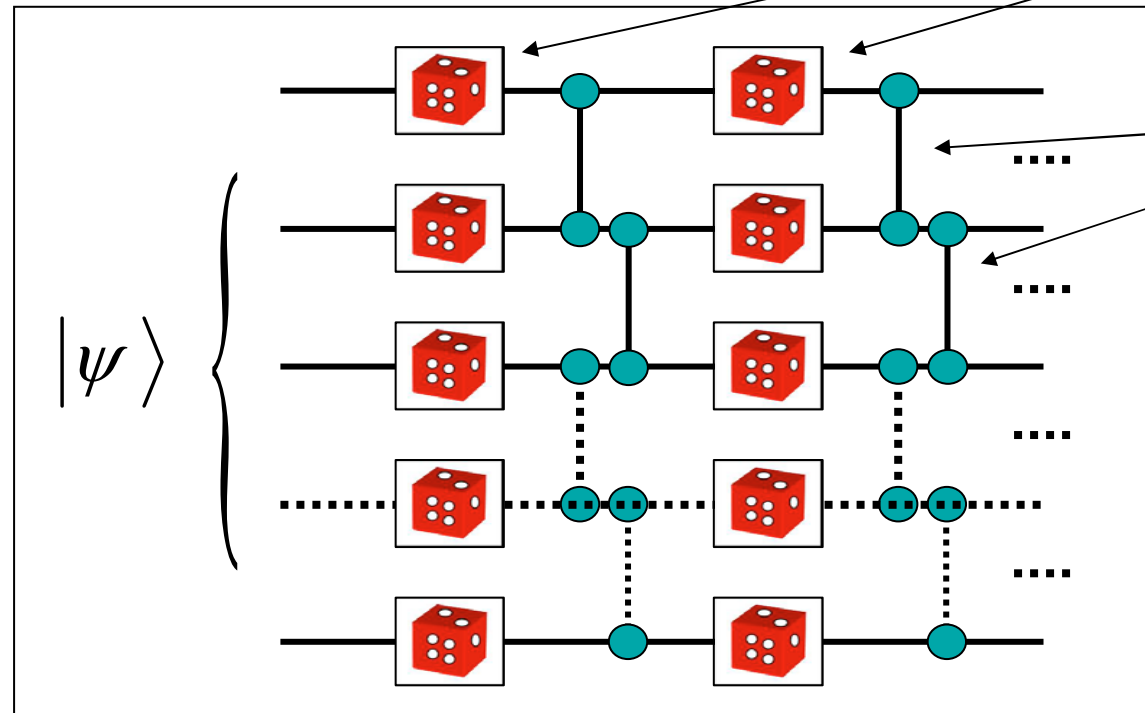
Remark: We can expect this to be possible in light of *efficient simulation algorithms for quantum chaos* [R. Schack (1998), Georgeot and Shepelyansky (2001), Benenti et al (2001)].

Approach: generate *maximally random circuits* by drawing gates randomly from a **universal gate set**.

How to Generate Pseudo-Random Unitary Operators using Random Circuits

Schematic of 2 *iterations* of a
random circuit:

Apply random
SU(2) rotations on
each qubit



Couple the qubits with
any “convenient” or
“natural” coupling.

A Practical Circuit for Generating Pseudo-Random Unitary Operators in NMR

Basic Gate: independent *random* SU(2) rotations on each qubit followed by scalar couplings between nearest-neighbor pairs:

$$U = \left(U(2)^{\otimes n_q} \right) \prod_{j=1}^{n_q-1} \exp(-i J \sigma_z^j \otimes \sigma_z^{j+1})$$

Note: This parameterized gate is universal for quantum computation.

Idea: Repeat this basic gate until the measure of random circuits can mimic (to within some ϵ , any desired statistical feature of the Haar measure.

