

“Quantum Supremacy” and the Complexity of Random Circuit Sampling

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Quantum mechanics challenges the *foundations* of computation

- *Extended Church-Turing thesis*: everything feasibly computable in the physical world is efficiently computable by a classical Turing machine
- Early 1990's – first evidence that ideal quantum computers violate thesis
 - Initial results didn't solve “natural” problems
 - Bernstein-Vazirani [BV'93]
 - Simon's algorithm [Simon'94]
 - Closely followed by Shor's algorithm [Shor'94], solving the factoring problem
- In all cases, these speedups come from carefully engineered algorithms that exploit “particular interference patterns”
 - *“Proving a quantum system's computational power by having it factor integers is a bit like proving a dolphin's intelligence by teaching it to solve arithmetic problems”* [Aaronson & Arkhipov '11]

“Quantum Supremacy”: A demonstration of a quantum computation that is prohibitively hard for classical computers

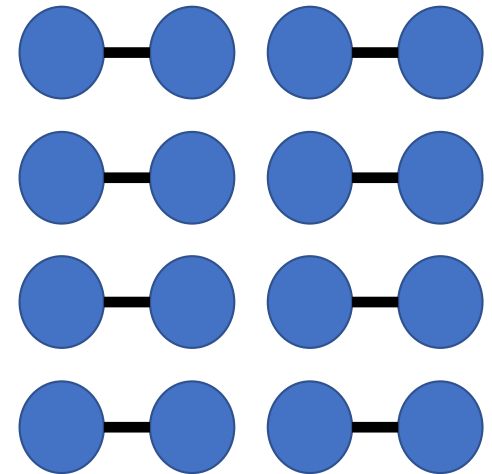
- In the last decade, two concurrent developments:
 1. Theoretical advances in our understanding of restrictive, special-purpose quantum devices like BosonSampling [Aaronson & Arkhipov '11]
 2. Experimental advances have led to the “Noisy Intermediate Scale Quantum” era
 - Several experimental groups will soon implement noisy 50-70 qubit systems without error-correction [e.g., Google/UCSB, IBM, U. Maryland]
 - Will not be able demonstrate idealistic speedups from the 90’s
 - At the same time, these systems are too large to be simulated by brute-force classically
- **Major goal:** Combine 1 and 2 to prove that a NISQ era experiment cannot be simulated by *any* classical means – disprove the ECT thesis and validate quantum mechanics in a realm of “high complexity”

BosonSampling

- *Supremacy proposal*: sample from the output distribution of a linear optics experiment
 - Sampling problems are natural since “raw output” of a quantum computer is a sample from an outcome distribution generated by quantum measurement
 - “*If we just watched the dolphin in its natural habitat...it displays equal intelligence with no special training at all*” [Aaronson & Arkhipov ‘11]
- *Theoretically compelling*
 - Linear optical output probabilities are proportional to the “permanent” of random matrices
 - Permanents have “average-case hardness”
 - Allows us to base hardness on a *typical* rather than worst-case experiment
- Yet to see sufficiently large experiments to test ECT
 - Recent classical simulation algorithms indicate need ~ 50 photons, 50^2 modes [e.g., Clifford & Clifford ‘17, Neville et. al.’17]
 - Recent experiments ~ 6 photons and 13 modes

Random Circuit Sampling [e.g., Boixo et. al., '16]

- *Supremacy proposal*: sample from the output distribution of a random quantum circuit
 - Generate a quantum circuit C on n qubits on a 2D lattice, with $d=O(n)$ layers of Haar random nearest-neighbor gates
 - Start with $|0^n\rangle$ basis state and measure in computational basis
- *Experimentally compelling*
 - ~ 49 qubits in the next few months with controllable couplings [Google/UCSB]
- Google/UCSB conjecture this sampling task is classically hard
 - *Challenge*: RCS is different from prior proposals
 - Unlike the carefully engineered speedups of the '90s, will have to argue hardness of typical quantum systems with "generic" interference patterns
 - Unlike BosonSampling, no known average-case hardness for RCS
 - Without average-case hardness, there's no evidence that generic interference patterns cannot be reproduced classically
- **Main result**: Provide a theoretical foundation backing RCS
 - Prove average-case hardness for RCS: computing output probabilities for most random circuits is as hard as computing them in the worst-case
 - Proof crucially uses error-correcting codes to infer worst-case probabilities from typical output probabilities



