Quantum Computation of a Complex System: the Kicked Harper Model

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The simulation of complex quantum systems on a quantum computer is studied, taking the kicked Harper model as an example. This well-studied system has a rich variety of dynamical behavior depending on parameters, displays interesting phenomena such as fractal spectra, mixed phase space, dynamical localization, anomalous diffusion, or partial delocalization, and can describe electrons in a magnetic field. Three different quantum algorithms are presented and analyzed, enabling to simulate efficiently the evolution operator of this system with different precision using different resources. Depending on the parameters chosen, the system is near-integrable, localized, or partially delocalized. In each case we identify transport or spectral quantities which can be obtained more efficiently on a quantum computer than on a classical one. In most cases, a polynomial gain compared to classical algorithms is obtained, which can be quadratic or less depending on the parameter regime. We also present the effects of static imperfections on the quantities selected, and show that depending on the regime of parameters, very different behaviors are observed. Some quantities can be obtained reliably with moderate levels of imperfection, whereas others are exponentially sensitive to imperfection strength. In particular, the imperfection threshold for delocalization becomes exponentially small in the partially delocalized regime. Our results show that interesting behavior can be observed with as little as 7-8 qubits, and can be reliably measured in presence of moderate levels of internal imperfections.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In the past few years, the field of quantum information has attracted more and more attention in the scientific community. Among the most fascinating promises of this domain is the possibility of building a quantum computer. Such a quantum processor can use the superposition principle and the interferences of quantum mechanics to perform new types of algorithms which can be much more efficient than classical algorithms. Celebrated examples are Shor’s algorithm which factors large integers exponentially faster than any known classical algorithm, and Grover’s algorithm which searches unstructured lists quadratically faster than classical methods. Another type of quantum algorithms concerns the simulation of physical systems. Examples include many-body quantum systems, classical and quantum spin systems, classical dynamical systems. Algorithms implementing quantum maps are especially interesting, since the systems simulated have simple equations of motion but can display very complex behaviors. Their simplicity enables to simulate them with a small number of qubits. For example, it is possible to simulate efficiently the baker map (experimental implementation with the NMR technique has already been performed), the quantum kicked rotator, the sawtooth map, or the tent map. In such algorithms, it is important to determine which physical quantities can be obtained accurately through measurement on the quantum computer, and what is the total algorithmic complexity of the whole process. It is equally important to determine the effects of errors in the computation to assess the efficiency of the algorithm on a realistic quantum computer.

In the present paper, we will study in detail an important example of quantum map, namely the kicked Harper model. The Hamiltonian of this system has a simple form, yet displays many interesting physical features not present in quantum maps previously studied in this context, such as fractal spectra, stochastic web, anomalous diffusion, or coexistence of localized and delocalized states. It was introduced in the context of solid state physics (motion of electrons in presence of magnetic field), and has been the subject of many studies. Using this model as a test ground, we will present three different ways of simulating the quantum map on a quantum computer, two of them inspired by previous works, and compare their efficiency. We will then present examples of physical quantities which can be obtained on a quantum computer. It turns out that depending on the parameters of the system, at least polynomial speed-up compared to classical algorithms can be obtained for different quantities. Numerical simulations and analytical estimations will also evaluate the effects of imperfections in the quantum computer on the estimation of these quantities.

II. HARPER AND KICKED HARPER MODELS

The Harper model was introduced in 1955 to describe the motion of electrons in a two-dimensional lattice in presence of a magnetic field. Its Hamiltonian reads

$$H_0(I, \theta) = \cos(I) + \cos(\theta)$$ (1)
FIG. 1: Phase space of the classical kicked Harper model: $K = L \rightarrow 0$ (Harper model) (upper left), $K = L = 0.5$ (upper right), $K = L = 1.5$ (lower left), $K = L = 2.5$ (lower right) (10000 iterations of 256 classical orbits). One cell of size $2\pi \times 2\pi$ is shown, the phase space being periodic.

This Hamiltonian has been the subject of many studies (see for example [15, 16, 17, 18, 19]), but its dynamics is somewhat restricted by the fact that it describes an integrable system. A generalization of this model has been introduced some time ago; it is called the kicked Harper model:

$$H(I, \theta, t) = L \cos(I) + K \cos(\theta) \sum_m \delta(t - m),$$  

(2)

where $m$ runs through all integers values and $K, L$ are constants. This Hamiltonian reduces to (1) in the limit $K = L \rightarrow 0$, but has a more complex dynamics depending on the parameters. Its dynamics between two kicks can be integrated to yield the map:

$$\begin{align*}
\bar{I} &= I + K \sin \theta \\
\bar{\theta} &= \theta - L \sin I
\end{align*}$$  

(3)

As in the case of the kicked rotator, there is a classical periodicity in both $\theta$ and $I$. Thus the phase space is composed of cells of size $2\pi \times 2\pi$ where the same structures repeat themselves.

This map (3) has been related to the motion of electrons in a perpendicular magnetic and electric fields, and also to the problem of stochastic heating of a plasma in a magnetic field.

The quantization of (2) yields a periodic Hamiltonian which after integration over one period yields a unitary evolution operator acting on the wave function $\psi$

$$\tilde{\psi} = \hat{U}\psi = e^{-iL \cos(\hat{n})/\hbar} e^{-iK \cos(\hat{\theta})/\hbar} \psi,$$

(4)

where $\hat{n} = -iQ \partial/\partial \theta$ and $\psi(\theta + 2Q\pi) = \psi(\theta)$.

This system has been the subject of many studies in the past few years, which focused on localization properties [20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27], tunneling properties [28, 29], etc...