J. Emerson, Y. Weinstein, M. Saraceno, S. Lloyd, D. Cory, *Science*, vol. 302, 2098 (2003).

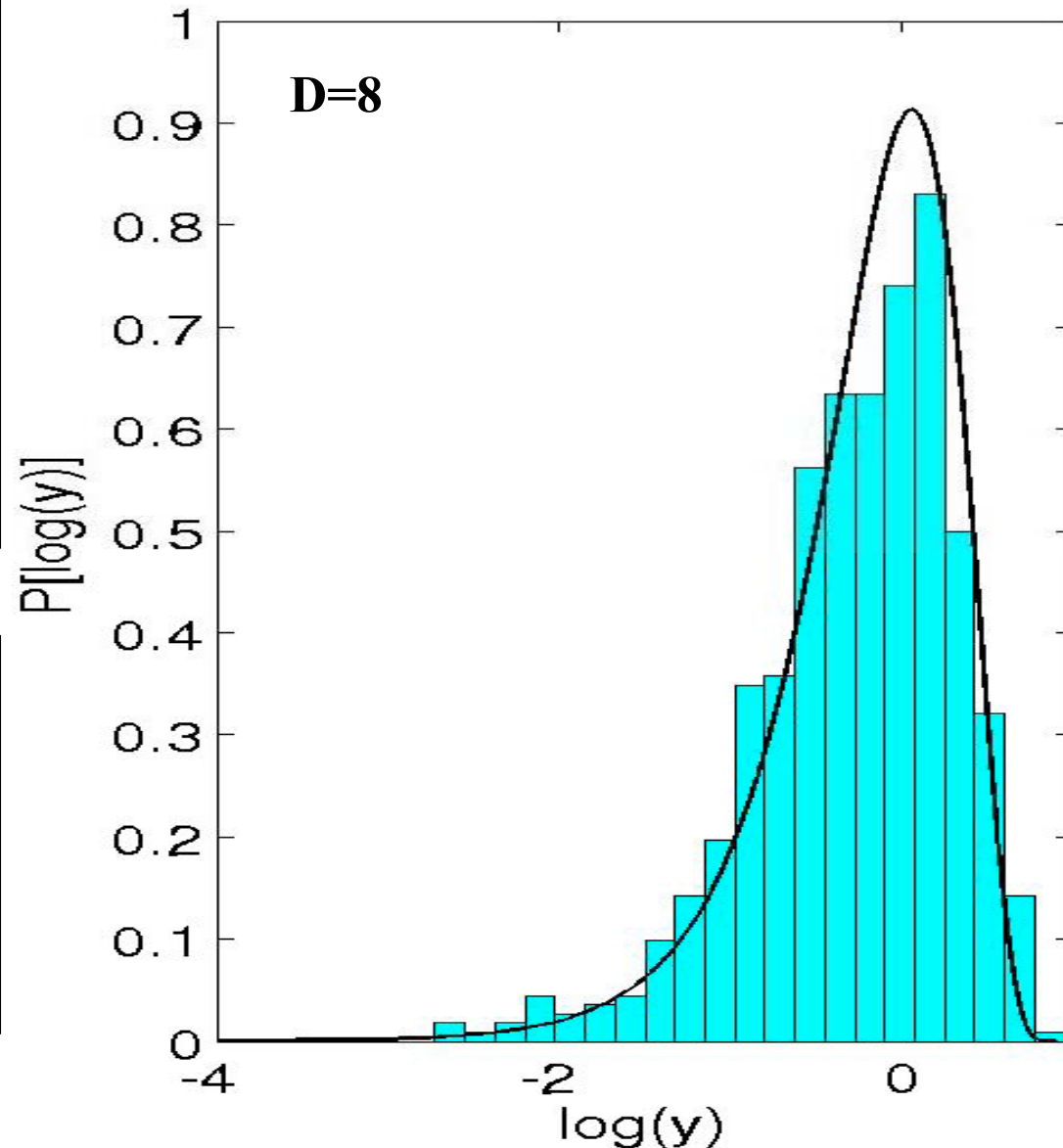
NMR Data for m=7 Iterations on 3 qubits

Histogram of the squared modulus of the matrix elements of the random circuit:

$$y = D |U_{ij}|^2.$$

Solid line: $P(y)$ from Haar-average.

The number of gates required for generating pseudo-random unitary operators is accessible with current levels of control in NMR.



Random Circuits Converge Exponentially to the Invariant (Haar) Measure

Given an initial probability measure p on $U(D)$, the measure for the circuit composed of a product of m elements drawn from p is given by the convolution:

$$p^{*m} = p * p \cdots * p$$

If the probability measure p that has **support** over a subset generating $U(D)$, i.e, p contains a **universal gate set**, then p^{*m} converges **exponentially** to the Haar measure.

Conjecture: **efficient random circuits** provide an adequate means of generating **pseudo-random distributions of unitary operators**.

Efficient means that m , the number of iterations of the random circuit, does not increase exponentially with n , the number of qubits.