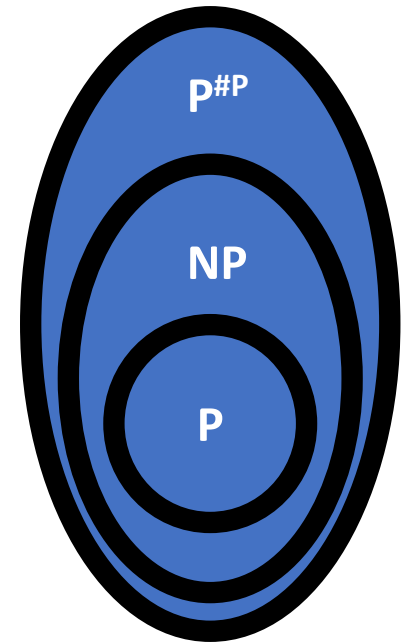
Overview

- Our focus is on two perspectives
 1. Establishing hardness using complexity theory
 2. Verification of supremacy via statistical tests

1. Establishing hardness using complexity theory

Complexity theory basics

- **P**: Class of problems feasible for classical computer
- **NP**: Characterized by **SAT** problem: given boolean formula is it satisfiable?
- **#P**: Generalization of **NP** to *counting* the number of satisfying assignments to boolean formula



The classical hardness of quantum sampling

- **Premise:** given quantum circuit as input, exactly computing any particular outcome probability is **#P**-hard
 - But these probabilities are exponentially small and cannot be directly estimated
- However, this fact can be leveraged to prove that such quantum outcome distributions cannot be classically sampled *exactly* [e.g., Terhal & DiVincenzo'04, Bremner, Jozsa & Shepherd'10...]
- **Key challenge:** extend hardness of *exact* sampling results to hold in the presence of experimental noise, modelled by closeness in total variation distance
 - Suffices to prove that it is **#P**-hard to *additively estimate most* quantum outcome probabilities

BosonSampling hardness

BosonSampling Conjecture: Efficiently *approximating* $1-\delta$ fraction of the outcome probabilities of *typical* linear optical networks to within additive error $\pm\epsilon/M$ in is **#P**-hard


- Evidence

- Average-case exact hardness* (i.e., $\epsilon=0$ case)
 - Anti-concentration conjecture* (unproven for BosonSampling)
 - In a *typical* network, most outcome probabilities are *reasonably large*
 - “Sanity check”
 - “Signal is larger than the noise”: $\pm\epsilon/M$ additive estimate can be used to recover $(1 \pm \epsilon')$ multiplicative estimates
 - Computing such multiplicative estimates on *all* outcomes (i.e., $\delta=0$ case) is **#P**-hard
- But general case, where both $\epsilon, \delta > 0$ is open, and defies all proof techniques

Proposal	Average-case exact ($\epsilon=0$)	Worst-case mult. Approximate ($\delta=0$)	Anti-concentration	General ($\epsilon, \delta > 0$)
BosonSampling	#P -hard	#P -hard	?	?

Random Circuit Sampling hardness

RCS Conjecture: Given as input random n qubit quantum circuit C , outputting an efficient additive estimate $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with probability $1 - \delta$ (over choice of C) is $\#P$ -hard

Proposal	Average-case exact ($\epsilon=0$)	Worst-case Mult. Approximate ($\delta=0$)	Anti-concentration	General ($\epsilon, \delta > 0$)
BosonSampling	$\#P$ -hard	$\#P$ -hard	?	?
RCS wrt 2D grid, depth $O(n)$?  (Today!)	$\#P$ -hard	Yes (e.g., [BH '13])	?

- But what good is anti-concentration without average-case hardness?
 - Anti-concentration tells us most output probabilities are somewhat large
 - For these large probabilities, an additive estimate suffices to prove a multiplicative estimate
 - So this only allows us to compute multiplicative estimates on *average*

Average-case hardness for permanent of matrices over finite fields [Lipton '91]

- **Permanent** of $n \times n$ matrix is (worst-case) **#P**-hard [Valiant '79]

$$\text{per}[X] = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \prod_{i=1}^n X_{i,\sigma(i)}$$

- *Algebraic property*: **permanent** is a degree n polynomial on n^2 variables

- Lipton shows “worst-to-average case reduction”

- Need compute **permanent** of worst-case matrix X
- But we only have access to algorithm O that correctly computes *most* permanents

