

# Quantum-inspired classical algorithms for linear equations and beyond

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[arXiv:2103.10309](#) (joint work with Ashley Montanaro),  
[arXiv:2105.07736](#)



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But assuming access to QRAM, there exist (quantum-inspired) classical algorithms that can also achieve poly-log dependence on the dimension [Ewin Tang 2018]

As a result, **exponential** quantum speedups for many machine learning problems reduce to **polynomial** quantum speedups

**Question:** How large is this polynomial speedup?



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# Main results

We focus on the solving of linear systems  $Ax = b$  with QRAM:

Algorithm	Complexity	Ref.	Assumptions
Quantum	$\tilde{O}(\kappa_F)$	[1]	
Randomized classical	$\tilde{O}(s\kappa_F^2)$	[2]	row sparse
	$\tilde{O}(s\text{Tr}(A)\ A^+\ )$	[3]	sparse, SPD
Quantum-inspired classical	$\tilde{O}(\kappa_F^6\kappa^6/\epsilon^4)$	[4]	SPD
	$\tilde{O}(\kappa_F^6\kappa^2/\epsilon^2)$	Our	
	$\tilde{O}(\text{Tr}(A)^3\ A^+\ ^3\kappa/\epsilon^2)$	Our	

$\kappa_F = \|A\|_F\|A^+\|$ ,<sup>1</sup>  $\kappa = \|A\|\|A^+\|$ ,  $s$  = row sparsity,  
SPD = symmetric positive definite.

[1] Chakraborty, Gilyén, Jeffery 2018    [2] Strohmer, Vershynin 2009

[3] Leventhal, Lewis 2010    [4] Gilyén, Song, Tang 2020

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<sup>1</sup> $\|A\|_F^2 = \sum_{i,j} |A_{ij}|^2$ ,  $A^+$  = pseudoinverse of  $A$

# Implication 1: $A$ is row sparse

## Classical:

QRAM model  $\Rightarrow \tilde{O}(s \|A\|_F^2 \|A^+\|^2)$

## Quantum:

- ▶ column sparse + sparse access input model  
 $\Rightarrow \tilde{O}(s \|A\|_{\max} \|A^+\|)^2$   
 $\Rightarrow$  large quantum speedup is possible
- ▶ column dense + QRAM model  
 $\Rightarrow \tilde{O}(\|A\|_F \|A^+\|)$   
 $\Rightarrow$  quadratic quantum speedup when  $s = \tilde{O}(1)$

Both achieve poly-log dependence on  $\epsilon$

---

$$^2 \|A\|_{\max} = \max_{i,j} |A_{ij}|$$

## Implication 2: $A$ is row sparse

The output:

- ▶ **Classical:** a **sparse vector**
- ▶ **Quantum:** a **quantum state**

If to estimate the norm of the solution (Assume QRAM + column dense):

- ▶ **Classical:**  $\tilde{O}(s\|A\|_F^2\|A^+\|^2)$
- ▶ **Quantum:**  $\tilde{O}(\|A\|_F\|A^+\|/\epsilon)$

⇒ **Classical algorithm is better in terms of the dependence on  $\epsilon$**

## Implication 3: $A$ is row sparse and SPD

### Classical:

- ▶  $\tilde{O}(s \text{Tr}(A) \|A^+\|)$
- ▶ the output is a sparse vector

### Quantum:

- ▶  $\tilde{O}(s \|A\|_{\max} \|A^+\|)$
- ▶ the output is a quantum state

$\Rightarrow$  May have no quantum speedup if  $\text{Tr}(A) = \tilde{\Theta}(\|A\|_{\max})$ .

**Good news:** For some SPD linear systems, quantum computers can have quadratically better dependence on the condition number  
[Davide, Dunjko, arXiv:2101.11868]

## Implication 4: $A$ is dense in the QRAM model

**Classical:**  $\tilde{O}(\|A\|_F^6 \|A\|^2 \|A^+\|^8 / \epsilon^2)$

This improves the previous best result  $\tilde{O}(\|A\|_F^6 \|A\|^6 \|A^+\|^{12} / \epsilon^4)$  of Gilyén, Song, Tang 2020

The output is a classical analogue of the quantum output

**Quantum:**  $\tilde{O}(\|A\|_F \|A^+\|)$

$\Rightarrow$  Large polynomial quantum speedup still exists.