In the limit $K = L \rightarrow 0$ the system is classically integrable. For small $K, L$, chaos begins to appear around separatrices, and spreads over larger and larger phase space areas as $K, L$ increase (see Fig.1). In the regime of small $K, L$, classical transport from cell to cell is possible only in the very small chaotic zones around separatrices. For $K = L$, this network of thin chaotic zones surrounding large islands is called “stochastic web” (see Fig.2). For intermediate values of $K, L$, the phase space is mixed, with integrable islands separated by large chaotic zones. For larger $K, L$, classical chaos is present in most of the phase space (cf Fig.1), and a typical trajectory will diffuse through the system. The quantum dynamics is related to these classical properties, but shows some striking differences. In the limit $K = L \rightarrow 0$, the system is integrable, wave functions are concentrated around classical tori, but complexity manifests itself in the spectrum of the Hamiltonian, which is fractal (“Hofstadter butter-
different from what happens in the kicked rotator model, where usually all states are localized once classical chaos is present (see for example [11]) or in the Anderson transition (investigated in [20]) where the transition separates a regime where all eigenstates are localized from a regime where all are delocalized. In this regime of partial delocalization, an initial wave packet will spread, but a certain fraction of the total probability will remain localized. In addition, the diffusion of probability in momentum space has been shown numerically to be anomalous, with an exponent depending on the parameter values $[17, 22, 23]$. These properties are summarized by the phase diagram of Fig. 3. Different quantities can be obtained in these different regimes with the help of a quantum computer.

The phase space can be decomposed in cells of size $2\pi \times 2\pi$. Its global topology depends on boundary conditions. For a system of size $N_H$, if the phase space is closed with periodic boundary conditions, with respectively $Q$ and $P$ cells in the $\theta$ and $n$ directions, then $h = 2\pi P Q / N_H$. Therefore if one wants to keep $h$ constant, the product $P Q$ should be chosen such that $P Q / N_H$ is the closest rational to $h / (2\pi)$. For most of the results of this paper, the phase space will be a cylinder closed in the $\theta$ direction ($Q = 1$) and extended in the direction of momentum, and transport properties will be studied in the momentum direction, as in the kicked rotator. In this case $h / (2\pi)$ was set to $1 / (6 + 1 / ((\sqrt{5} - 1) / 2)) = (13 - \sqrt{5}) / 82$ as in [23] to avoid unwanted arithmetical effects. The choice of a constant $h$ implies that changing the number of qubits leads to increasing the size of phase space (number of cells) in the $n$ direction. Only for the study of the stochastic web present at small $K = L$ (subsection IV A) will the phase space be extended in both directions and its size (number of cells) fixed. In this case increasing the number of qubits leads to smaller and smaller $h$.

### III. SIMULATING THE TIME EVOLUTION: THREE POSSIBLE ALGORITHMS

The evolution operator (4) is composed of two transformations which are diagonal in respectively the momentum and position representations. This form is general for a family of kicked maps such as the kicked rotator, sawtooth map, and others. On a classical computer, the fastest way to implement such an evolution operator on a wave function of $N_H$ components is to use the Fast Fourier Transform algorithm to shift back and forth between the $n$ and $\theta$ representations, and to implement each operator by direct multiplication in the basis where it is diagonal. In this way, $O(N_H \log N_H)$ classical operations are needed to implement (4) on an $N_H$-dimensional vector. On a quantum computer, it is possible to use the Quantum Fourier Transform (QFT) to shift between momentum and position representations, using $O((\log N_H)^2)$ quantum gates. In each representa-
tion, one has then to implement the multiplication by a phase, $e^{-iL \cos(\theta)/\hbar}$ and $e^{-iK \cos(\theta)/\hbar}$.

In the following we will envision three different strategies to implement these diagonal operators:

- exact computation using additional registers to hold the values of the cosines
- decomposition into a sequence of simpler operators which are good approximations during short timeslices
- direct computation, the cosine function being approximated by a (Chebyshev) polynomial

The first one is in principle exact, but requires extra registers, and was already proposed in \[32\]. The second one has some similarities with the one explained in \[33\] for another system. The third one was not used in the context of quantum algorithms to the best of our knowledge, although the method is well known in computer science (see for example \[31\] for a recent use of this method to simulate many-spin systems on a classical computer). We note that an approximate algorithm to simulate the kicked Harper model on optical lattices was envisioned in \[33\].

In the following discussions, we note by $n_q$ the number of qubits including ancilla and workspace qubits, and $N = 2^n_q$ is the total dimension of the Hilbert space of the quantum computer. We note $n_r$ with $n_r \leq n_q$ the number of qubits describing the Hilbert space of the kicked Harper model (i.e. the wave function evolved through \[4\]) is $N_H$-dimensional with $N_H = 2^n_r$, and $n_g$ is the number of elementary quantum gates used for one iteration of the quantum map \[4\].

A. Exact algorithm

This approach is similar to the one taken in \[10\] for the quantum simulation of the kicked rotator. In each representation, the value of the cosines is built on a separate register, and then transferred to the phase of the wave function by appropriate gates.

