

# Supplementary online material for the paper *Quantum algorithm for linear systems of equations*

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In this supplementary material, we describe and analyze our algorithm in full detail. While the main paper attempted to convey the spirit of the procedure and left out various improvements, here we take the opposite approach and describe everything, albeit possibly in a less intuitive way. We also describe in more detail our reductions from non-Hermitian matrix inversion to Hermitian matrix inversion and from a general quantum computation to matrix inversion.

As inputs we require a procedure to produce the state  $|b\rangle$ , a method of producing the  $\leq s$  non-zero elements of any row of  $A$  and a choice of cutoff  $\kappa$ . Our run-time will be roughly quadratic in  $\kappa$  and our algorithm is guaranteed to be correct if  $\|A\| \leq 1$  and  $\|A^{-1}\| \leq \kappa$ .

The condition number is a crucial parameter in the algorithm. Here we present one possible method of handling ill-conditioned matrices. We will define the well-conditioned part of  $A$  to be the span of the eigenspaces corresponding to eigenvalues  $\geq 1/\kappa$  and the ill-conditioned part to be the rest. Our strategy will be to flag the ill-conditioned part of the matrix (without inverting it), and let the user choose how to further handle this. Since we cannot exactly resolve any eigenvalue, we can only approximately determine whether vectors are in the well- or ill-conditioned subspaces. Accordingly, we choose some  $\kappa' > \kappa$  (say  $\kappa' = 2\kappa$ ). Our algorithm then inverts the well-conditioned part of the matrix, flags any eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\leq 1/\kappa'$  as ill-conditioned, and interpolates between these two behaviors when  $1/\kappa' < |\lambda| < 1/\kappa$ . This is described formally in the next section. We present this strategy not because it is necessarily ideal in all cases, but because it gives a concrete illustration of the key components of our algorithm.

Finally, the algorithm produces  $|x\rangle$  only up to some error  $\epsilon$  which is given as part of the input. We work only with pure states, and so define error in terms of distance between vectors, i.e.  $\| |\alpha\rangle - |\beta\rangle \| = \sqrt{2(1 - \text{Re} \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle)}$ . Since ancilla states are produced and then imperfectly uncomputed by the algorithm, our output state will technically have high fidelity not with  $|x\rangle$  but with  $|x\rangle |000\dots\rangle$ . In general we do not write down ancilla qubits in the  $|0\rangle$  state, so we write  $|x\rangle$  instead of  $|x\rangle |000\dots\rangle$  for the target state,  $|b\rangle$  instead of  $|b\rangle |000\dots\rangle$  for the initial state, and so on.

## A. Detailed description of the algorithm

To produce the input state  $|b\rangle$ , we assume that there exists an efficiently-implementable unitary  $B$ , which when applied to  $|initial\rangle$  produces the state  $|b\rangle$ , possibly along with garbage in an ancilla register. We make no further assumption about  $B$ ; it may represent another part of a larger algorithm, or a standard state-preparation procedure such as Ref. [1]. Let  $T_B$  be the number of gates required to implement  $B$ . We neglect the possibility that  $B$  errs in producing  $|b\rangle$  since, without any other way of producing or verifying the state  $|b\rangle$ , we have no way to mitigate these errors. Thus, any errors in producing  $|b\rangle$  necessarily translate directly into errors in the final state  $|x\rangle$ .

Next, we define the state

$$|\Psi_0\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T}} \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} \sin \frac{\pi(\tau + \frac{1}{2})}{T} |\tau\rangle \quad (1)$$

for a  $T$  to be chosen later. Using Ref. [1], we can prepare  $|\Psi_0\rangle$  up to error  $\epsilon_\Psi$  in time  $\text{poly} \log(T/\epsilon_\Psi)$ .

One other subroutine we will need is Hamiltonian simulation. Using the reductions described in Section C, we can assume that  $A$  is Hermitian. To simulate  $e^{iAt}$  for some  $t \geq 0$ , we use the algorithm of Ref. [2]. If  $A$  is  $s$ -sparse,  $t \leq t_0$  and we want to guarantee that the error is  $\leq \epsilon_H$ , then this requires time

$$T_H = O(\log(N)(\log^*(N))^2 s^2 t_0 \sqrt{\log(s^2 t_0 / \epsilon_H)}) = \tilde{O}(\log(N) s^2 t_0) \quad (2)$$

The scaling here is better than any power of  $1/\epsilon_H$ , which means that the additional error introduced by this step introduces is negligible compared with the rest of the algorithm, and the runtime is almost linear with  $t_0$ . Note that this is the only step where we require that  $A$  be sparse; as there are some other types of Hamiltonians which can be simulated efficiently (e.g. Refs. [2-4]), this broadens the set of matrices we can handle.

The key subroutine of the algorithm, denoted  $U_{\text{invert}}$ , is defined as follows:

1. Prepare  $|\Psi_0\rangle^C$  from  $|0\rangle$  up to error  $\epsilon_\Psi$ .
2. Apply the conditional Hamiltonian evolution  $\sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} |\tau\rangle\langle\tau|^C \otimes e^{iA\tau t_0/T}$  up to error  $\epsilon_H$ .
3. Apply the Fourier transform to the register  $C$ . Denote the resulting basis states with  $|k\rangle$ , for  $k = 0, \dots, T-1$ . Define  $\tilde{\lambda}_k := 2\pi k/t_0$ .
4. Adjoin a three-dimensional register  $S$  in the state

$$|h(\tilde{\lambda}_k)\rangle^S := \sqrt{1 - f(\tilde{\lambda}_k)^2 - g(\tilde{\lambda}_k)^2} |\text{nothing}\rangle^S + f(\tilde{\lambda}_k) |\text{well}\rangle^S + g(\tilde{\lambda}_k) |\text{ill}\rangle^S,$$

for functions  $f(\lambda), g(\lambda)$  defined below in (3). Here ‘nothing’ indicates that the desired matrix inversion hasn’t taken place, ‘well’ indicates that it has, and ‘ill’ means that part of  $|b\rangle$  is in the ill-conditioned subspace of  $A$ .