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# The main technique: Kaczmarz method

Background:

- ▶ first discovered by the Polish mathematician [Stefan Kaczmarz](#) in 1937.



- ▶ rediscovered in the field of image reconstruction from projections by [Richard Gordon, Robert Bender, and Gabor Herman](#) in 1970.



# The main technique: Kaczmarz method

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Assume  $A$  is  $m \times n$ . Let  $\mathbf{x}_0$  be an arbitrary initial approximation to the solution. For  $k = 0, 1, \dots$ , compute

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \frac{b_{r_k} - \langle A_{r_k*} | \mathbf{x}_k \rangle}{\|A_{r_k*}\|^2} A_{r_k*},$$

where  $A_{r_k*}$  is the  $r_k$ -th row of  $A$ , and  $r_k$  is chosen from  $\{1, \dots, m\}$  randomly with probability proportional to  $\|A_{r_k*}\|^2$

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It naturally has a sampling-based data structure

A stochastic gradient descent method:  $\min \sum_i \|\langle A_{i*} | \mathbf{x} \rangle - b_i\|^2$

[Strohmer, Vershynin, J Fourier Anal Appl, 2009]

# The main technique: Kaczmarz method

The Kaczmarz algorithm has a **clear geometric meaning**:  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$  is the **orthogonal projection** of  $\mathbf{x}_k$  onto the hyperplane  $A_{r_k*} \cdot \mathbf{x} = b_{r_k}$

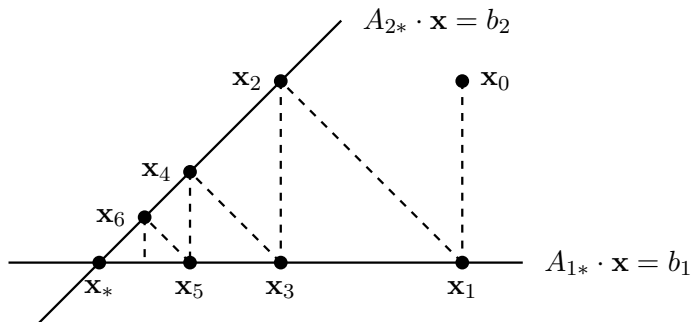


Figure 1: An illustration of Kaczmarz algorithm when  $m = 2$ .

# The main technique: Kaczmarz method

## Theorem 1 (Strohmer, Vershynin 2009)

*The randomized Kaczmarz algorithm converges to  $\mathbf{x}_*$  in expectation, with the average error*

$$\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{x}_T - \mathbf{x}_*\|^2] \leq (1 - \kappa_F^{-2})^T \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_*\|^2,$$

*where  $\kappa_F = \|A\|_F \|A^+\|$ .*

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where  $\kappa_F = \|A\|_F \|A^+\|$ .

By Markov's inequality,  $T = O(\kappa_F^2 \log(1/\epsilon^2))$  iterations is enough to obtain  $\mathbf{x}_T$  such that

$$\|\mathbf{x}_T - \mathbf{x}_*\|^2 \leq \epsilon^2 \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_*\|^2.$$

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From the scheme, there exist  $y_{k,0}, \dots, y_{k,k-1}$  such that

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} y_{k,j} A_{r_j^*},$$

**Recall**

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \frac{b_{r_k} - \langle A_{r_k^*} | \mathbf{x}_k \rangle}{\|A_{r_k^*}\|^2} A_{r_k^*}$$

that is  $\mathbf{x}_k = A^\dagger \mathbf{y}_k$  for a  **$k$ -sparse** vector  $\mathbf{y}_k$ .