If one starts with a $N_H$-dimensional wave function $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N_H-1} a_i |\theta_i\rangle$ in the $\theta$ representation, with $N_H = 2^n_r$, then the first step is to perform:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N_H-1} a_i |\theta_i\rangle|0\rangle \rightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{N_H-1} a_i |\theta_i\rangle \cos(\theta_i)$$

To this aim, the $2^{n_r}$ values $\cos(2\pi/2^j)$ and $\sin(2\pi/2^j)$, for $j = 1,\ldots,n_r$ are first precomputed classically with precision $2^{-n_r}$ for with example $n_p = 2n_r$ using a recursive method based on Moivre’s formula; then since $\theta_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n_r} \beta_{ij} 2\pi/2^j$ with $\beta_{ij} = 0$ or 1, one has:

$$\exp(i\theta_i) = \prod_{j=1}^{n_r} \exp(i\beta_{ij} 2\pi/2^j)$$

$$= \prod_{j=1}^{n_r} \left( \cos(\beta_{ij} 2\pi/2^j) + i \sin(\beta_{ij} 2\pi/2^j) \right)$$

This enables to compute $|\cos(\theta_i)\rangle$ for each $\theta_i$ in $n_r$ multiplications by $\exp(i2\pi/2^j)$ conditioned by the values of $\beta_{ij}$, needing in total $O(n_r^2)$ quantum gates.

Then once the binary decomposition of $\cos(\theta_i)$ is present on the second register, conditional application of the $n_r$ one-qubit gates \[ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \exp(-iK2^{-j}/\hbar) \end{pmatrix} \] yields the state:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N_H-1} a_i \exp(-iK \cos(\theta_i)/\hbar) |\theta_i\rangle |\cos(\theta_i)\rangle$$

Then the cosines in the last register are erased by running backward the sequence of gates that constructed them, and one ends up with the state $\sum_{i=0}^{N_H-1} a_i \exp(-iK \cos(\theta_i)/\hbar) |\theta_i\rangle |0\rangle$, which is the result of the action of the unitary operator $\exp(-iK \cos(\theta)/\hbar)$ on $|\psi\rangle$.

Then the use of the QFT which needs $O(n_r^2)$ quantum gates shifts the wave function to the momentum representation, and exactly the same technique as above enables to implement the operator $\exp(-iL \cos(\theta)/\hbar)$ in $O(n_r^2)$ quantum gates. A second QFT enables to go back to the $\theta$ representation.

The whole process implements one iteration of the evolution operator $\hat{U}$ in $O(n_r^2)$ operations, with exponential precision. This algorithm is therefore efficient, and precision can be increased exponentially at a cost of polynomial number of operations. On the other hand, the drawback of this approach is the need of several extra registers (one holding the values of the cosines, plus others for the workspace of the computation) and a relatively large number of gates. In the present status of experimental implementations of quantum computers, both the number of qubits and the number of gates that can be applied are very expensive resources. In the following, we will therefore expose two alternative strategies to implement $\hat{U}$, which are much more economical in the use of resources, but involve additional approximations.

B. Slice method

This technique enables to compute the operator $\hat{U}$ of \[4\] without explicitly calculating the cosines. It approximates $\hat{U}$ by a sequence of many operators, each of them
being easier to compute. It can be viewed as “slicing” the operator into elementary operators.

As above, we start with a $N_H$-dimensional wave function $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N_H-1} a_i |\theta_i\rangle$ in the $\theta$ representation, with $N_H = 2^{n_r}$. In general, suppose we want to perform the operator

$$U_k = e^{-ik\cos(p \theta)}$$

In the $\theta$ representation, this operator is diagonal, so we just have to multiply each state by the phase $e^{-ik\cos(p \theta)}$.

First, we write $\theta$ as

$$\theta = \frac{2\pi}{N_H} \sum_{i=0}^{n_r-1} d_i 2^i$$

(5)

where the $d_i$’s are the binary expansion of $\theta$ and $N_H = 2^{n_r}$. If $p = 2^m n$ with $m$ odd, then

$$p \theta = \frac{2\pi m}{N_H} \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n_r-1} d_i 2^{i+a} \right) \mod 2\pi$$

Thus $U_k$ is equivalent to applying

$$e^{-ik\cos(m \theta)}$$

on the $n_r - a$ first qubits. In the following, we will suppose that $p$ is odd ($a = 0$) for the sake of simplicity.

With the help of one ancilla qubit, let us perform the following sequence, where all gates are applied to the ancilla (initially set to $|0\rangle$), except for $C_U$ which is the operator $U$ applied on the principal register, controlled by the ancilla (the gate sequence is also displayed on Fig.4):

$$M(\alpha, U) = HC_U H e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}\sigma_z} H C_U - \beta H e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}\sigma_z} H C_U H$$

This product is equal to

$$M(\alpha, U) = \cos\left(\frac{\alpha}{2} U^2 + U^{-2}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\alpha}{2} U^2 - U^{-2}\right)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{i \alpha}{2} U + U^{-1} \frac{\sigma_z + O(\alpha^2)}{2}$$

If we take $U = e^{ip\theta}$

$$M(\alpha, U) = 1 + i \alpha \cos(p \theta) \sigma_z + O(\alpha^2)$$

since the ancilla qubit is in the $|0\rangle$ state,

$$M(\alpha, U) \approx e^{i\alpha \cos(p \theta)}$$

The kick operator can then be performed by $n_s \gg 1$ applications of $M(\alpha, U)$

$$U_k \approx M(\alpha, U)^{n_s}$$

with $\alpha = \frac{-k}{n_s}$

A more accurate expansion can be obtained by symmetrizing $M(\alpha, U)$

$$M(\alpha, U) = \left( \frac{\alpha}{2} U \right) \left( \frac{\alpha}{2} U^{-1} \right)$$

$$= 1 + i \alpha \frac{U + U^{-1}}{2} \sigma_z - \frac{\alpha^2}{2} \left( \frac{U + U^{-1}}{2} \right)^2 + O(\alpha^3)$$

Thus $U_k \approx M(\alpha, U)^{n_s}$ up to order 2 in $\alpha$.

In this way, once a certain precision has been fixed, $n_s$ can be chosen such that the error is small enough.

