

# Lecture 7 Benchmarking Pt 2.

## Quantum Process Tomography

Analogous to state tomography except instead of learning a density matrix  $\rho$  we learn a representation of a quantum process known as the  $\chi$  matrix.

→ See Mike & Ike 8.4.2 for details.

- Standard QPT requires  $2^{n^2}$  different state tomography experiments for  $n$  qubits
- That is  $2^{n^2} \cdot 2^{n^2}$  types of programs to benchmark  $n$  qubits.

There are cleverer ways

→ Mohseni et al 2008

→ Gate set tomography pygsti python package

→ QPT w/ compressed sensing (Flammia et al 2012)

scales as  $\mathcal{O}\left(\left(\frac{rd}{\epsilon}\right)^2 \log(d)\right)$   $d = 2^n$

$r$  is rank of  $\chi$  i.e. the dimension of the space spanned by its column vectors.

This is close to optimal

# Randomized Benchmarking

Fully characterizing all the quantum operations of our system is resource intensive. Instead we would like a general metric that tells us how our operations perform on average (for some definition of average)

Defn A group  $G$  is a set equipped w/ a binary operation that is:

- closed:  $g_1 \circ g_2 \in G$
- associative:  $(g_1 \circ g_2) \circ g_3 = g_1 \circ (g_2 \circ g_3)$
- has an identity:  $1_G \circ g = g$
- is invertible:  $\forall g \in G$  there is a  $g^{-1}$  s.t.  $g \circ g^{-1} = 1_G$

Ex The Pauli group  $P_1 \equiv \{ \pm I, \pm iI, \pm X, \pm iX, \pm Y, \pm iY, \pm Z, \pm iZ \}$  w/ matrix multiplication

$XZ = iY$   
 $P = P^{-1}$  &  $P \in \{X, Y, Z\}$

The Pauli group is generated by  $\langle X, Y, Z \rangle$  which means all the elements of  $P_1$  can be written as a finite combination ~~of~~ of  $X, Y$  or  $Z$ .

Defn The normalizer of the Pauli group is called the Clifford Group

$$C_1 = \{ U \mid \sigma \in P_1 \Rightarrow U \sigma U^\dagger \in P_1 \}$$

For example  $H \in C_1$  as  $HZH = X$  etc.

Matrices in  $C_1$  correspond to permutations of the axes of the Bloch sphere. For example it could send  $+x$  to  $-z$ . There are six ways to send the first axis, then four for the next. Thus  $|C_1| = 24$  elements.

~~C~~  $C_1$  is generated by  $\{ \underbrace{I, RX(\pm\pi), RX(\pm\pi/2), RY(\pm\pi), RY(\pm\pi/2)}_{RB_{1Q}} \}$  (9 elements)

call this the 1Qubit randomized benchmarking gate set.

$$C_1 = \langle RB_{1Q} \rangle$$

As  $C_1$  is a group we can define that, for a set of elements  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  each of which is a member of  $C_1$ , their completion  $A = (c_1, \dots, c_n)^{-1}$ . Thus

$$A(c_1, \dots, c_n) = 1_{C_1} = \mathbb{1} \text{ the identity matrix.}$$

Fact For any  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  their completion  $A$  can always be written as a combination of 3 elements of  $RB_{1Q}$

[single qubit randomized benchmarking]

(1) Choose a series of lengths  $l_1 < l_2 \dots < l_m$

(2) For each  $l_i$   
Generate a random sequence of  $l_i$  gates taken from  $RB_{1Q}$ .

Calculate their completion  $A$  and its representation as a combination of 3 elements of  $RB_{1Q}$ .

This produces a sequence of  $l_i$  elements of  $RB_{1Q}$  that compose to the identity operation.

(3) Run this sequence of gates on your qubit and measure if you remain in  $|0\rangle$  state

Do this  $N_e$  times

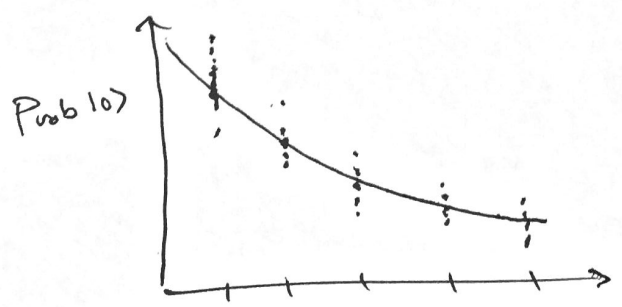
Do this  $N_r$  times

You now have  $N_e \cdot N_r \cdot m$  ~~points~~ points of data.