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$\Rightarrow$  an iterative scheme for  $\mathbf{y}$ 's

$$\mathbf{y}_{k+1} = \mathbf{y}_k + \frac{b_{r_k} - \langle A_{r_k^*} | A^\dagger | \mathbf{y}_k \rangle}{\|A_{r_k^*}\|^2} \mathbf{e}_{r_k},$$

where  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_m\}$  is the standard basis of  $\mathbb{C}^m$ .

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where  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_m\}$  is the standard basis of  $\mathbb{C}^m$ .

Indeed,  $\mathbf{y}_k$  converges to the optimal solution of the dual problem of the least square problem  $\min \|A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|$ .

# The main technique: Kaczmarz method

Consider the least-norm solution of the linear system

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|^2, \quad \text{s.t.} \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}. \quad (1)$$

The dual problem is

$$\min_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^m} \quad g(\mathbf{y}) := \frac{1}{2} \|A^\dagger \mathbf{y}\|^2 - \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{y}. \quad (2)$$

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For (1), apply the **stochastic gradient descent method** to  $\frac{1}{2}(A_{r_k^*} \cdot \mathbf{x} - b_{r_k})^2$  with stepsize  $1/\|A_{r_k^*}\|^2 \Rightarrow$  Kaczmarz method.

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For (2), apply the **randomized coordinate descent method** to the  $r_k$ -th component, the gradient is  $\nabla_{r_k} g = \langle A_{r_k*} | A^\dagger | \mathbf{y}_k \rangle - b_{r_k}$ . Choose the stepsize as  $1/\|A_{r_k*}\|^2 \Rightarrow$  the iteration for  $\mathbf{y}$ .

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# Main idea of the algorithm when $A$ is row sparse

Assume the QRAM data structure [Gilyén, Song, Tang '20]:

1. Output  $i$  with probability  $\|A_{i*}\|^2 / \|A\|_F^2$
2. For each  $i$ , output  $j$  with probability  $\|A_{ij}\|^2 / \|A_{i*}\|^2$
3. Query the  $(i, j)$ -th entry
4. For each  $i$ , output  $\|A_{i*}\|^2$
5. Outputs  $\|A\|_F^2$

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4. For each  $i$ , output  $\|A_{i*}\|^2$
5. Outputs  $\|A\|_F^2$

When  $A$  is row sparse, just apply the Kaczmarz iteration:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \frac{b_{r_k} - \langle A_{r_k*} | \mathbf{x}_k \rangle}{\|A_{r_k*}\|^2} A_{r_k*}.$$

Assume  $A$  has row sparsity  $s$ , then it costs  $O(s)$  at each step of iteration. So  $\tilde{O}(s\kappa_F^2)$  in total.



# Main idea of the algorithm when $A$ is dense

Compute  $\mathbf{y}_T$  first through

$$\mathbf{y}_{k+1} = \mathbf{y}_k + \frac{b_{r_k} - \langle A_{r_k*} | A^\dagger | \mathbf{y}_k \rangle}{\|A_{r_k*}\|^2} \mathbf{e}_{r_k}.$$

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When  $A$  is dense, using the idea of Monte Carlo to estimate  $\langle A_{r_k*} | A^\dagger | \mathbf{y}_k \rangle \Rightarrow$  new iterative scheme

$$\mathbf{y}_{k+1} = \mathbf{y}_k + \frac{1}{\|A_{r_k*}\|} \left( \tilde{b}_{r_k} - \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{j \in S} \tilde{A}_{r_k,j} \langle A_{*j} | \mathbf{y}_k \rangle \frac{\|A\|_F^2}{\|A_{*j}\|^2} \right) \mathbf{e}_{r_k},$$

where  $S$  is a collection of column indices such that each  $j$  is put into it with probability proportional to the norm square of  $j$ -th column.

Recall  $\mathbf{x}_k = A^\dagger \mathbf{y}_k$ , so we have an iteration scheme for  $\mathbf{x}_k$ .