If we apply this strategy to the kicked Harper model, the method is therefore to first compute $\exp(-iK \cos(\theta)/\hbar)$ through the technique above ($k = K/\hbar$, $p = 1$), then use a QFT to shift to the momentum representation. In the $\alpha$ representation, the operator $\exp(-iL \cos(hi/\hbar))$ can be cast in the form above for $h = 2mn/N_H$, with $p \to m$, $k \to L/h$ and $\theta \to 2\pi n/N_H$.

The use of a QFT then shifts back the wave function to the $\theta$ representation.

The evolution of a $N_H$-dimensional wave function with $N_H = 2^{n_r}$ through one time-slice is efficient, costing $O(\log N_H)$ quantum operations. Indeed, for $n_s$ slices, one diagonal operator in (4) is implemented in $4 + 2(n_s - a) + (n_r - 1)(7 + 2(n_r - a))$ elementary gates, with $a \leq n_r$. The number of slices fixes the precision. If one requires a fixed precision, independent of the number of qubits, then the whole method is efficient, iterating $\tilde{U}$ in $O(\log(N_H)^2)$ operations (the most costly operation asymptotically being the QFT). However, if one requires the precision to increase with $N_H$, then the method becomes less efficient. This algorithm is quite economical in qubits, since to simulate a wave function on a Hilbert space of dimension $2^{n_r}$, only $n_q = n_r + 1$ qubits are needed. One should note that for large number of slices, their computation dominate the computation time although asymptotically the QFT dominates. In all numerical simulations we performed, the slice contribution was indeed dominant.

To precise the accuracy of the method, we show examples of the localization length in the localized regime as a function of number of gates in Fig.5. The convergence with increasing number of slices (gates) is clearly seen, although for small number of gates oscillations are present. Data from $n_r = 7, 8$ and $n_r = 9, 10$ are close to each other due to the structure of the algorithm: indeed, $h/(2\pi)$ is approximated by its closer approximants $m/N_H$, and incrementing $n_r$ by one changes every other time the value of $h$. No major modification is seen in the numerical data for increasing $n_r$, indicating that in this regime $n_s$ does not need to be drastically changed with $n_r$.

One may think that the spectrum is a much more sensitive quantity than the localization length. In Fig.6, we display the convergence for the spectrum of $\tilde{U}$ for $K$ and $L$ small, in a parameter regime close to the fractal “butterfly” visible for the unknicked Harper model (see Fig.1). The quantities displayed correspond to eigenphases $E_n$ where $\tilde{U}|\psi_n\rangle = \exp(iE_n)|\psi_n\rangle$ for some $|\psi_n\rangle$. The matrix
FIG. 4: Gate sequence for slices algorithm. \( R_z \) are \( Z \) rotations of angle \(-\alpha\).

![Gate sequence for slices algorithm.](image)

FIG. 5: Localization length computed with the slice method over exact localization length \( l_0 \) as a function of number of slices per iteration. Localization length is extracted after \( t = 1000 \) iterations. Initial state is \( |\psi_0\rangle = |0\rangle \), with \( K = 1, L = 5, \hbar/2\pi = (13 - \sqrt{5})/82 \) (actual value is the nearest fraction with denominator \( 2^{n_r} \) with \( n_r = n_q - 1 \)).

![Localization length computed with the slice method.](image)

FIG. 6: Eigenphases of (4) as a function of number of gates with the slice method: only 16 values are shown. Here \( n_r = 6 \) (\( n_q = n_r + 1 \)), \( \hbar = 2\pi/2^6 \), \( K = L = 10^{-3} \).

![Eigenphases of (4).](image)

C. Chebyshev polynomials

In this approach, one uses the QFT as in the preceding methods to shift back and forth between \( \theta \) and \( n \) representations. In each representation, the relevant operator is implemented by using a polynomial approximation of the cosines. Since polynomials can be implemented directly through controlled operations, this avoids the use of additional registers. A commonly used polynomial approximation rests on Chebyshev polynomials.

Chebyshev polynomials (see for example [34]) are defined by the recurrence relation:

\[
\begin{align*}
T_0(x) &= 1 \\
T_1(x) &= x \\
T_n(x) &= 2xT_{n-1}(x) - T_{n-2}(x) \text{ for } n \geq 2
\end{align*}
\]

They are bounded by \(-1\) and 1 on \([-1, 1]\), with their extrema smoothly distributed over this interval. If \( f(x) \)
is an arbitrary function on $[-1, 1]$, and we define for $j = 0, \ldots, M - 1$

$$c_j = \frac{2}{M} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} f \left[ \cos \left( \frac{\pi (k + \frac{1}{2})}{M} \right) \cos \left( \frac{\pi j (k + \frac{1}{2})}{M} \right) \right]$$

Then, for large $M$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{M-1} c_j T_j(x) - \frac{1}{2} c_0$$

is a very good approximation of $f(x)$ on $[-1, 1]$. If we truncate this formula to order $m$:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{m} c_j T_j(x) - \frac{1}{2} c_0$$

then the error is bounded by $\sum_{j=m+1}^{M-1} |c_k|$ and smoothly spread over $[-1, 1]$. Practically, the $c_k$'s are always rapidly decreasing, so the error term is dominated by $|c_{m+1}|$ and we can choose a small $m$ while still keeping a good polynomial approximation of $f(x)$.

Let $P(x)$ be a Chebyshev polynomial approximation of $\cos(\pi(x + 1))$. If one wants to perform the operator $U_k = e^{-ik\cos(\phi)}$ on a $N_H$-dimensional vector with $N_H = 2^n$, as in the preceding subsection, then for $p = 1$

$$U_k \approx e^{-ikP\left(\frac{\phi}{\pi} - 1\right)}$$

$U_k$ can be decomposed as a product of operators of the form $A_r(\beta) = e^{i\beta\theta_r}$.