Notes on the Proof of Convergence

- The Peter-Weyl theorem provides a discrete Fourier representation for functions on compact groups in terms of the irreps of the group.
- The Fourier transform of p^{*m} is given by the m 'th power of the Fourier transform coefficient matrices (for each “irrep” s) of p ,

$$p^{*m} \Leftrightarrow [\tilde{p}^{(s)}]^m$$

- It is possible to show that all eigenvalues of the Fourier coefficients are strictly less than 1.
- The *largest spectral gap* in the eigenvalues of the Fourier coefficients *determines the rate of exponential convergence*.

J. Emerson, E. Livine, S. Lloyd, quant-ph/0503210.

Convergence to the Uniform Measure

For p continuous and $p \geq 2$ $L^2(\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{D}))$, only a finite set of coefficients are needed in the Fourier representation to demonstrate *uniform convergence*.

Warning: Exponential convergence (with respect to m) does not imply that random circuits are *efficient* because the exponent can depend on the dimension $D = 2^n$.

For example, *for uniform convergence* we know from simple counting arguments that the exponent must decrease at least as fast as $O(1/D^2)$ (since most unitary operators require an exponential number of gates).

This means that m , the number of iterations of the random circuit, must grow exponentially with the number of qubits n ...

Of course, this isn't a worry since uniform convergence is unnecessarily strong!

Convergence Conditions for Practical Applications

For *practical applications* we only require convergence with respect to some class of *test functions* (ie, convergence with respect to the weak topology).

$$\int_{\mathcal{G}} d\mu(g) p^{*m}(g) f(g) \rightarrow \int_{\mathcal{G}} d\mu(g) f(g)$$

For *polynomial test functions* f , the degree of the polynomial implies a *cut-off in the Fourier representation* of p (the measure over random gates).

Hence the lower the degree of the polynomial, the smaller the number of Fourier coefficients that contribute to the rate of convergence.

For example, the *fidelity under motion reversal* is just a *4th degree polynomial in the matrix elements of U* ,

$$F(U, \Lambda) = \sum_k \langle 0 | U^\dagger A_k U | 0 \rangle \langle 0 | U^\dagger A_k^\dagger U | 0 \rangle$$

$$\langle F(U, \Lambda) \rangle = \langle U_{ij} U_{kl} U_{mn}^* U_{pq}^* \rangle$$

Numerical Test of Weak Convergence: Average Subsystem Purity

As a *benchmark* consider the *average subsystem purity* of the pure states generated by a *set of random circuits* acting on the $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$ state.

The *subsystem purity of these states is also a 4th degree polynomial* in the matrix elements of the unitary operators generating them, so it will have the *same convergence rate as the “fidelity under motion reversal”*.

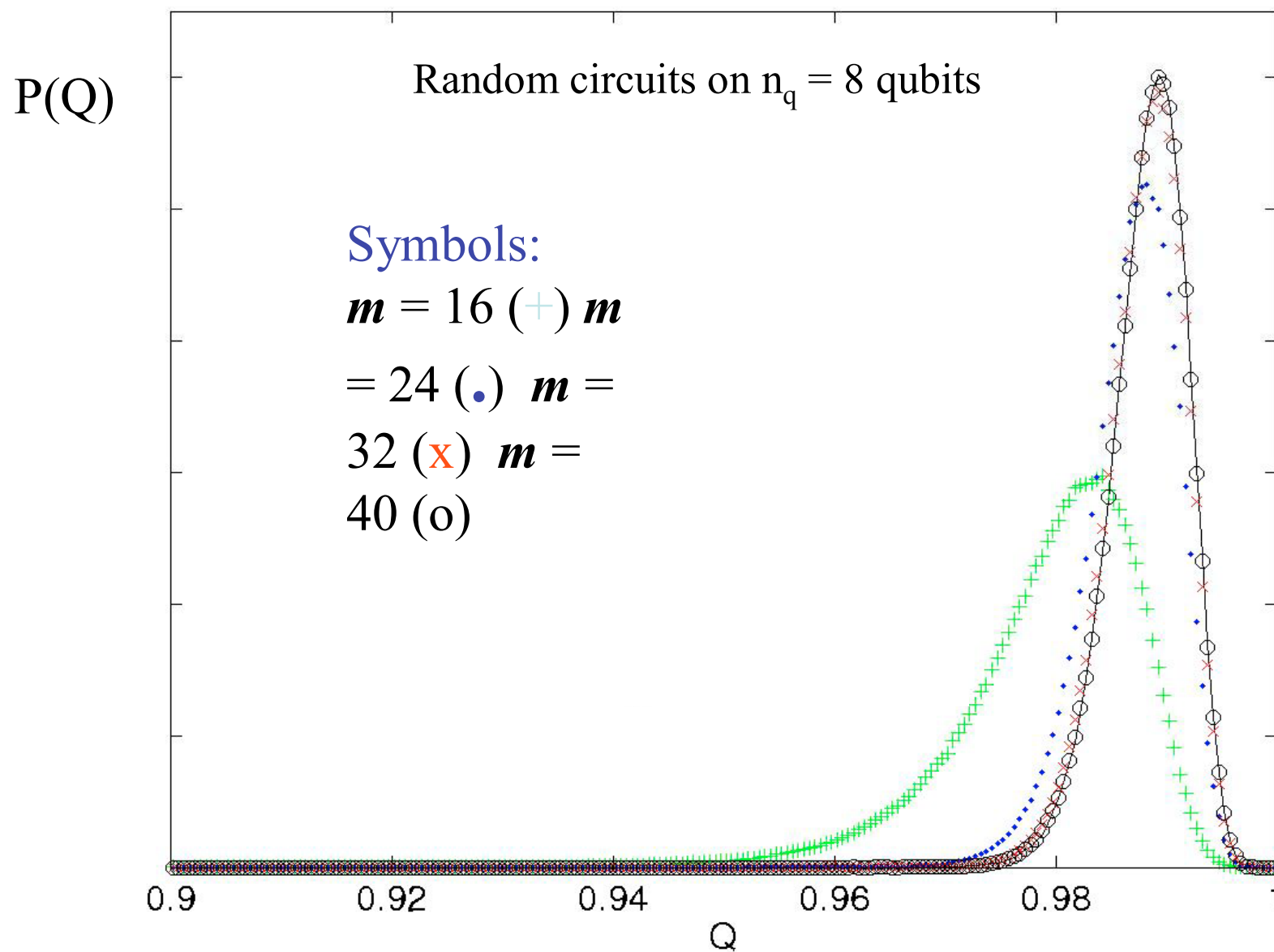
A practical indicator is the *average qubit purity*:

$$Q = 2 - \frac{2}{n_q} \sum_{i=1}^{n_q} \text{Tr}[\rho_i^2]$$

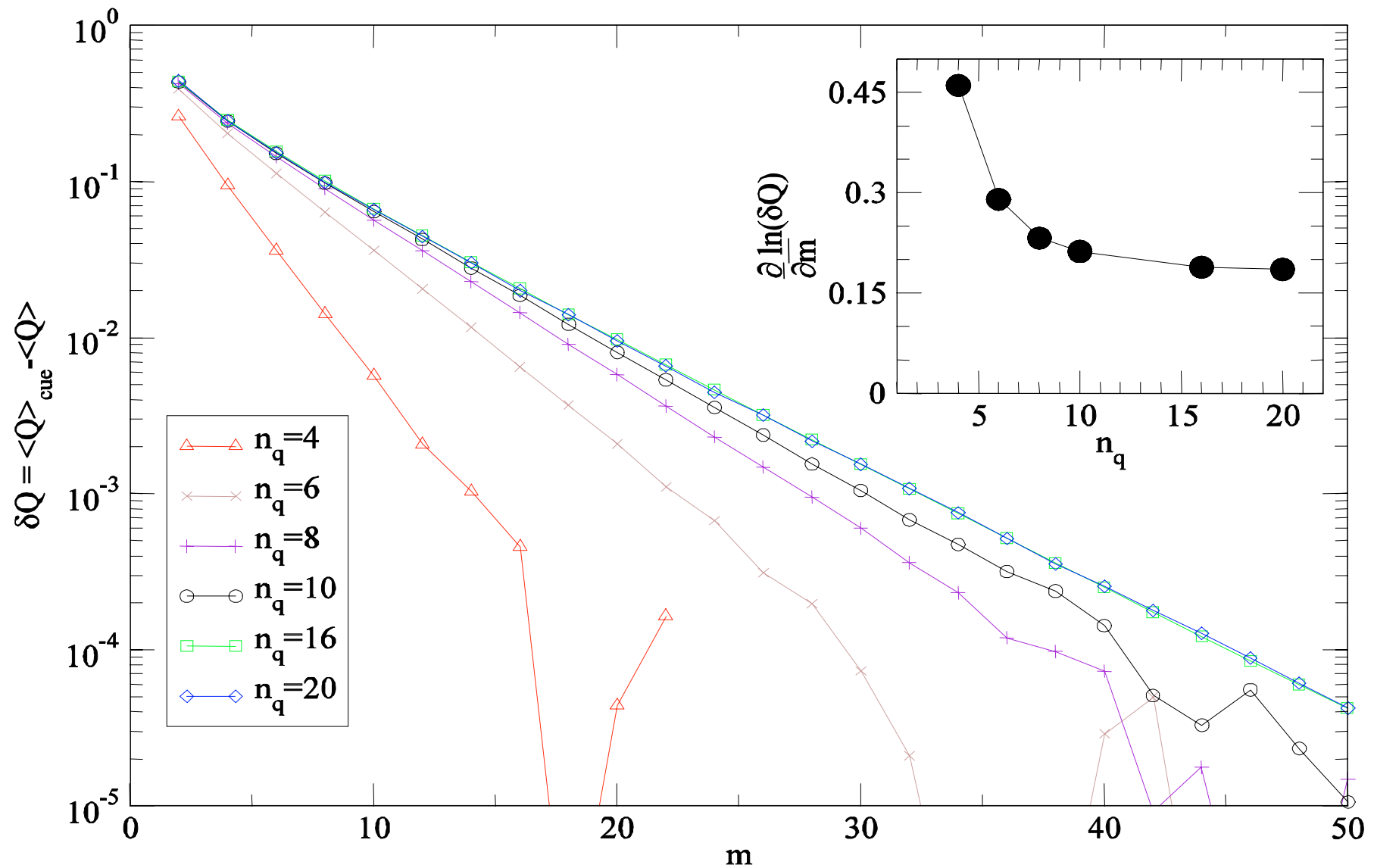
n_q = number of qubits

ρ_i = reduced density matrix for qubit i

Distribution of Average Subsystem Purity Generated by Random Circuits

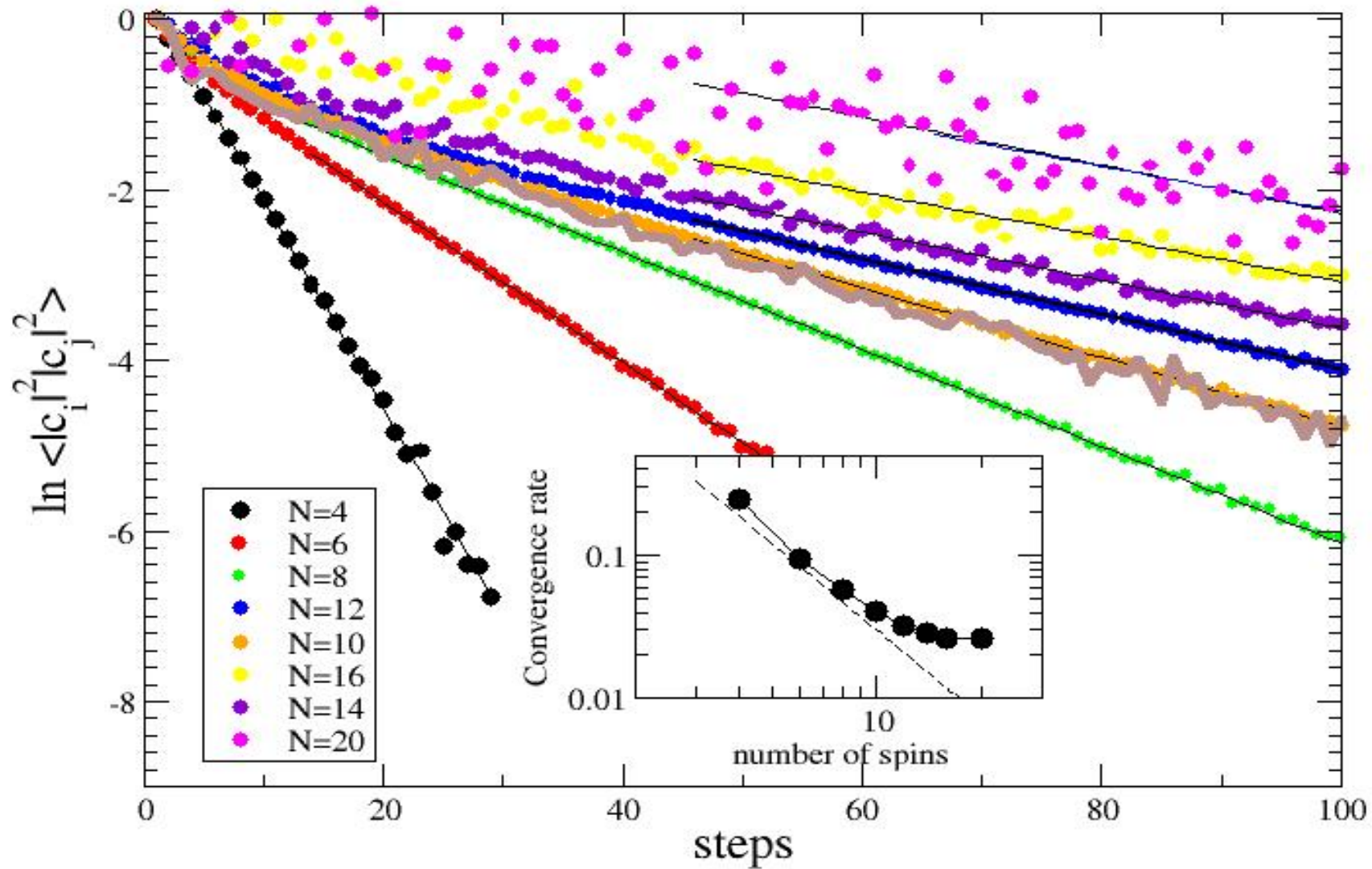


Saturation of exponential rate implies *efficiency*!