(4) Calculate  $P_{l_i} = \mathbb{E}$  probability of measuring  $|0\rangle$  at sequence length  $l_i$

(5) Fit  $P_{l_i} = \tilde{A} + (\tilde{B} + \tilde{C} l_i) p^{l_i}$  where  $\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}, \tilde{C}$  and  $p$  are fit params.

(6) Calculate  $r = \frac{1-p}{2}$  as the ~~average~~ RB number.



Facts about RB (part A)

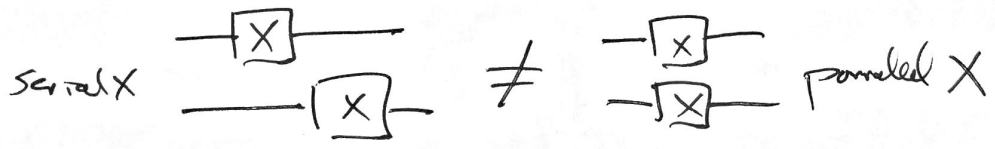
- Gate errors are independent e.g.  $C'_i = \Delta_i C_i$  (Magesan et al 2012)
  - ↑ actual noisy gate
  - ↑ perfect target gate
- When gate errors are dependent, i.e.  $C'_i = \Delta_i C_i$  then we can use a slightly different procedure (Proctor et al. 2017)
- RB is invariant to SPAM (state preparation and measurement) errors



- The clifford group is special. It is a so-called unitary 2-design which means that the effect of the gates on the existing error channel is to map it into a depolarizing channel w/ the avg infidelity invariant (Magesan et al 2012)

[Simultaneous Randomized Benchmarking]

~~One could apply the IQ RB protocol~~ One could apply the IQ RB protocol to each of your available qubits one at a time to get fidelity numbers. However this ignores the interaction between qubits. e.g.



In simultaneous RB we take data for RB sequences on ~~different qubits~~ subsets of qubits at the same time.

[Multi-qubit RB]

The protocol generalizes to multiple qubit in a way that is mathematically straightforward but that can be ~~hard~~ hard to implement in practice.

Defn

The Pauli group on  $N$ -qubits is generated by

$$P_N = \{ p_1 \otimes \dots \otimes p_N \text{ for } p_i \in P_1 \}$$

The  $n$ -qubit Clifford group is then the normalizer for  $P_N$  as

$$C_N = \{ U \mid p \in P_N \Rightarrow U^\dagger p U \in P_N \}$$

The rest of the protocol follows through the same way.

Ex 1 ZQ RB has ~~the~~ following generating set:

$$RB_{ZQ} = \{ p_1 \otimes p_2 \text{ for } p_1, p_2 \in P_1 \} \cup \{ CZ \}$$

Ex 2 s.t.  $C_2 = \langle RB_{ZQ} \rangle$

However, algorithms for doing the generation of random sequences that compose to the identity become harder as the size of the Clifford group grows quickly

$n$	1	2	3	4	5
$ C_n $	24	11,520	92,897,280	17,128,668,876,800	25 quadrillion

[Interleaved RB] (Magesan 2014)

RB gives us a number that benchmarks the overall control of a set of operations. However we can modify it to learn about the error of a particular gate.

- (1) Do normal RB and calculate  $p$
- (2) Repeat RB but ~~insert~~ the target gate  $G$  as the first element in the sequence and  $m$  between every other gate. Calculate  $p_G$

$$(3) r_a^{est} = \frac{(d-1)(1 - p_G/p)}{d}$$

$$d = 2^n \leftarrow \# \text{ of qubits}$$

Thm [Gottesman-Knill] (Gottesman 1998, MBT <sup>10.5</sup> 10.5.4)

~~Quantum~~ Quantum programs that consist only of Clifford operations followed by one round of measurements can be efficiently simulated by classical computers

So does this mean RB can only be used in the "boring" classically simulable operations?

No and this is an active research area.

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/8} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Odonetti et al 2018 for T gates (Clifford + T is universal)
- Franssa & Hashagen 2018 " " " "

# Benchmarking - Contextuality

So far our benchmarking thus far we have been concerned w/ the fidelity of particular operations or sets of operations.