From (III.3),

$$e^{i\beta\theta} = \prod_{j_1, \ldots, j_r} e^{i\beta \left( \frac{\pi}{N_H} \right)^r d_{j_1} \ldots d_{j_r} 2^{j_1 + \ldots + j_r}}$$

Since the $d_j$'s are binary digits, $d_{j_1} \ldots d_{j_r}$ is equal to zero unless all terms are equal to one. If we denote by $C_{j_1, \ldots, j_r}(\phi)$ the multi-controlled phase gate, which apply the phase $\exp(i\phi)$ conditionally on the control qubits $j_1 \ldots j_r$ (if an index is redundant, then it is counted only once),

$$A_r(\beta) = \prod_{j_1, \ldots, j_r} C_{j_1, \ldots, j_r} \left( \beta \left( \frac{2\pi}{N_H} \right)^r 2^{j_1 + \ldots + j_r} \right)$$

Since all these gates commute, and since all the gates used for the construction of $A_r$ are also present in the development of $A_{r'}$ for $r' \geq r$, then all the terms of the polynomial $P$ can be applied at the same time as the term of highest order by merging similar gates.

If $p \neq 1$, then $p$ is split into $p = 2^rm$ with $m$ odd, as in (III.B). The even part $2^r$ is dealt with by applying $U_k$ only on the $n_r - a$ first qubits. We then multiply the register by $m$ before applying the cosine kick. Since $m$ is co-prime with the dimension of the Hilbert space $N_H = 2^n$, this operation is unitary and can be performed without any additional qubit (for example with the circuit in Fig. (III.3)).

If we choose a Chebyshev polynomial approximation of degree $d$, then the complexity of the algorithm is $O(n_r d)$. This method is economical in qubits, and the precision of the approximation is easy to control. On the other hand, the complexity increases with the precision, and this can become prohibitive for very precise simulations. It is nevertheless quite efficient for fixed precision computations, as can be inferred from the fact that it is actually the method used in classical computers to evaluate functions.

In our numerical simulations, we found that a Chebyshev polynomial of degree 6 was enough to get a very good approximation of the wave function. This demands a much larger number of gates than the slice method, and scales badly with $n_r$, in $n_r^6$ (here $n_0 = n_r$ since there are no ancilla or workspace qubit). However, some of the control-phase gates have very small phases and are physically irrelevant. We can then choose a precision threshold and simply drop all the gates with phases below this threshold. The distribution of the phases of the gates computing the Chebyshev approximant of degree 6 is displayed in the inset of Fig. (III.3).

This method of approximation is investigated in Fig. (III.3). The localization length as a function of number of gates is displayed in Fig. (III.3) for the same system parameters as in Fig. (III.3). In Fig. (III.3) we display the convergence for the spectrum, in the same regime as in Fig. (III.3).

In both cases, the convergence is good for maximal number of gates, showing that the polynomial of degree 6 is indeed a good enough approximation in this regime.

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc}
\hline
&M_3&M_2&M_1&M_0 \\
\hline
M_3&+&+&+&+ \\
M_2&+&+&+&+ \\
M_1&+&+&+&+ \\
M_0&+&+&+&+ \\
\hline
\end{array}$$

FIG. 7: Circuit for multiplying the quantum register $\theta$ (simple lines) by an odd classical number $m$ (double lines)
FIG. 8: Localization length computed with the Chebyshev method over exact localization length $l_0$ as a function of number of gates. System parameters are the same as in Fig.5, with $n_r = 7$ (dashed line), $n_r = 8$ (dotted line), $n_r = 9$ (full line) ($n_q = n_r$). Dashed horizontal line is $l = l_0$. Chebyshev polynomial of degree 6 is taken, keeping gates with the largest phases. Inset: number of gates as a function of their phase. Logarithms are decimal.

of parameters. A good accuracy is achieved for a lower number of gates, implying that dropping the gates with the smallest phases can be an effective way to shorten the computation keeping a reasonable accuracy. Still, the data presented lead to the conclusion that even with the elimination of a large number of gates the method is clearly costlier in running time than the slice method to achieve similar precision.

IV. TRANSPORT PROPERTIES: MEASUREMENT AND IMPERFECTION EFFECTS

The three methods exposed above enable to simulate efficiently the effects of the evolution operator $\hat{U}$ of the kicked Harper model on a wave function. This produces the wave function at a given time. An important question concerns which quantities can be obtained through quantum measurement of the registers, and if the whole process including measurement is more efficient than classical computation. A separate question but also related to practical efficiency of these algorithms is their stability with respect to errors and imperfections while running them on a realistic quantum computer.

In this section, we will focus on the transport properties of the wave function. We recall that for the kicked Harper model, for small $K, L$ diffusion can only takes place on the small chaotic layer of the stochastic web. Then for larger $K, L$ there is a regime of parameters where all eigenstates are localized, and another regime where localized and delocalized eigenstates coexist (see Fig.3). In these different parameter regimes, we will show that quantities measuring localization properties and diffusion can be obtained on a quantum computer more efficiently than on a classical device, although the gain is usually polynomial. We will then test the resilience to errors of these quantities obtained through the quantum algorithms, in particular through large-scale numerical computations. The error model we chose corresponds to static internal imperfections. Indeed, physical realization of a quantum computer will never be perfect, and some amount of disorder will always be present. In particular, interactions between qubits, which are needed to build the two-qubit gates, cannot in general be totally eliminated when they are not needed. These static imperfections are not linked to interaction with the outside world; they have been shown to give important effects, which can be larger than the effects of noisy gates [12, 35, 36]. To model such errors, between each gate we require that the system evolves through the Hamiltonian