5. Reverse steps 1-3, uncomputing any garbage produced along the way.

The functions  $f(\lambda), g(\lambda)$  are known as filter functions [5], and are chosen so that for some constant  $C > 1$ :  $f(\lambda) = 1/C\kappa\lambda$  for  $\lambda \geq 1/\kappa$ ,  $g(\lambda) = 1/C$  for  $\lambda \leq 1/\kappa' := 1/2\kappa$  and  $f^2(\lambda) + g^2(\lambda) \leq 1$  for all  $\lambda$ . Additionally,  $f(\lambda)$  should satisfy a certain continuity property that we will describe in the next section. Otherwise the functions are arbitrary. One possible choice is

$$f(\lambda) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\kappa\lambda} & \text{when } \lambda \geq 1/\kappa \\ \frac{1}{2} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{\lambda - \frac{1}{\kappa'}}{\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{1}{\kappa'}}\right) & \text{when } \frac{1}{\kappa} > \lambda \geq \frac{1}{\kappa'} \\ 0 & \text{when } \frac{1}{\kappa'} > \lambda \end{cases} \quad (3a)$$

$$g(\lambda) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{when } \lambda \geq 1/\kappa \\ \frac{1}{2} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{\lambda - \frac{1}{\kappa'}}{\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{1}{\kappa'}}\right) & \text{when } \frac{1}{\kappa} > \lambda \geq \frac{1}{\kappa'} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{when } \frac{1}{\kappa'} > \lambda \end{cases} \quad (3b)$$

If  $U_{\text{invert}}$  is applied to  $|u_j\rangle$  it will, up to an error we will discuss below, adjoin the state  $|h(\lambda_j)\rangle$ . Instead if we apply  $U_{\text{invert}}$  to  $|b\rangle$  (i.e. a superposition of different  $|u_j\rangle$ ), measure  $S$  and obtain the outcome ‘well’, then we will have approximately applied an operator proportional to  $A^{-1}$ . Let  $\tilde{p}$  (computed in the next section) denote the success probability of this measurement. Rather than repeating  $1/\tilde{p}$  times, we will use amplitude amplification [6] to obtain the same results with  $O(1/\sqrt{\tilde{p}})$  repetitions. To describe the procedure, we introduce two new operators:

$$R_{\text{succ}} = I^S - 2|\text{well}\rangle\langle\text{well}|^S,$$

acting only on the  $S$  register and

$$R_{\text{init}} = I - 2|\text{initial}\rangle\langle\text{initial}|.$$

Our main algorithm then follows the amplitude amplification procedure: we start with  $U_{\text{invert}}B|\text{initial}\rangle$  and repeatedly apply  $U_{\text{invert}}BR_{\text{init}}B^\dagger U_{\text{invert}}^\dagger R_{\text{succ}}$ . Finally we measure  $S$  and stop when we obtain the result ‘well’. The number of repetitions would ideally be  $\pi/4\sqrt{\tilde{p}}$ , which in the next section we will show is  $O(\kappa)$ . While  $\tilde{p}$  is initially unknown, the procedure has a constant probability of success if the number of repetitions is a constant fraction of  $\pi/4\tilde{p}$ . Thus, following Ref. [6] we repeat the entire procedure with a geometrically increasing number of repetitions each time: 1, 2, 4, 8,  $\dots$ , until we have reached a power of two that is  $\geq \kappa$ . This yields a constant probability of success using  $\leq 4\kappa$  repetitions.

Putting everything together, the run-time is  $\tilde{O}(\kappa(T_B + t_0 s^2 \log(N)))$ , where the  $\tilde{O}$  suppresses the more-slowly growing terms of  $(\log^*(N))^2$ ,  $\exp(O(1/\sqrt{\log(t_0/\epsilon_H)}))$  and  $\text{poly log}(T/\epsilon_\Psi)$ . In the next section, we will show that  $t_0$  can be taken to be  $O(\kappa/\epsilon)$  so that the total run-time is  $\tilde{O}(\kappa T_B + \kappa^2 s^2 \log(N)/\epsilon)$ .

## B. Error Analysis

In this section we show that taking  $t_0 = O(\kappa/\epsilon)$  introduces an error of  $\leq \epsilon$  in the final state. The main subtlety in analyzing the error comes from the post-selection step, in which we choose only the part of the state attached to the  $|\text{well}\rangle$  register. This can potentially magnify errors in the overall state. On the other hand, we may also be interested

in the non-postselected state, which results from applying  $U_{\text{invert}}$  a single time to  $|b\rangle$ . For instance, this could be used to estimate the amount of weight of  $|b\rangle$  lying in the ill-conditioned components of  $A$ . Somewhat surprisingly, we show that the error in both cases is upper-bounded by  $O(\kappa/t_0)$ .

In this section, it will be convenient to ignore the error terms  $\epsilon_H$  and  $\epsilon_\Psi$ , as these can be made negligible with relatively little effort and it is the errors from phase estimation that will dominate. Let  $\tilde{U}$  denote a version of  $U_{\text{invert}}$  in which everything except the phase estimation is exact. Since  $\|\tilde{U} - U_{\text{invert}}\| \leq O(\epsilon_H + \epsilon_\Psi)$ , it is sufficient to work with  $\tilde{U}$ . Define  $U$  to be the ideal version of  $U_{\text{invert}}$  in which there is no error in any step.

**Theorem 1** (Error bounds).

1. In the case when no post-selection is performed, the error is bounded as

$$\|\tilde{U} - U\| \leq O(\kappa/t_0). \quad (4)$$

2. If we post-select on the flag register being in the space spanned by  $\{|well\rangle, |ill\rangle\}$  and define the normalized ideal state to be  $|x\rangle$  and our actual state to be  $|\tilde{x}\rangle$  then

$$\|\tilde{x} - x\| \leq O(\kappa/t_0). \quad (5)$$

3. If  $|b\rangle$  is entirely within the well-conditioned subspace of  $A$  and we post-select on the flag register being  $|well\rangle$  then

$$\|\tilde{x} - x\| \leq O(\kappa/t_0). \quad (6)$$

The third claim is often of the most practical interest, but the other two are useful if we want to work with the ill-conditioned space, or estimate its weight.