## Proposition 1

Choose

$$|S| = \frac{4\|A\|_F^2 \kappa_F^2 \log(2/\epsilon^2)}{\epsilon^2 \min_{j \in [n]} \|A_{*j}\|^2},$$

then after  $T = O(\kappa_F^2 \log(2/\epsilon^2))$  steps of iteration, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{x}_T - \mathbf{x}_*\|^2] \leq \epsilon^2 \|\mathbf{x}_*\|^2.$$

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Step 2 is the most technical part of the algorithm; however, the main cost comes from step 1.

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# More about Kaczmarz method

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## 1. Block projection Kaczmarz algorithm

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k A_{Q_k}^+ (\mathbf{b}_{Q_k} - A_{Q_k} \mathbf{x}_k),$$

where  $A_{Q_k}$  is the matrix of the rows with index in  $Q_k$ .

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## 2. Average block Kaczmarz algorithm

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \sum_{i \in Q_k} w_i (b_i - \frac{A_i^T \mathbf{x}_k}{\|A_i\|^2}) A_i,$$

where the weights  $w_i \in [0, 1]$  satisfy  $\sum_i w_i = 1$  and  $\alpha_k \in (0, 2)$ . With suitable choices of  $\alpha_k, w_i$ , the rate of convergence can be  $O(\|A\|^2 \|A^{-1}\|^2 \log(1/\epsilon^2))$ .

## A new way to look at Kaczmarz method

Assume that  $A$  is nonsingular and  $\mathbf{x}_* = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ . Recall the original Kaczmarz method

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha(b_{i_k} - \frac{A_{i_k}^T \mathbf{x}_k}{\|A_{i_k}\|^2})A_{i_k} = \mathbf{x}_k - \alpha \frac{A_{i_k} A_{i_k}^T}{\|A_{i_k}\|^2}(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_*).$$

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Now choose  $\alpha = 2$ ,

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_* = \left( I - 2 \frac{A_{i_k} A_{i_k}^T}{\|A_{i_k}\|^2} \right) (\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_*).$$

Apparently, all  $\mathbf{x}_k$ 's lie on the sphere

$$\mathbb{S} = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_*\| = \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_*\| \}.$$

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**Question:** determine  $m$  and  $\mathbf{x}_{k_1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{k_m} \in \mathbb{S}$  such that

$$\|\frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \mathbf{x}_{k_j} - \mathbf{x}_*\| \leq \epsilon \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_*\|.$$

## Two approaches

1.  $i_k$  is chosen in random [Steinerberger, 2020]

$$\mathbb{E} \left\| \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}_* \right\| \leq \epsilon \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_*\|, \quad m = O(\|A\|_F^2 \|A^{-1}\|^2 / \epsilon^2)$$

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(a)  $i_k$  is chosen in random



(b)  $i_k$  is chosen in order

**Figure 2:** An illustration of the distribution of  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{1000}\}$  on  $\mathbb{S}$  when  $n = 3$ .



## More details

For simplicity, denote

$$R_i = I - 2 \frac{A_i A_i^T}{\|A_i\|^2}, \quad R = R_n \cdots R_2 R_1.$$

If  $i_k = (k \bmod n) + 1$ , then

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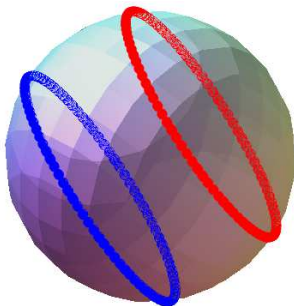
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$\dots$	$\dots$	$\dots$

## More details

Generally, define

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{S}_0 &:= \{\mathbf{y}_i := \mathbf{x}_* + R^{2i}(\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_*) : i = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}, \\ \mathbb{S}_1 &:= \{\mathbf{z}_i := \mathbf{x}_* + R^{2i+1}(\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_*) : i = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}.\end{aligned}$$



# Main results

## Theorem 2

*For  $j = 0, 1$ , let  $\mathbf{c}_j$  be the center of the minimal sphere supporting  $\mathbb{S}_j$ , then  $\mathbf{c}_0 + \mathbf{c}_1 = 2\mathbf{x}_*$ .*