$$H_1 = \sum_i (\Delta_0 + \delta_i) \sigma_i^z + \sum_i J_i \sigma_i^x \sigma_{i+1}^x,$$

where the $\sigma_i$ are the Pauli matrices for the qubit $i$ and the second sum runs over nearest-neighbor qubit pairs on a circular chain. The energy spacing between the two states of a qubit is represented by its average value $\Delta_0$ plus a detuning $\delta_i$ randomly and uniformly distributed in the interval $[-\delta/2, \delta/2]$. The detuning parameter $\delta$ gives the width of the distribution near the average value $\Delta_0$ and may vary from 0 to $\Delta_0$. The couplings $J_i$ repre-
sent the residual static interaction between qubits and is chosen randomly and uniformly distributed in the interval $[-J/2, J/2]$. We make the approximation that this Hamiltonian $\hat{H}$ acts during a time $\tau_0$ between each gate which is taken as instantaneous. Throughout the paper, we take in general one single rescaled parameter $\varepsilon$ which describes the amplitude of these static errors, with $\varepsilon = \delta \tau_0 = J \tau_0$. To probe the transport properties of the kicked Harper model on a quantum computer, we chose to set $\hbar$ constant; in this way, changing the number of qubits is equivalent to changing the size of phase space (adding one qubit doubles the size of the phase space). The only exception is in the first following subsection (near-integrable regime), where the phase space volume is constant and $\hbar$ varies with the number of qubits. Throughout this section, effects of imperfections will be assessed using the slice method to implement $\hat{H}$. Therefore the presence of one ancilla qubit implies that $n_q = n_r + 1$ in all of this section.

### A. Near-integrable regime: stochastic web

For $K, L$ very small, the classical system is near-integrable: quantum transport is dominated by the presence of invariant curves. Motion from cell to cell can take place only by tunneling effect, or by moving in the small chaotic zone around separatrices. In the case $K = L$, this small layer forms a “stochastic web” (see Fig.2) which extends in both $\theta$ and $n$ directions. A wave packet started in this region will slowly diffuse along this web. This process is best seen using quantum phase space distributions, which allow direct comparisons between classical distributions such as the ones in Fig.1-2 and quantum wave functions.

The Wigner function [37, 38] is an example of such quantum phase space distribution. However, it can take negative values, and only a smoothing over cells of area $\hbar$ gives non negative values. The use of a gaussian smoothing leads to the Husimi distribution (see e.g. [39]) which gives non negative values, and only a smoothing over cells of area $\hbar$. The Husimi function, from zero (blue/black) to maximal value (red/white). Compare with the classical diffusion in Fig.4.

![FIG. 10: (Color online) Example of Husimi distribution of a wave packet spreading on the stochastic web; here $K = L = 0.5$, $\hbar = 2\pi \times 64/2^{n_r}$ ($8 \times 8$ cells), initial state is a gaussian wave packet of area $\hbar$ started half a cell above the center of the figure, after 100 iterations using $2 \times 40$ slices per iteration. Left: $\varepsilon = 0$ and from top to bottom $n_r = 14$, $n_r = 11$, $n_r = 8$ ($n_q = n_r + 1$); right: $n_r = 14$ and from top to bottom $\varepsilon = 10^{-4}$, $\varepsilon = 10^{-5}$, $\varepsilon = 10^{-4}$. Color/grayness is related to amplitude of the Husimi function, from zero (blue/black) to maximal value (red/white). Compare with the classical diffusion in Fig.4.](image)

The Wigner function [37, 38] is an example of such quantum phase space distribution. However, it can take negative values, and only a smoothing over cells of area $\hbar$ gives non negative values. The use of a gaussian smoothing leads to the Husimi distribution (see e.g. [39]) which in our case is defined by the formula:

$$h(\theta, n) = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{Q N_H}} \left| \sum_{m=n-N_H/2+1}^{n+N_H/2} \psi(m) e^{-\frac{\pi^2}{N_H} (m-n)^2} e^{2i\pi \frac{m \theta}{N_H}} \right|^2$$

(7)

where the gaussian for simplicity is truncated for values larger than $N_H/2$, $\psi(m)$ is the wave function in momentum representation, $P$ (resp. $Q$) is the number of cells in the momentum (resp. position) direction, $N_H = 2^{n_r}$ is the dimension of the Hilbert space, and $\Theta = N_H \theta/(2\pi Q)$. We note that methods to compute phase space distributions on a quantum computer were discussed in [33, 32, 34].

In Fig.10 we show the spreading of a wave packet along the stochastic web for different numbers of qubits and different strengths of imperfections. In this picture, the size of the classical phase space is fixed, and the number of qubits gives the value of $\hbar$. A diffusion process is observed, which can be related both to the classical diffusion on the stochastic web (Fig.3) and to the effect of quantum tunneling from cells to cells. The diffusion constant is seen from Fig.10 to depend on $\hbar$; it also depends on $K, L$ (data not shown) and is clearly different from the classical diffusion constant (compare the different times in Fig.3 and Fig.4). In this near-integrable regime, the tunneling process is quite complicated and was recently studied in [29]. In the same figure, one can see that with moderate levels of imperfections the exact
Husimi distribution is well reproduced by the algorithm.