The rest of the section is devoted to the proof of Theorem 1. We first show that the third claim is a corollary of the second, and then prove the first two claims more or less independently. To prove (5 assuming (4), observe that if  $|b\rangle$  is entirely in the well-conditioned space, the ideal state  $|x\rangle$  is proportional to  $A^{-1}|b\rangle|well\rangle$ . Model the post-selection on  $|well\rangle$  by a post-selection first on the space spanned by  $\{|well\rangle, |ill\rangle\}$ , followed by a post-selection onto  $|well\rangle$ . By (4), the first post-selection leaves us with error  $O(\kappa/t_0)$ . This implies that the second post-selection will succeed with probability  $\geq 1 - O(\kappa^2/t_0^2)$  and therefore will increase the error by at most  $O(\kappa/t_0)$ . The final error is then  $O(\kappa/t_0)$  as claimed in (6).

Now we turn to the proof of (4). A crucial piece of the proof will be the following statement about the continuity of  $|h(\lambda)\rangle$ .

**Lemma 2.** *The map  $\lambda \mapsto |h(\lambda)\rangle$  is  $O(\kappa)$ -Lipschitz, meaning that for any  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ ,*

$$\| |h(\lambda_1)\rangle - |h(\lambda_2)\rangle \| = \sqrt{2(1 - \text{Re}\langle h(\lambda_1)|h(\lambda_2)\rangle)} \leq c\kappa|\lambda_1 - \lambda_2|,$$

for some  $c = O(1)$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\lambda \mapsto |h(\lambda)\rangle$  is continuous everywhere and differentiable everywhere except at  $1/\kappa$  and  $1/\kappa'$ , it suffices to bound the norm of the derivative of  $|h(\lambda)\rangle$ . We consider it piece by piece. When  $\lambda > 1/\kappa$ ,

$$\frac{d}{d\lambda} |h(\lambda)\rangle = \frac{1}{2\kappa^2\lambda^3\sqrt{1 - 1/2\kappa^2\lambda^2}} |\text{nothing}\rangle - \frac{1}{2\kappa\lambda^2} |well\rangle,$$

which has squared norm  $\frac{1}{2\kappa^2\lambda^4(2\kappa^2\lambda^2 - 1)} + \frac{1}{4\kappa^2\lambda^4} \leq \kappa^2$ . Next, when  $1/\kappa' < \lambda < 1/\kappa$ , the norm of  $\frac{d}{d\lambda} |h(\lambda)\rangle$  is

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{1}{\kappa'}} = \frac{\pi}{2}\kappa.$$

Finally  $\frac{d}{d\lambda} |h(\lambda)\rangle = 0$  when  $\lambda < 1/\kappa'$ . This completes the proof, with  $c = \frac{\pi}{2}$ .  $\square$

Now we return to the proof of (4). Let  $\tilde{P}$  denote the first three steps of the algorithm. They can be thought of as mapping the initial zero qubits to a  $|k\rangle$  register, together with some garbage, as follows:

$$\tilde{P} = \sum_{j=1}^n |u_j\rangle\langle u_j| \otimes \sum_k \alpha_{k|j} |k\rangle |\text{garbage}(j, k)\rangle |\text{initial}\rangle,$$

where the guarantee that the phase estimation algorithm gives us is that  $\alpha_{k|j}$  is concentrated around  $\lambda_j \approx 2\pi k/t_0 =: \tilde{\lambda}_k$ . Technically,  $\tilde{P}$  should be completed to make it a unitary operator by defining some arbitrary behavior on inputs other than  $|initial\rangle$  in the last register.

Consider a test state  $|b\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_j |u_j\rangle$ . The ideal functionality is defined by

$$|\varphi\rangle = U |b\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_j |u_j\rangle |h(\lambda_j)\rangle,$$

while the actual algorithm produces the state

$$|\tilde{\varphi}\rangle = \tilde{U} |b\rangle = \tilde{P}^\dagger \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_j |u_j\rangle \sum_k \alpha_{k|j} |k\rangle |h(\tilde{\lambda}_k)\rangle,$$

We wish to calculate  $\langle \tilde{\varphi} | \varphi \rangle$ , or equivalently the inner product between  $\tilde{P} |\tilde{\varphi}\rangle$  and  $\tilde{P} |\varphi\rangle = \sum_{j,k} \beta_j \alpha_{k|j} |u_j\rangle |k\rangle |h(\lambda_j)\rangle$ . This inner product is

$$\langle \tilde{\varphi} | \varphi \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^N |\beta_j|^2 \sum_k |\alpha_{k|j}|^2 \langle h(\tilde{\lambda}_k) | h(\lambda_j) \rangle := \mathbb{E}_j \mathbb{E}_k \langle h(\tilde{\lambda}_k) | h(\lambda_j) \rangle,$$

where we think of  $j$  and  $k$  as random variables with joint distribution  $\Pr(j, k) = |\beta_j|^2 |\alpha_{k|j}|^2$ . Thus

$$\text{Re} \langle \tilde{\varphi} | \varphi \rangle = \mathbb{E}_j \mathbb{E}_k \text{Re} \langle h(\tilde{\lambda}_k) | h(\lambda_j) \rangle.$$

Let  $\delta = \lambda_j t_0 - 2\pi k = t_0(\lambda_j - \tilde{\lambda}_k)$ . From Lemma 2,  $\text{Re} \langle h(\tilde{\lambda}_k) | h(\lambda_j) \rangle \geq 1 - c^2 \kappa^2 \delta^2 / 2t_0^2$ , where  $c \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  is a constant. There are two sources of infidelity. For  $\delta \leq 2\pi$ , the inner product is at least  $1 - 2\pi^2 c^2 \kappa^2 / t_0^2$ . For larger values of  $\delta$ , we use the bound  $|\alpha_{k|j}|^2 \leq 64\pi^2 / (\lambda_j t_0 - 2\pi k)^4$  (proved in Section B) to find an infidelity contribution that is

$$\leq 2 \sum_{k=\frac{\lambda_j t_0}{2\pi}+1}^{\infty} \frac{64\pi^2 c^2 \kappa^2 \delta^2}{\delta^4} \frac{1}{2t_0^2} = \frac{64\pi^2 c^2 \kappa^2}{t_0^2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4\pi^2 k^2} = \frac{8\pi^2 c^2}{3} \cdot \frac{\kappa^2}{t_0^2}.$$

Summarizing, we find that  $\text{Re} \langle \tilde{\varphi} | \varphi \rangle \geq 1 - 5\pi^2 c^2 \kappa^2 / t_0^2$ , which translates into  $\| |\tilde{\varphi}\rangle - |\varphi\rangle \| \leq 4\pi c \kappa / t_0 = 2\pi^2 \kappa / t_0$ . Since the initial state  $|b\rangle$  was arbitrary, this bounds the operator distance  $\|\tilde{U} - U\|$  as claimed in (4).