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## Theorem 3

*Let  $\{e^{i\theta_l} : 1 \leq l \leq n, |\theta_l| \leq \pi\}$  be the eigenvalues of  $R$ , then  $\min_l |\theta_l| > 0$  and*

$$\left\| \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (\mathbf{y}_i + \mathbf{z}_i) - \mathbf{x}_* \right\| \leq \epsilon \|\mathbf{x}_*\|,$$

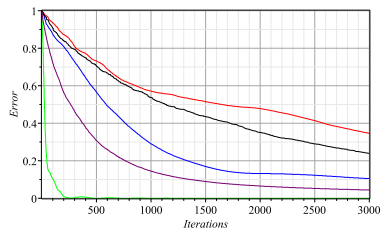
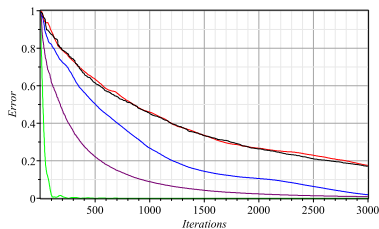
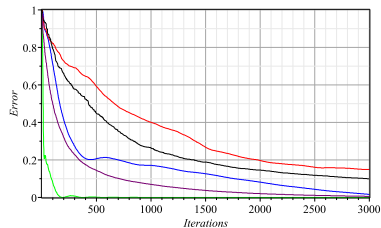
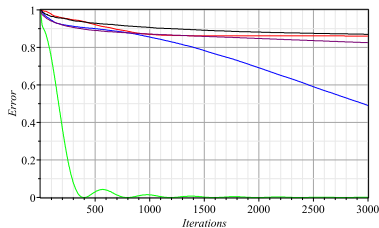
*where*

$$m = O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^2} + \frac{1}{\epsilon \min_l |\theta_l|}\right).$$

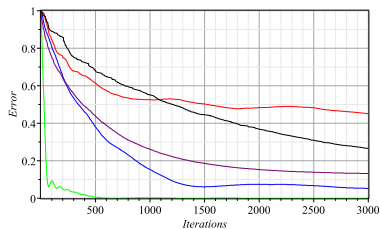
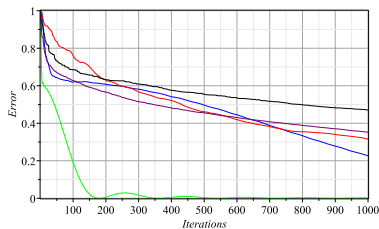
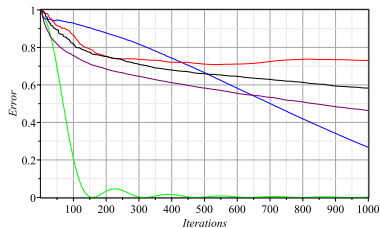
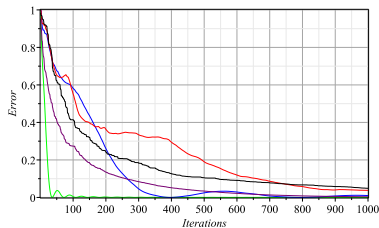
# Comparison

Algorithm	Total operations	Type
Kaczmarz	$O(n\ A\ _F^2\ A^{-1}\ ^2\log(1/\epsilon^2))$	Randomized
Steinerberger	$O(n\ A\ _F^2\ A^{-1}\ ^2/\epsilon^2)$	Randomized
Our	$O(n^2/\epsilon^2 + n^2/\epsilon \min_l  \theta_l )$	Deterministic

# Experiments



# Experiments



# Conclusions and outlooks

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- ▶ We reduced the gap between quantum and quantum-inspired classical algorithm for linear equations from  $\kappa_F : \kappa_F^6 \kappa^6 / \epsilon^4$  to  $\kappa_F : \kappa_F^6 \kappa^2 / \epsilon^2$ .
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**Thank you!**