- i.e., $\Pr_{Y \sim U_{\mathbb{F}_q}^{n \times n}} [O(Y) = \text{per}[Y]] \geq 1 - \frac{1}{3(n+1)}$

- Choose $n+1$ fixed non-zero points $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{n+1} \in \mathbb{F}_q$ and uniformly random matrix R

- Consider line $A(t) = X + tR$

- *Observation 1 “marginal property”*: for each i , $A(t_i)$ is a random matrix over $\mathbb{F}_q^{n \times n}$
- *Observation 2: “univariate polynomial”*: $\text{per}[A(t)]$ is a degree n polynomial in t

- But now these $n+1$ evaluation points uniquely define the polynomial, so use error-correction (noisy polynomial interpolation) and evaluate $\text{per}[A(0)] = \text{per}[X]$

Main result: Worst-to-average-case RCS reduction

- *Algebraic property*: much like **permanent**, fixed amplitudes of random quantum circuits have low-degree polynomial structure
 - Consider circuit $C=C_m C_{m-1} \dots C_1$
 - Structure comes from Feynman path integral:

$$\langle 0^n | C | 0^n \rangle = \sum_{y_2, y_3, \dots, y_m \in \{0,1\}^n} \langle 0^n | C_m | y_m \rangle \langle y_m | C_{m-1} | y_{m-1} \rangle \dots \langle y_2 | C_1 | 0^n \rangle$$

- This is a polynomial of degree m in the gate entries of the circuit
- So the output probability $|\langle 0^n | C | 0^n \rangle|^2$ is a polynomial of degree $2m$

Worst-to-Average Reduction-Attempt 1: Copy Lipton's proof

- Our case: want to compute $|\langle \mathbf{0}^n | \mathbf{C} | \mathbf{0}^n \rangle|^2$ for worst case C
 - But we only have the ability to compute output probabilities for *most* circuits
- *Recall*: Lipton wanted to compute **per**[X], choose random R, considered line $A(\mathbf{t}) = X + \mathbf{t}R$
- *Problem*: can't just perturb gates in a random linear direction (quantum circuits aren't linear... i.e., if A is unitary, B is unitary, $A + \mathbf{t}B$ is not necessary unitary)

New approach to *scramble* gates of fixed circuit

- Choose and fix $\{H_i\}_{i \in [m]}$ Haar random gates
- Now consider new circuit $C' = C'_m C'_{m-1} \dots C'_1$ so that for each gate $C'_i = C_i H_i$
 - Notice that each gate in C' is completely random – “marginal property”
- But recall, Lipton also made use of “*univariate* polynomial structure”
- *Main idea*: “Rotate back towards C by small angle θ ” (i.e., $C'_i = C_i H_i e^{-ih_i \theta}$)
 - If $\theta=1$ the corresponding circuit $C' = C$, and if $\theta \approx$ small, each gate is close to Haar random
 - Now take several non-zero but small θ and apply polynomial interpolation...

This is still not the “right way” to scramble!

- *Problem:* $e^{-ih_i\theta}$ is not polynomial in θ
- *Solution:* take fixed truncation of Taylor series for $e^{-ih_i\theta}$
 - So each gate entry is a polynomial in θ and so is $|\langle 0^n | C | 0^n \rangle|^2$
 - Now interpolate and compute $p(1) = |\langle 0^n | C | 0^n \rangle|^2$
- *This shows average-case exact hardness for a different circuit distribution!*
 - But we show that approximate hardness over this “truncated” circuit distribution is equivalent to the original RCS hardness conjecture (i.e., *approximate average-case* hardness over the gatewise Haar distribution)

2. Using statistical tests to verify RCS

Verifying RCS in the NISQ era

- *Constraint*: can only take a small ($\text{poly}(n)$) number of samples from the quantum device
- *Unique tool in NISQ Era*: It's feasible to take “modestly exponential” classical computation time per sample
- *Challenge*: Complexity arguments require closeness in total variation distance. **But we can't hope to unconditionally verify this with few samples from the device.**

Candidate test for verifying RCS: cross-entropy [Boixo et. al., 16]

- We want to compute:

$$CE(p_{dev}, p_{id}) = \sum_x p_{dev}(x) \log \frac{1}{p_{id}(x)} = \mathbb{E}_{p_{dev}} \log \left(\frac{1}{p_{id}} \right)$$

- Note this can be well-approximated– take samples x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k :
 - For each, use $\exp(n)$ classical processing time to compute log of ideal probabilities!
 - Mean converges to expectation with $k = \text{poly}(n)$ samples from the device by Chernoff
- Then accept if score is sufficiently close to the expected ideal cross-entropy, which can be calculated

Why might one believe this verifies RCS?