Turning now to the post-selected case, we observe that

$$|x\rangle := \frac{f(A) |b\rangle |well\rangle + g(A) |b\rangle |ill\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle b | (f(A)^2 + g(A)^2) | b \rangle}} \quad (7)$$

$$= \frac{\sum_j \beta_j |u_j\rangle (f(\lambda_j) |well\rangle + g(\lambda_j) |ill\rangle)}{\sqrt{\sum_j |\beta_j|^2 (f(\lambda_j)^2 + g(\lambda_j)^2)}} \quad (8)$$

$$=: \frac{\sum_j \beta_j |u_j\rangle (f(\lambda_j) |well\rangle + g(\lambda_j) |ill\rangle)}{\sqrt{p}}. \quad (9)$$

Where in the last step we have defined

$$p := \mathbb{E}_j [f(\lambda_j)^2 + g(\lambda_j)^2]$$

to be the probability that the post-selection succeeds. Naively, this post-selection could magnify the errors by as much as  $1/\sqrt{p}$ , but by careful examination of the errors, we find that this worst-case situation only occurs when the errors are small in the first place. This is what will allow us to obtain the same  $O(\kappa/t_0)$  error bound even in the post-selected state.

Now write the actual state that we produce as

$$|\tilde{x}\rangle := \frac{\tilde{P}^\dagger \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_j |u_j\rangle \sum_k \alpha_{k|j} |k\rangle (f(\tilde{\lambda}_k) |well\rangle + g(\tilde{\lambda}_k) |ill\rangle)}{\sqrt{\mathbb{E}_{j,k} f(\tilde{\lambda}_k)^2 + g(\tilde{\lambda}_k)^2}} \quad (10)$$

$$=: \frac{\tilde{P}^\dagger \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_j |u_j\rangle \sum_k \alpha_{k|j} |k\rangle (f(\tilde{\lambda}_k) |well\rangle + g(\tilde{\lambda}_k) |ill\rangle)}{\sqrt{\tilde{p}}}, \quad (11)$$

where we have defined  $\tilde{p} = \mathbb{E}_{j,k}[f(\tilde{\lambda}_k)^2 + g(\tilde{\lambda}_k)^2]$ .

Recall that  $j$  and  $k$  are random variables with joint distribution  $\Pr(j, k) = |\beta_j|^2 |\alpha_k|^2$ . We evaluate the contribution of a single  $j$  value. Define  $\lambda := \lambda_j$  and  $\tilde{\lambda} := 2\pi k/t_0$ . Note that  $\delta = t_0(\lambda - \tilde{\lambda})$  and that  $\mathbb{E}\delta, \mathbb{E}\delta^2 = O(1)$ . Here  $\delta$  depends implicitly on both  $j$  and  $k$ , and the above bounds on its expectations hold even when conditioning on an arbitrary value of  $j$ . We further abbreviate  $f := f(\lambda)$ ,  $\tilde{f} := \tilde{f}(\lambda)$ ,  $g := g(\lambda)$  and  $\tilde{g} = \tilde{g}(\lambda)$ . Thus  $p := \mathbb{E}[f^2 + g^2]$  and  $\tilde{p} = \mathbb{E}[\tilde{f}^2 + \tilde{g}^2]$ .

Our goal is to bound  $\| |x\rangle - |\tilde{x}\rangle \|$  in (5). We work instead with the fidelity

$$F := \langle \tilde{x} | x \rangle = \frac{\mathbb{E}[f\tilde{f} + g\tilde{g}]}{\sqrt{p\tilde{p}}} = \frac{\mathbb{E}[f^2 + g^2] + \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)f + (\tilde{g} - g)g]}{p\sqrt{1 + \frac{\tilde{p} - p}{p}}} \quad (12)$$

$$= \frac{1 + \frac{\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)f + (\tilde{g} - g)g]}{p}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{\tilde{p} - p}{p}}} \geq \left(1 + \frac{\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)f + (\tilde{g} - g)g]}{p}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\tilde{p} - p}{p}\right) \quad (13)$$

Next we expand

$$\tilde{p} - p = \mathbb{E}[\tilde{f}^2 - f^2] + \mathbb{E}[\tilde{g}^2 - g^2] \quad (14)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)(\tilde{f} + f)] + \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{g} - g)(\tilde{g} + g)] \quad (15)$$

$$= 2\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)f] + 2\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{g} - g)g] + \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)^2] + \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{g} - g)^2] \quad (16)$$

Substituting into (13), we find

$$F \geq 1 - \frac{\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)^2 + (\tilde{g} - g)^2]}{2p} - \frac{\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)f + (\tilde{g} - g)g]}{p} \cdot \frac{\tilde{p} - p}{2p} \quad (17)$$

We now need an analogue of the Lipschitz condition given in Lemma 2.

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $f, \tilde{f}, g, \tilde{g}$  be defined as above, with  $\kappa' = 2\kappa$ . Then*

$$|f - \tilde{f}|^2 + |g - \tilde{g}|^2 \leq c \frac{\kappa^2}{t_0^2} \delta^2 |f^2 + g^2|$$

where  $c = \pi^2/2$ .

*Proof.* Remember that  $\tilde{f} = f(\lambda - \delta/t_0)$  and similarly for  $\tilde{g}$ .