We may also be ~~more~~ interested in more global properties such as if our processor is doing something that is clearly quantum.

In these next two sections we will focus on benchmarks that to some extent can be considered benchmarks of the "quantumness" of your QPU.

## Defn Contextual (informal)

A physical system is contextual iff the state of the system cannot be defined without including the choice of observables as parameters.

Thus the systems state cannot be defined w/o the measurement context.

## Toy example

A ball-cup system has two observables, each of which has two states.

- You can peek at the ball hidden under the cup and see if it is black or white
- You can weigh the cup and see if it is heavier or lighter than 0.5 lbs

How do you fill in the following table

weigh, weigh :	heavy, light
weigh, peek :	heavy, white
peek, weigh :	white, light
peek, peek :	? ?

For a non contextual theory this must be white, white.

But! In quantum and other ~~non~~ contextual theories we may get black/black!

(Hardy 1993)

Let's look at a famous example due to Mermin.  
 We will find that the quantum protocol produces an outcome that would be impossible for a non-contextual theory to produce.

Take a 3-qubit system and perform the following sets of measurements.  
 get one output number by XOR on outputs.

$$C = X_2 X_1 X_0 \quad a_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} X_1 X_0$$

$$a_2 = X_2 Y_1 Y_0$$

$$a_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} X_1 Y_0$$

Calculate  $C \stackrel{?}{=} a_1 \oplus a_2 \oplus a_3 = a$

Imagine if  $\{X_i, Y_i\}$  had fixed non-contextual values. e.g.  $X_i = 0$   
 $Y_i = 1$

$$C = 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 0 \quad a_1 = 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 = 0$$

$$a_2 = 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0 \quad a = C$$

$$a_3 = 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 = 0$$

In fact for all choices of  $X_i$  and  $Y_i$   $a = C$   
 (non-contextual)

$$C = X_2 \oplus X_1 \oplus X_0 \quad a = \underbrace{Y_2 \oplus Y_1 \oplus X_0}_{a_1} \oplus \underbrace{X_2 \oplus Y_1 \oplus Y_0}_{a_2} \oplus \underbrace{Y_2 \oplus X_1 \oplus Y_0}_{a_3}$$

$$C = a = X_0 \oplus X_2 \oplus X_1$$

Now let's imagine that our system is quantum and is in the  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|000\rangle + |111\rangle)$  state. (called a GHZ state)

\* exercise to the reader to check algebra

We find that  $\langle XXX \rangle = -\langle YYY \rangle \langle XYY \rangle \langle YXY \rangle$   
 $C \neq a$

Whoa!

thus if we make this state and make these measurements  
 we will find an outcome that is impossible for non-contextual theory



To make this into a benchmark ~~we must~~ it is not enough to observe one outcome of  $c \neq a$ .

Since the system is noisy we may have seen an error rather than real evidence of contextuality. Thus we must calculate the probability that  $c \neq a$  on our QPU compared to a contextual theory w/ some random bit flip % chance at measurement.

This is a so-called ~~3, 2, 2~~ (3, 2, 2) Mermin or allus nothing benchmark.

For - 3 systems

- each w/ 2 observables  $\{X, Y\}$

- and each observable has two outcomes  $\{\pm 1\}$

This can be generalized to  $(N, M, D)$  benchmarks see.

Ciorgos and Zeng 2017

While contextuality benchmarks tell us about the "quantumness" of states produced on our QPU, they can be fooled. It is not hard to write a classical simulation of a contextual theory that will pass ~~our~~ benchmark.

Thus we are interested in benchmarks that separate the QPU's performance from anything that could be done classically.

# Quantum Supremacy

Definition The milestone of quantum supremacy consists of:

- (1) A mathematical proof that a given problem has a superpolynomial separation between quantum and classical (at least up to widely accepted theoretical assumptions)
- (2) The exhibition of <sup>the</sup> solution of this problem by a quantum computer at a performance (size, speed, or efficiency) that is infeasible w/ any classical computer ~~in existence~~ in existence

Defn Weak quantum supremacy: just (2) of quantum supremacy

Defn Quantum Advantage: (2) but for a valuable commercial problem.