- This is a “one-dimensional projection” of observed data
- Does not verify closeness in total variation distance directly
- (Theorem: exist distributions far in total variation which score well on CE)
- [Boixo et al. '16]: Assume that

$$\rho_{\text{dev}} = \alpha \rho_{\text{id}} + (1-\alpha) \text{Id}$$

In this case, achieving near-perfect cross-entropy certifies closeness in total variation distance

Deeper reasons to believe in Cross-Entropy

- This assumption can be weakened, if we “merely believe”:
 - $H(p_{dev}) \geq H(p_{id})$

- Pinsker’s inequality:

$$|p_{dev} - p_{id}|_{TV} \leq \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}|p_{dev} - p_{id}|_{KL}}$$

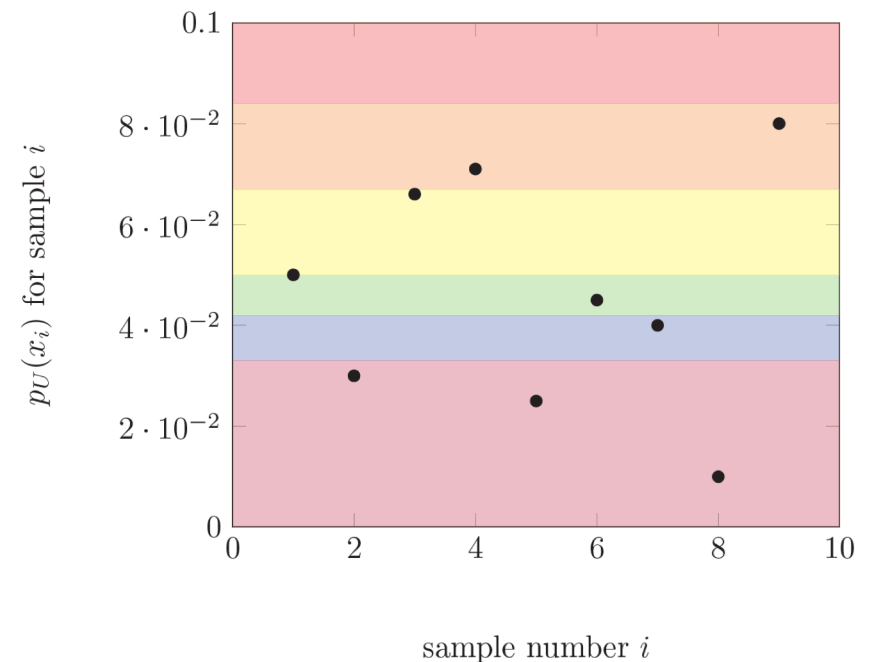
- Where $|p_{dev} - p_{id}|_{KL} = CE(p_{dev}, p_{id}) - H(p_{dev})$
- So if we find cross-entropy ε -close to ideal, we’ve certified closeness in total variation distance to error $O(\varepsilon^{1/2})$
- This assumption makes sense if you think your device is corrupted by random errors

Removing assumption: Is scoring high on CE “intrinsically” hard?

- The output distributions of RCS are “Porter-Thomas”
 - $\Pr[p_x = q/N] = e^{-q}$
- This “shape” of the distribution is **not** a signature of quantum effects!
 - We show the “shape” can be reproduced classically (e.g., by Poisson processes)
- However, pairs of distributions scoring highly on CE test share similar “heavy” outcomes
 - This intuition was sharpened by a recent proposal of Aaronson & Chen called “HOG”
$$\mathbb{E}_{p_{dev}} \delta(p_{id} \text{ is “heavier than median”})$$
- Scoring above some threshold conjectured to be intrinsically hard
 - But don’t know how to give complexity theoretic evidence

Introducing... Binned Output Generation (BOG)

- Why not use the same number of samples and take a multidimensional projection?
- Consider dividing the $[0,1]$ interval into **poly(n)** bins
- Observe k samples x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k and calculate ideal probabilities for each sample on supercomputer
- Accept if the number of outcome probabilities in each bin are approximately equal to expected frequency in each bin
- Verifies cross-entropy and HOG – inherits the advantages of both (if you believe in either...)



Thanks!