Consider the case first when  $\lambda \geq 1/\kappa$ . In this case  $g = 0$ , and we need to show that

$$|f - \tilde{f}| \leq 2 \frac{\kappa |\delta f|}{t_0} = \frac{|\lambda - \tilde{\lambda}|}{\lambda} \quad (18)$$

To prove this, we consider four cases. First, suppose  $\tilde{\lambda} \geq 1/\kappa$ . Then  $|f - \tilde{f}| = \frac{1}{2\kappa} \frac{|\tilde{\lambda} - \lambda|}{\tilde{\lambda} \cdot \lambda} \leq |\delta|/2t_0\lambda$ . Next, suppose  $\lambda = 1/\kappa$  (so  $f = 1/2$ ) and  $\tilde{\lambda} < 1/\kappa$ . Since  $\sin \frac{\pi}{2}\alpha \geq \alpha$  for  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ , we have

$$|f - \tilde{f}| \leq \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\tilde{\lambda} - \frac{1}{\kappa'}}{\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{1}{\kappa'}} = \frac{1}{2} - \kappa(\tilde{\lambda} - \frac{1}{2}) = \kappa(\frac{1}{\kappa} - \tilde{\lambda}), \quad (19)$$

and using  $\lambda = 1/\kappa$  we find that  $|f - \tilde{f}| = \frac{\lambda - \tilde{\lambda}}{\lambda}$ , as desired. Next, if  $\tilde{\lambda} < 1/\kappa < \lambda$  and  $f < \tilde{f}$  then replacing  $\lambda$  with  $1/\kappa$  only makes the inequality tighter. Finally, suppose  $\tilde{\lambda} < 1/\kappa < \lambda$  and  $\tilde{f} < f$ . Using (19) and  $\lambda > 1/\kappa$  we find that  $f - \tilde{f} \leq 1 - \kappa\tilde{\lambda} < 1 - \tilde{\lambda}/\lambda = (\lambda - \tilde{\lambda})/\lambda$ , as desired.

Now, suppose that  $\lambda < 1/\kappa$ . Then

$$|f - \tilde{f}|^2 \leq \frac{\delta^2}{t_0^2} \max |f'|^2 = \frac{\pi^2}{4} \frac{\delta^2}{t_0^2} \kappa^2.$$

And similarly

$$|g - \tilde{g}|^2 \leq \frac{\delta^2}{t_0^2} \max |g'|^2 = \frac{\pi^2}{4} \frac{\delta^2}{t_0^2} \kappa^2.$$

Finally  $f(\lambda)^2 + g(\lambda)^2 = 1/2$  for any  $\lambda \leq 1/\kappa$ , implying the result.  $\square$

Now we use Lemma 3 to bound the two error contributions in (13). First bound

$$\frac{\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)^2 + (\tilde{g} - g)^2]}{2p} \leq O\left(\frac{\kappa^2}{t_0^2}\right) \cdot \frac{\mathbb{E}[(f^2 + g^2)\delta^2]}{\mathbb{E}[f^2 + g^2]} \leq O\left(\frac{\kappa^2}{t_0^2}\right) \quad (20)$$

The first inequality used Lemma 3 and the second used the fact that  $\mathbb{E}[\delta^2] \leq O(1)$  even when conditioned on an arbitrary value of  $j$  (or equivalently  $\lambda_j$ ).

Next,

$$\frac{\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{f} - f)f + (\tilde{g} - g)g]}{p} \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[\sqrt{\left((\tilde{f} - f)^2 + (\tilde{g} - g)^2\right)(f^2 + g^2)}\right]}{p} \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[\sqrt{\frac{\delta^2 \kappa^2}{t_0^2}(f^2 + g^2)^2}\right]}{p} \leq O\left(\frac{\kappa}{t_0}\right), \quad (21)$$

where the first inequality is Cauchy-Schwartz, the second is Lemma 3 and the last uses the fact that  $\mathbb{E}[|\delta|] \leq \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[\delta^2]} = O(1)$  even when conditioned on  $j$ .

We now substitute (20) and (21) into (16) (and assume  $\kappa \leq t_0$ ) to find

$$\frac{|\tilde{p} - p|}{p} \leq O\left(\frac{\kappa}{t_0}\right). \quad (22)$$

Substituting (20), (21) and (22) into (17), we find  $\text{Re} \langle \tilde{x} | x \rangle \geq 1 - O(\kappa^2/t_0^2)$ , or equivalently, that  $\| |\tilde{x}\rangle - |x\rangle \| \leq \epsilon$ . This completes the proof of Theorem 1.  $\square$

### C. Phase estimation calculations

Here we describe, in our notation, the improved phase-estimation procedure of Ref. [7], and prove the concentration bounds on  $|\alpha_{k|j}|$ . Adjoin the state

$$|\Psi_0\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T}} \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} \sin \frac{\pi(\tau + \frac{1}{2})}{T} |\tau\rangle.$$

Apply the conditional Hamiltonian evolution  $\sum_{\tau} |\tau\rangle \langle \tau| \otimes e^{iA\tau t_0/T}$ . Assume the target state is  $|u_j\rangle$ , so this becomes simply the conditional phase  $\sum_{\tau} |\tau\rangle \langle \tau| e^{i\lambda_j t_0 \tau/T}$ . The resulting state is

$$|\Psi_{\lambda_j t_0}\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T}} \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} e^{\frac{i\lambda_j t_0 \tau}{T}} \sin \frac{\pi(\tau + \frac{1}{2})}{T} |\tau\rangle |u_j\rangle.$$

We now measure in the Fourier basis, and find that the inner product with  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} e^{\frac{2\pi i k \tau}{T}} |\tau\rangle |u_j\rangle$  is (defining  $\delta := \lambda_j t_0 - 2\pi k$ ):

$$\alpha_{k|j} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{T} \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} e^{i\frac{\tau}{T}(\lambda_j t_0 - 2\pi k)} \sin \frac{\pi(\tau + \frac{1}{2})}{T} \quad (23)$$

$$= \frac{1}{i\sqrt{2T}} \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} e^{i\frac{\tau\delta}{T}} \left( e^{\frac{i\pi(\tau+1/2)}{T}} - e^{-\frac{i\pi(\tau+1/2)}{T}} \right) \quad (24)$$

$$= \frac{1}{i\sqrt{2T}} \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} e^{\frac{i\pi}{2T}} e^{i\tau \frac{\delta+\pi}{T}} - e^{-\frac{i\pi}{2T}} e^{i\tau \frac{\delta-\pi}{T}} \quad (25)$$

$$= \frac{1}{i\sqrt{2T}} \left( e^{\frac{i\pi}{2T}} \frac{1 - e^{i\pi+i\delta}}{1 - e^{i\frac{\delta+\pi}{T}}} - e^{-\frac{i\pi}{2T}} \frac{1 - e^{i\pi+i\delta}}{1 - e^{i\frac{\delta-\pi}{T}}} \right) \quad (26)$$