F. Cucchietti and J. Emerson, in preparation

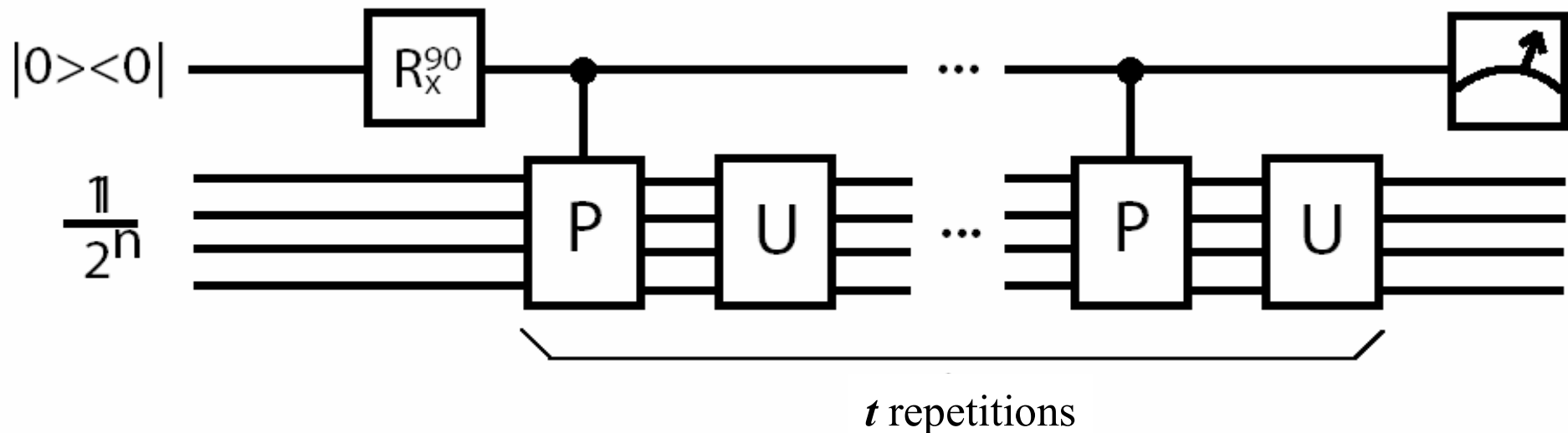
Saturation of exponential rate suggests efficiency



F. Cucchietti and J. Emerson, in preparation

Connection between fidelity decay and decoherence:

DQC1 circuit:



With DQC1 we get the exact ensemble average for free:

$$\rho_{12}(t) = \rho_{12}(0) \langle F_{\psi}(t) \rangle \cong \rho_{12}(0) \exp(-\Gamma t)$$

D. Poulin, R. Blume-Kahout, H. Ollivier, R. Laflamme, PRL (2003).

NMR Measurement of Decoherence Rates under for Arbitrary (Complex) Environment Dynamics

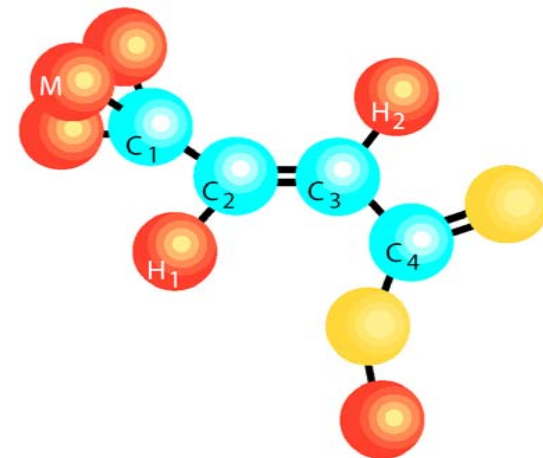
Implementation of DQC1 circuit with liquid state NMR:

4 Carbon spins: 4 qubits prepared in identity state

Hydrogens: decoupled (each prepared in σ_z state)

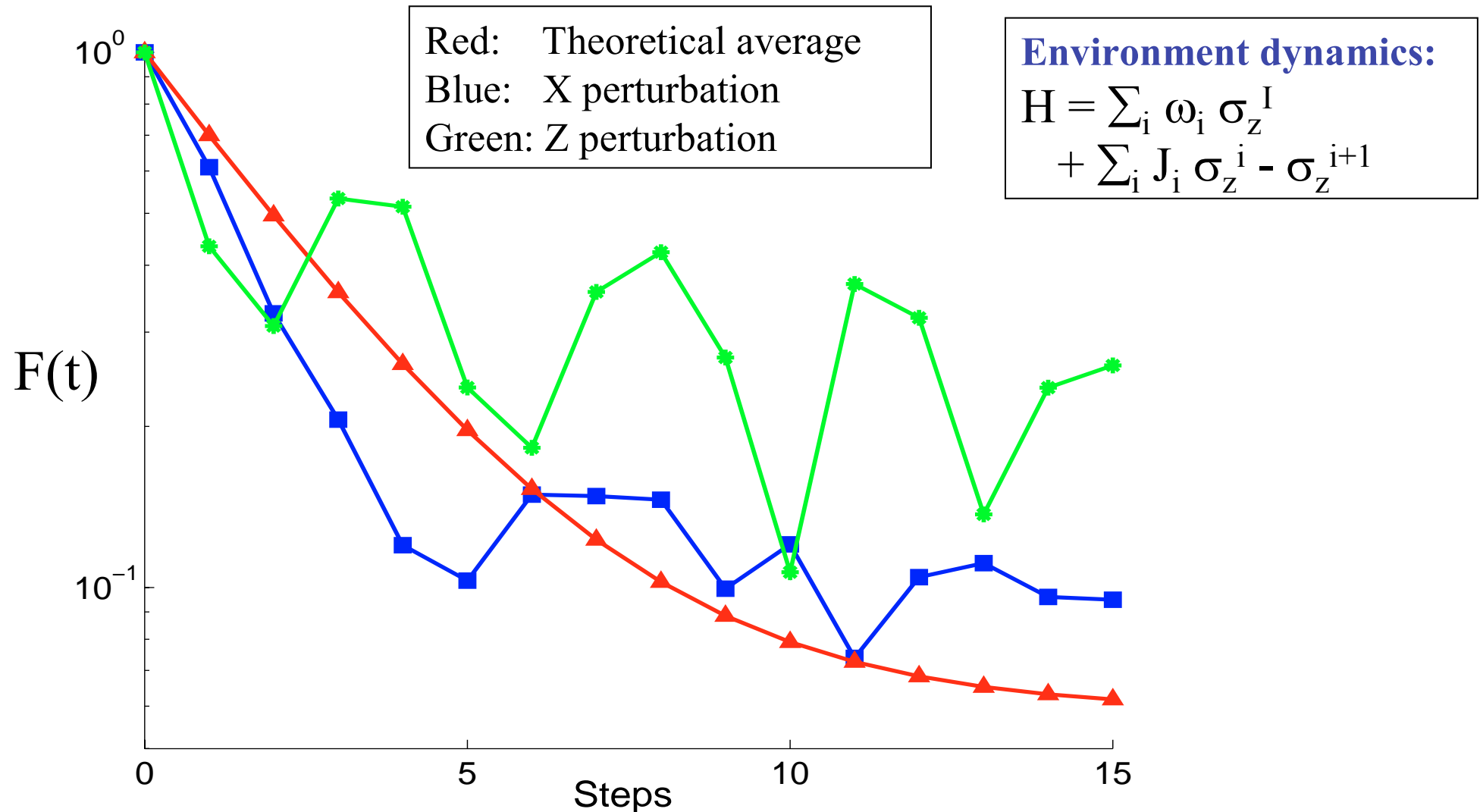
Methyl Group: pseudo-pure spin-1/2.