To probe transport properties in this regime, one can start a wave packet in the stochastic web and let it evolve. After a certain number of time steps, the diffusion constant can be obtained from measurement of the wave function. As the number of components of the wave function or of the Husimi distribution becomes exponentially large as \( n_r \) increases, the best way is to use coarse-grained measurements: measuring only the first qubits adds up the amplitudes squared of many neighboring components and limits the number of measurements to a fixed value. This can be done to the wave function directly in the momentum or position representation, or to the Husimi function provided all the values are kept on a quantum register. For example, the Husimi-like function developed in [13] can be obtained by modified Fourier transform from the wave-function, and allows the use of coarse-grained measurements. If one starts a wave packet on the stochastic web, it will diffuse according to the law \( \langle s(t)^2 \rangle \approx D_s t \), with \( s \) being a distance in phase space and \( D_s \) the diffusion constant. Performing time evolution up to a time \( t^* \) requires \( t^* \) quantum operations multiplied by logarithmic factors. At this stage, a fixed number of coarse-grained measurements is enough to give an approximation of \( D_s \). On a classical computer, one can truncate the Hilbert space up to the maximal dimension effectively used in the calculation, which is of the order \( \sqrt{t^*} \). Propagating the wave packet will cost \( t^* \sqrt{t^*} \) classical operations, after which \( D_s \) can be obtained. Therefore the quantum computation is polynomially faster than the classical one. Methods which use an ancilla qubit to measure the value of phase space distributions at a given point such as the ones in [2, 11] will necessitate extra measurements since they cannot be used to perform coarse-grained measurements efficiently. Still, by reducing \( K, L \) as \( n_r \) is increased, one can keep the number of large components of the Husimi function of the wave packet of order \( N_H \) (instead of \( N_H^2 \)). In this case, the Husimi function measured on the ancilla qubit of [22] is efficiently measurable. This is formally an exponential gain over direct classical simulation since measuring one component of the Husimi distribution at a fixed time will be logarithmic in \( N_H \). The same happens for coarse-grained measurements at fixed \( t \). Still, as \( \hbar \) goes to exponentially small values the dynamics for fixed \( t \) will become very close to the classical one, so it is unclear which new information can be gained this way.

To clarify the stability of these algorithms with respect to errors, in Fig.11 we show quantitatively the effects of imperfections on the Husimi distributions for a wave packet spreading on the stochastic web for various numbers of qubits and imperfection strengths. We computed the time scale \( t_0 \) for various parameter values, \( t_0 \) being the time (number of iterations) for which the error on the Husimi functions is half the mean value of that function on the stochastic web.

The numerical data suggest the law

\[
t_0 \approx C_0/(\varepsilon^\alpha n_q^\beta)
\]

(8)

with \( \alpha = 1.02 \pm 0.02 \) (compatible with \( \alpha = 1 \)) and \( \beta = 1.23 \pm 0.09 \) with \( C_0 \approx 0.007 \). This law is polynomial in both \( \varepsilon \) and \( n_q \), which indicates that even though individual values of the Husimi function can be exponentially small, the effect of imperfections remains small compared to these individual values for a polynomial time. This means that such quantities can be reliably obtained in presence of moderate levels of imperfections. More work is needed to understand the precise origin of the law (8). We note that in [11] where random noise in the quantum gates were used as main source of errors a similarly polynomial (but different) law was found for the relative error on the Husimi function.

B. Localized regime

When \( K \) is large enough for the chaotic zone to take most of the classical phase space, a classical particle will propagate diffusely in phase space. In contrast, for moderate values of the parameter \( K \), all the eigenstates of the evolution operator \( U \) of (4) are localized (see Fig.3).
This localization is a purely quantum phenomenon due to interference effects and similar to the Anderson localization of electrons in solids. In this parameter regime, an initial wave packet will have projections on only a small number of exponentially localized eigenstates. Thus after a few iterations of the map, the wave packet will stop spreading and stay in a region of momentum space of size given by the localization length. An example of such a wave function is shown in Fig. 12.

In this regime, it is possible to measure the localization length \( l \) efficiently. Indeed, most of the probability is concentrated in a domain of size \( l \). If one performs a coarse grained measurement of the wave function, i.e. only the most significant qubits are measured, the number of measurements will set the precision in units of \( l \). Thus once the desired relative precision is fixed, the number of measurements will set the precision in units of \( l \). This gives a polynomial improvement for the quantum computer, once the precision is set the three algorithms above need only a logarithmic number of gates to perform one iteration, so the total number of gates is \( \sim l^2 \). This gives a polynomial improvement for the quantum algorithm. It is known that in the delocalized phase, the wave packet can spread ballistically for some regimes of parameter. If this extends to short times and to the localized regime, then the gain becomes quadratic.

In Fig. 12, an example of a localized wave function is shown for different imperfection strengths. At \( \varepsilon = 0 \), the exponential localization is clearly visible, the exponential decay being leveled off at very small values (\( \approx 10^{-30} \)) only by numerical roundoff. For larger values of \( \varepsilon \), the localized peak is still visible with the correct amplitude, but a larger and larger background is visible, until the peak disappears.

To analyze in a more precise way the effects of imperfections, we have to specify the observable that is used to get the localization length. On a classical computer, different data analysis can be used to calculate the localization length from knowledge of the wave function. A first way consists in extracting the second moment of the wave function \( \langle \Delta n \rangle^2 \), which gives an estimate of \( l \) once the saturation regime is reached. One can also compute the inverse participation ratio (IPR) \( \xi = 1/\Sigma_n |\psi(n)|^4 \). For a wave function uniformly spread over \( M \) states this quantity is equal to \( M \), and therefore it also gives an estimate of the localization length. At last, \( l \) can be measured directly by fitting an exponential function around maximal values of \( \psi \).