$$= \frac{1 + e^{i\delta}}{i\sqrt{2T}} \left( \frac{e^{-i\delta/2T}}{e^{-\frac{i}{2T}(\delta+\pi)} - e^{\frac{i}{2T}(\delta+\pi)}} - \frac{e^{-i\delta/2T}}{e^{-\frac{i}{2T}(\delta-\pi)} - e^{\frac{i}{2T}(\delta-\pi)}} \right) \quad (27)$$

$$= \frac{(1 + e^{i\delta})e^{-i\delta/2T}}{i\sqrt{2T}} \left( \frac{1}{-2i \sin\left(\frac{\delta+\pi}{2T}\right)} - \frac{1}{-2i \sin\left(\frac{\delta-\pi}{2T}\right)} \right) \quad (28)$$

$$= -e^{i\frac{\delta}{2}(1-\frac{1}{T})} \frac{\sqrt{2} \cos\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)}{T} \left( \frac{1}{\sin\left(\frac{\delta+\pi}{2T}\right)} - \frac{1}{\sin\left(\frac{\delta-\pi}{2T}\right)} \right) \quad (29)$$

$$= -e^{i\frac{\delta}{2}(1-\frac{1}{T})} \frac{\sqrt{2} \cos\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)}{T} \cdot \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\delta-\pi}{2T}\right) - \sin\left(\frac{\delta+\pi}{2T}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\delta+\pi}{2T}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\delta-\pi}{2T}\right)} \quad (30)$$

$$= e^{i\frac{\delta}{2}(1-\frac{1}{T})} \frac{\sqrt{2} \cos\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)}{T} \cdot \frac{2 \cos\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2T}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\delta+\pi}{2T}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\delta-\pi}{2T}\right)} \quad (31)$$

Following Ref. [7], we make the assumption that  $2\pi \leq \delta \leq T/10$ . Further using  $\alpha - \alpha^3/6 \leq \sin \alpha \leq \alpha$  and ignoring phases we find that

$$|\alpha_{k|j}| \leq \frac{4\pi\sqrt{2}}{(\delta^2 - \pi^2)(1 - \frac{\delta^2 + \pi^2}{3T^2})} \leq \frac{8\pi}{\delta^2}. \quad (32)$$

Thus  $|\alpha_{k|j}|^2 \leq 64\pi^2/\delta^2$  whenever  $|k - \lambda_j t_0/2\pi| \geq 1$ .

#### D. The non-Hermitian case

Suppose  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times N}$  with  $M \leq N$ . Generically  $Ax = b$  is now underconstrained. Let the singular value decomposition of  $A$  be

$$A = \sum_{j=1}^M \lambda_j |u_j\rangle \langle v_j|,$$

with  $|u_j\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^M$ ,  $|v_j\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^N$  and  $\lambda_1 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_M \geq 0$ . Let  $V = \text{span}\{|v_1\rangle, \dots, |v_M\rangle\}$ . Define

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & A \\ A^\dagger & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (33)$$

$H$  is Hermitian with eigenvalues  $\pm\lambda_1, \dots, \pm\lambda_M$ , corresponding to eigenvectors  $|w_j^\pm\rangle := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle |u_j\rangle \pm |1\rangle |v_j\rangle)$ . It also has  $N - M$  zero eigenvalues, corresponding to the orthogonal complement of  $V$ .

To run our algorithm we use the input  $|0\rangle |b\rangle$ . If  $|b\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^M \beta_j |u_j\rangle$  then

$$|0\rangle |b\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^M \beta_j \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|w_j^+\rangle + |w_j^-\rangle)$$

and running the inversion algorithm yields a state proportional to

$$H^{-1} |0\rangle |b\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^M \beta_j \lambda_j^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|w_j^+\rangle - |w_j^-\rangle) = \sum_{j=1}^M \beta_j \lambda_j^{-1} |1\rangle |v_j\rangle.$$

Dropping the initial  $|1\rangle$ , this defines our solution  $|x\rangle$ . Note that our algorithm does not produce any component in  $V^\perp$ , although doing so would have also yielded valid solutions. In this sense, it could be said to be finding the  $|x\rangle$  that minimizes  $\langle x|x\rangle$  while solving  $A|x\rangle = |b\rangle$ .

On the other hand, if  $M \geq N$  then the problem is overconstrained. Let  $U = \text{span}\{|u_1\rangle, \dots, |u_N\rangle\}$ . The equation  $A|x\rangle = |b\rangle$  is satisfiable only if  $|b\rangle \in U$ . In this case, applying  $H$  to  $|0\rangle |b\rangle$  will return a valid solution. But if  $|b\rangle$  has some weight in  $U^\perp$ , then  $|0\rangle |b\rangle$  will have some weight in the zero eigenspace of  $H$ , which will be flagged as ill-conditioned by our algorithm. We might choose to ignore this part, in which case the algorithm will return an  $|x\rangle$  satisfying  $A|x\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^N |u_j\rangle \langle u_j| |b\rangle$ .

### E. Optimality

In this section, we explain in detail two important ways in which our algorithm is optimal up to polynomial factors. First, no classical algorithm can perform the same matrix inversion task; and second, our dependence on condition number and accuracy cannot be substantially improved.

We present two versions of our lower bounds; one based on complexity theory, and one based on oracles. We say that an algorithm solves matrix inversion if its input and output are

1. Input: An  $O(1)$ -sparse matrix  $A$  specified either via an oracle or via a  $\text{poly}(\log(N))$ -time algorithm that returns the nonzero elements in a row.
2. Output: A bit that equals one with probability  $\langle x|M|x\rangle \pm \epsilon$ , where  $M = |0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes I_{N/2}$  corresponds to measuring the first qubit and  $|x\rangle$  is a normalized state proportional to  $A^{-1}|b\rangle$  for  $|b\rangle = |0\rangle$ .

Further we demand that  $A$  is Hermitian and  $\kappa^{-1}I \leq A \leq I$ . We take  $\epsilon$  to be a fixed constant, such as  $1/100$ , and later deal with the dependency in  $\epsilon$ . If the algorithm works when  $A$  is specified by an oracle, we say that it is relativizing. Even though this is a very weak definition of inverting matrices, this task is still hard for classical computers.