Crotonic Acid

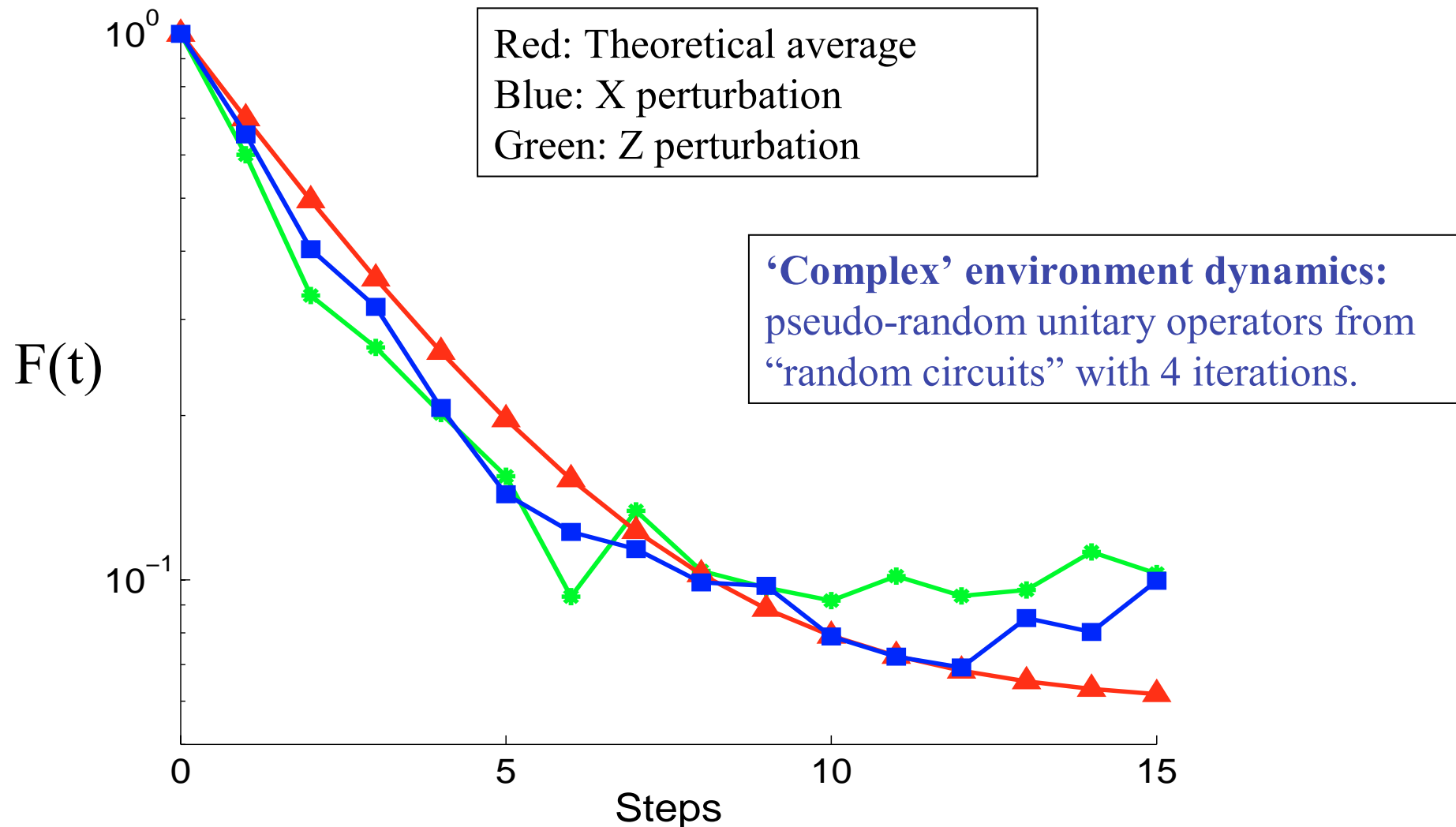


C. Ryan, J. Emerson, C. Negreverne,
D. Poulin, R. Laflamme, in preparation.

Non-Universal Fidelity Loss (Decoherence) for 'Regular' System (Environment) Dynamics



Universal Fidelity Loss (Decoherence) for “Complex” System (Environment) Dynamics



Some Important Open Problems

1. **Pseudo-Random Operators via Random Circuits:** analytically determine the *actual convergence rates* for the weaker randomization conditions defined by *noise-estimation* and *other randomization applications*.
2. **Generalized Noise Estimation Methods:** develop *generalized protocols* for measuring additional parameters of the noise, e.g., **correlation length-scales and time-scales of the noise**.

Thank you for your attention!