Defn Strong Quantum Advantage: Quantum advantage w/ (1) or equivalent quantum supremacy for a valuable problem

	<u>Practical</u>	<u>Foundational</u>
<u>Any Problem</u>	WQS	QS
<u>Valuable Problem</u>	QA	SQA

# Quantum Supremacy through Porter-Thomson Sampling (Boixo et al 2016)

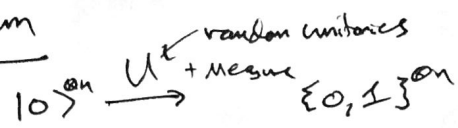
One of the most widely known approaches to proving near-term quantum supremacy is through Porter-Thomson sampling.

In essence, ~~the~~ the output of random quantum programs is not only distinguishable, but is hard to simulate w/ classical computation.

## Classical

Imagine ~~the~~ random boolean functions  $\{0,1\}^{2^n} \xrightarrow{f} \{0,1\}^{2^n}$   
 The distribution over output bitstrings is uniform; i.e.  $p = \{p_i\}_{i \in \{0,1\}^{2^n}}$  has  $p_i = \frac{1}{2^n}$   
 The meta-distribution (a histogram of the  $p_i$  values) is a delta function as all  $p_i$  are the same.

## Quantum

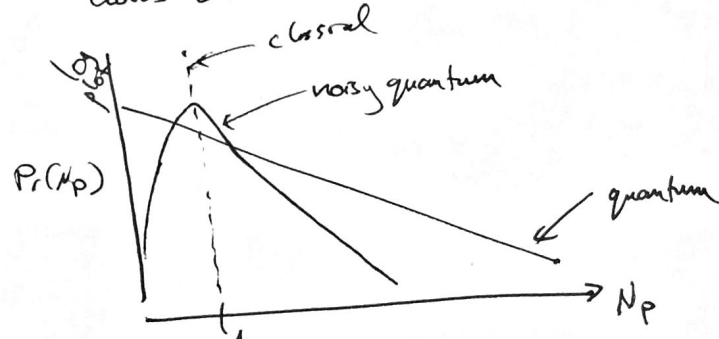


Looks different.

The meta-distribution is

$$P_r(N_p) = e^{-N_p}$$

We recall  $\sum p_i$   
 by ~~the~~  
 $N = 2^n$



We compare quantum to classical by using the cross-entropy difference.

Defn For discrete distributions the cross-entropy  $H(p, q) = -\sum_{x \in X} p(x) \log(q(x))$

Defn Cross-entropy difference is relative to a reference.

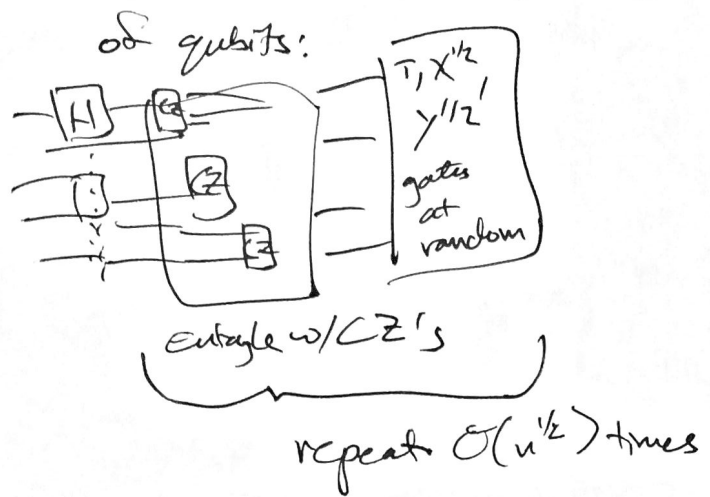
Let  $P_r$  be the porter thomson distribution

$\delta$  be the delta meta-distribution that comes when  $p_i = \frac{1}{2^n}$

Then  $\Delta H(p_A) = H(\delta, P_r) - H(p_A, P_r)$   
 $= \sum_j \left( \frac{1}{N} - p_A(x_j) \right) \log \frac{1}{P_r(x_j)}$

It turns out that nearest neighbor circuits can approximate a random  $U$  well enough for this to work. (Aharonson & Chen 2017)

Google Proposal is the following to generate  $U$  on a square grid



$7 \times 7$  array = 49  
40 layers

Results so far!

9 qubits yes  
TBD on more.