**Theorem 4.** *1. If a quantum algorithm exists for matrix inversion running in time  $\kappa^{1-\delta} \cdot \text{poly} \log(N)$  for some  $\delta > 0$ , then **BQP=PSPACE**.*

*2. No relativizing quantum algorithm can run in time  $\kappa^{1-\delta} \cdot \text{poly} \log(N)$ .*

*3. If a classical algorithm exists for matrix inversion running in time  $\text{poly}(\kappa, \log(N))$ , then **BPP=BQP**.*

Given an  $n$ -qubit  $T$ -gate quantum computation, define a unitary gate  $U$  to be

$$U = \sum_{t=1}^T |t+1\rangle \langle t| \otimes U_t + |t+T+1\rangle \langle t+T| \otimes I + |t+2T+1 \bmod 3T\rangle \langle t+2T| \otimes U_{3T+1-t}^\dagger, \quad (34)$$

as in the main paper. Define

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I - Ue^{-\frac{1}{T}} \\ I - U^\dagger e^{-\frac{1}{T}} & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (35)$$

Note that  $A$  is Hermitian, has condition number  $\kappa \leq 2T$  and dimension  $N = 6T2^n$ . Solving the matrix inversion problem corresponding to  $A$  produces an  $\epsilon$ -approximation of the quantum computation corresponding to applying  $U_1, \dots, U_T$ , assuming we are allowed to make any two outcome measurement on the output state  $|x\rangle$ . Recall that

$$(I - Ue^{-\frac{1}{T}})^{-1} = \sum_{k \geq 0} U^k e^{-k/T}. \quad (36)$$



We define a measurement  $M_0$ , which outputs zero if the time register  $t$  is between  $T + 1$  and  $2T$ , and the original measurement's output was one. As  $\Pr(T + 1 \leq k \leq 2T) = e^{-2}/(1 + e^{-2} + e^{-4})$  and is independent of the result of the measurement  $M$ , we can estimate the expectation of  $M$  with accuracy  $\epsilon$  by iterating this procedure  $O(1/\epsilon^2)$  times.

In order to perform the simulation when measuring only the first qubit, define

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} I_{6T2^n} & 0 \\ 0 & I_{3T2^n} - Ue^{-\frac{1}{T}} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (37)$$

We now define  $\tilde{B}$  to be the matrix  $B$ , after we permuted the rows and columns such that if

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \tilde{B} \\ \tilde{B}^\dagger & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (38)$$

and  $C\vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{b} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , then measuring the first qubit of  $|y\rangle$  would correspond to perform  $M_0$  on  $|x\rangle$ . The condition number of  $C$  is equal to that of  $A$ , but the dimension is now  $N = 18T2^n$ .

Now suppose we could solve matrix inversion in time  $\kappa^{1-\delta}(\log(N)/\epsilon)^{c_1}$  for constants  $c_1 \geq 2, \delta > 0$ . Given a computation with  $T \leq 2^{2n}/18$ , let  $m = \frac{2}{\delta} \frac{\log(2n)}{\log(\log(n))}$  and  $\epsilon = 1/100m$ . For sufficiently large  $n$ ,  $\epsilon \geq 1/\log(n)$ . Then

$$\kappa^{1-\delta} \left( \frac{\log(N)}{\epsilon} \right)^{c_1} \leq (2T)^{1-\delta} \left( \frac{3n}{\epsilon} \right)^{c_1} \leq T^{1-\delta} c_2 (n \log(n))^{c_1},$$

where  $c_2 = 2^{1-\delta} 3^{c_1}$  is another constant.

We now have a recipe for simulating an  $n_i$ -qubit  $T_i$ -gate computation with  $n_{i+1} = n_i + \log(18T_i)$  qubits,  $T_{i+1} = T_i^{1-\delta} c_3 (n_i \log(n_i))^{c_1}$  gates and error  $\epsilon$ . Our strategy is to start with an  $n_0$ -qubit  $T_0$ -gate computation and iterate this simulation  $\ell \leq m$  times, ending with an  $n_\ell$ -qubit  $T_\ell$ -gate computation with error  $\leq m\epsilon \leq 1/100$ . We stop iterating either after  $m$  steps, or whenever  $T_{i+1} > T_i^{1-\delta/2}$ , whichever comes first. In the latter case, we set  $\ell$  equal to the first  $i$  for which  $T_{i+1} > T_i^{1-\delta/2}$ .

In the case where we iterated the reduction  $m$  times, we have  $T_i \leq T^{(1-\delta/2)^i} \leq 2^{(1-\delta/2)^i 2n_0}$ , implying that  $T_m \leq n_0$ . On the other hand, suppose we stop for some  $\ell < m$ . For each  $i < \ell$  we have  $T_{i+1} \leq T_i^{1-\delta/2}$ . Thus  $T_i \leq 2^{(1-\delta/2)^i 2n_0}$  for each  $i \leq \ell$ . This allows us to bound  $n_i = n_0 + \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \log(18T_j) = n_0 + 2n_0 \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} (1 - \delta/2)^j + i \log(18) \leq (\frac{4}{\delta} + 1) n_0 + m \log(18)$ . Defining yet another constant, this implies that  $T_{i+1} \leq T_i^{1-\delta} c_3 (n_0 \log(n_0))^{c_1}$ . Combining this with our stopping condition  $T_{\ell+1} > T_\ell^{1-\delta/2}$  we find that

$$T_\ell \leq (c_3 (n_0 \log(n_0))^{c_1})^{\frac{2}{\delta}} = \text{poly}(n_0).$$

Therefore, the runtime of the procedure is polynomial in  $n_0$  regardless of the reason we stopped iterating the procedure. The number of qubits used increases only linearly.

Recall that the TQBF (totally quantified Boolean formula satisfiability) problem is **PSPACE**-complete, meaning that any  $k$ -bit problem instance for any language in **PSPACE** can be reduced to a TQBF problem of length  $n = \text{poly}(k)$  (see Ref. [8] for more information). The formula can be solved in time  $T \leq 2^{2n}/18$ , by exhaustive enumeration over the variables. Thus a **PSPACE** computation can be solved in quantum polynomial time. This proves the first part of the theorem.

To incorporate oracles, note that our construction of  $U$  in (34) could simply replace some of the  $U_i$ 's with oracle queries. This preserves sparsity, although we need the rows of  $A$  to now be specified by oracle queries. We can now iterate the speedup in exactly the same manner. However, we conclude with the ability to solve the OR problem on  $2^n$  inputs in  $\text{poly}(n)$  time and queries. This, of course, is impossible [9], and so the purported relativizing quantum algorithm must also be impossible.

The proof of part 3 of Theorem 4 simply formulates a  $\text{poly}(n)$ -time,  $n$ -qubit quantum computation as a  $\kappa = \text{poly}(n)$ ,  $N = 2^n \cdot \text{poly}(n)$  matrix inversion problem and applies the classical algorithm which we have assumed exists.  $\square$

Theorem 4 established the universality of the matrix inversion algorithm. To extend the simulation to problems which are not decision problems, note that the algorithm actually supplies us with  $|x\rangle$  (up to some accuracy). For example, instead of measuring an observable  $M$ , we can measure  $|x\rangle$  in the computational basis, obtaining the result  $i$  with probability  $|\langle i|x\rangle|^2$ . This gives a way to simulate quantum computation by classical matrix inversion algorithms. In turn, this can be used to prove lower bounds on classical matrix inversion algorithms, where we assume that the classical algorithms output samples according to this distribution.

**Theorem 5.** *No relativizing classical matrix inversion algorithm can run in time  $N^\alpha 2^{\beta\kappa}$  unless  $3\alpha + 4\beta \geq 1/2$ .*

If we consider matrix inversion algorithms that work only on positive definite matrices, then the  $N^\alpha 2^{\beta\kappa}$  bound becomes  $N^\alpha 2^{\beta\sqrt{\kappa}}$ .

*Proof.* Recall Simon's problem [10], in which we are given  $f : \mathbb{Z}_2^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{2n}$  such that  $f(x) = f(y)$  iff  $x + y = a$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$  that we would like to find. It can be solved by running a  $3n$ -qubit  $2n + 1$ -gate quantum computation  $O(n)$  times and performing a  $\text{poly}(n)$  classical computation. The randomized classical lower bound is  $\Omega(2^{n/2})$  from birthday arguments.

Converting Simon's algorithm to a matrix  $A$  yields  $\kappa \approx 4n$  and  $N \approx 36n2^{3n}$ . The run-time is  $N^\alpha 2^{\beta\kappa} \approx 2^{(3\alpha+4\beta)n}$ .  $\text{poly}(n)$ . To avoid violating the oracle lower bound, we must have  $3\alpha + 4\beta \geq 1/2$ , as required.  $\square$

Next, we argue that the accuracy of algorithm cannot be substantially improved. Returning now to the problem of estimating  $\langle x | M | x \rangle$ , we recall that classical algorithms can approximate this to accuracy  $\epsilon$  in time  $O(N\kappa \text{poly}(\log(1/\epsilon)))$ . This  $\text{poly}(\log(1/\epsilon))$  dependence is because when writing the vectors  $|b\rangle$  and  $|x\rangle$  as bit strings means that adding an additional bit will double the accuracy. However, sampling-based algorithms such as ours cannot hope for a better than  $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$  dependence of the run-time on the error. Thus proving that our algorithm's error performance cannot be improved will require a slight redefinition of the problem.

Define the matrix inversion estimation problem as follows. Given  $A, b, M, \epsilon, \kappa, s$  with  $\|A\| \leq 1, \|A^{-1}\| \leq \kappa$ ,  $A$   $s$ -sparse and efficiently row-computable,  $|b\rangle = |0\rangle$  and  $M = |0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes I_{N/2}$ : output a number that is within  $\epsilon$  of  $\langle x | M | x \rangle$  with probability  $\geq 2/3$ , where  $|x\rangle$  is the unit vector proportional to  $A^{-1}|b\rangle$ .

The algorithm presented in our paper can be used to solve this problem with a small amount of overhead. By producing  $|x\rangle$  up to trace distance  $\epsilon/2$  in time  $\tilde{O}(\log(N)\kappa^2 s^2/\epsilon)$ , we can obtain a sample of a bit which equals one with probability  $\mu$  with  $|\mu - \langle x | M | x \rangle| \leq \epsilon/2$ . Since the variance of this bit is  $\leq 1/4$ , taking  $1/3\epsilon^2$  samples gives us a  $\geq 2/3$  probability of obtaining an estimate within  $\epsilon/2$  of  $\mu$ . Thus quantum computers can solve the matrix inversion estimation problem in time  $\tilde{O}(\log(N)\kappa^2 s^2/\epsilon^3)$ .

We can now show that the error dependence of our algorithm cannot be substantially improved.

**Theorem 6.** *1. If a quantum algorithm exists for the matrix inversion estimation problem running in time  $\text{poly}(\kappa, \log(N), \log(1/\epsilon))$  then  $\mathbf{BQP} = \mathbf{PP}$ .*

*2. No relativizing quantum algorithm for the matrix inversion estimation problem can run in time  $N^\alpha \text{poly}(\kappa)/\epsilon^\beta$  unless  $\alpha + \beta \geq 1$ .*

*Proof.* 1. A complete problem for the class  $\mathbf{PP}$  is to count the number of satisfying assignments to a SAT formula. Given such formula  $\phi$ , a quantum circuit can apply it on a superposition of all  $2^n$  assignments for variables, generating the state

$$\sum_{z_1, \dots, z_n \in \{0,1\}} |z_1, \dots, z_n\rangle |\phi(z_1, \dots, z_n)\rangle.$$

The probability of obtaining 1 when measuring the last qubit is equal to the number of satisfying truth assignments divided by  $2^n$ . A matrix inversion estimation procedure which runs in time  $\text{poly} \log(1/\epsilon)$  would enable us to estimate this probability to accuracy  $2^{-2n}$  in time  $\text{poly}(\log(2^{2n})) = \text{poly}(n)$ . This would imply that  $\mathbf{BQP} = \mathbf{PP}$  as required.

2. Now assume that  $\phi(z)$  is provided by the output of an oracle. Let  $C$  denote the number of  $z \in \{0, 1\}^n$  such that  $\phi(z) = 1$ . From Ref. [11], we know that determining the parity of  $C$  requires  $\Omega(2^n)$  queries to  $\phi$ . However, exactly determining  $C$  reduces to the matrix inversion estimation problem with  $N = 2^n$ ,  $\kappa = O(n^2)$  and  $\epsilon = 2^{-n-2}$ . By assumption we can solve this in time  $2^{(\alpha+\beta)n} \cdot \text{poly}(n)$ , implying that  $\alpha + \beta \geq 1$ .  $\square$

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