For an exact wave function, all three quantities give similar results. On a quantum computer, they may have very different behavior with respect to imperfection.
strength. Indeed, it was shown in general \cite{11,41} that the second moment is exponentially sensitive to the number of qubits in presence of imperfections, making it a poor way to get information about transport properties. The IPR was shown \cite{11} to be polynomially sensitive to both number of qubits and imperfection strength. Still, the IPR may be difficult to measure directly on a quantum computer. On the other hand, the direct measurement of \( n \) may be difficult to measure directly on a quantum computer.

In Fig.13, the time evolution of the IPR is shown for different values of the imperfection strength. For \( \varepsilon = 0 \), the wave packet first spreads for \( t < t^* \) then the IPR becomes approximately constant and close to the localization length. For larger values of \( \varepsilon \), the wave packet spreads to much larger parts of phase space, but the IPR still saturates after some time to a value which depends on \( \varepsilon \) and \( n_q \).

The average value of this saturation value is shown in Fig.14 as a function of \( \varepsilon \) for different values of \( n_q \). Fig.14 shows the localization length obtained from curve-fitting for the same wave functions. For large enough values of \( \varepsilon \), the IPR grows very quickly, in a manner which seems exponentially dependent on \( n_q \). The result of the curve-fitting strategy is roughly similar, but shows an intermediate regime (\( \varepsilon \approx 10^{-4} \) for our data) where it is still reasonably close to the exact value while the IPR is already quite far off. This can be understood qualitatively from the data shown on Fig.14. Indeed, the effect of moderate static imperfections is to create a larger and larger background over which the localization peak is superimposed. The IPR is sensitive to the presence of this background, while by its very definition the curve-fitting strategy isolates the localization peak from the background and is therefore more robust. The data presented in Fig.15 show that this peak keeps its shape with relatively good accuracy until its final disappearance, even though a large chunk of its amplitude has been transferred elsewhere by imperfections. The inset of Fig.14 shows the fidelity of the same wave functions. \( f(t) = |\langle \psi(t)|\psi_a(t) \rangle|^2 \) where \( |\psi(t)\rangle \) is the exact wave function and \( |\psi_a(t)\rangle \) the one in presence of imperfections). It is interesting to note that the localization length and IPR can be quite well reproduced even for values of \( \varepsilon \) where the fidelity is already quite low.

A more precise analysis can be developed from the effect of imperfections on the eigenstates of the unperturbed evolution operator \( \hat{U} \) in (4). These eigenstates \( |\psi_a\rangle \) can be written as a sum over momentum states \( |m\rangle \), which coincide with quantum register states of the quantum computer when the system is in momentum representation:

\[
|\psi_a\rangle = \sum_{m=1}^{N_\mu} c_m^a|m\rangle
\]  

(9)

In the localized regime, the eigenstates \( |\psi_a\rangle \) are localized with localization length \( l \), therefore the \( c_m^a \) are significant only for \( \sim l \) values of \( m \), with average value

\[
\text{FIG. 14:} \text{ IPR as a function of imperfection strength in the localized regime. Parameters values are the same as in Fig.13 with } n_q = 7 \text{ (full line), } n_q = 8 \text{ (dotted line), } n_q = 9 \text{ (dashed line), } n_q = 10 \text{ (long dashed line) } (n_q = n_q + 1). \text{ Averages were made over up to 10 realizations of disorder. Inset: Fidelity as a function of imperfection strength in the localized regime, with same parameter values and line codes as in the main figure. Logarithms are decimal.}
\]

\[
\text{FIG. 15:} \text{ Localization length as a function of imperfection strength in the localized regime. Parameters values are the same as in Fig.13 with averages made over up to 10 realizations of disorder. Logarithm is decimal.}
\]
1/\sqrt{t}$. Using perturbation theory, one can estimate the typical matrix element of the imperfection Hamiltonian $\hat{H}$ between eigenstates. For the first term of $\hat{H}$, this gives:

$$V_{\text{typ}} \sim \left| \langle \psi_b | \sum_{i=1}^{n_g} \delta_i \sigma_i^z \tau r \psi_a \rangle \right|$$

$$\sim \tau r \sum_{m,n=1}^{N_H} \epsilon_{m} \epsilon_{n}^{*} \langle n | \sum_{i=1}^{n_g} \delta_i \sigma_i^z | m \rangle$$

(10)

where $N_H = 2^{n_r}$ is the dimension of Hilbert space on which $\hat{U}$ acts, $\tau$ is the time for one gate, and the term due to $\Delta_0$ in $\hat{H}$ is not taken into account since it can be eliminated easily. This estimate (10) is an approximation, since the action of $\hat{H}$ is separated from the action of $\hat{U}$ and in reality they are intertwined and do not commute. In (10), only $\sim \ell$ neighboring quantum register states are coupled through $n_g$ terms of different detuning $\delta_i$ (with random sign). This term therefore gives on average $c n_g \sqrt{n_q} / \sqrt{\ell}$. The second term of (11) in the same approximation will be the sum of $n_g$ terms, each coupling one state $|m\rangle$ with another state differing by two neighboring qubits $|n\rangle = |m + r\rangle$. So a state $|\psi_a\rangle$ is coupled significantly only to states $|\psi_b\rangle$ localized at a distance $r$ in momentum from $|\psi_a\rangle$. Therefore the same estimate applies, and overall one can estimate $V_{\text{typ}} \sim \varepsilon n_g \sqrt{n_q} / \sqrt{\ell}$.

One can suppose that the IPR will become large when perturbation theory breaks down. This happens when $V_{\text{typ}}$ is comparable to the distance between directly coupled states $\Delta_c$. From the arguments above, one expects that one state is coupled to $\sim \ell$ states so that this distance is $\Delta_c \sim 1/\ell$. The threshold when IPR or localization length becomes large is therefore $V_{\text{typ}} \sim \Delta_c$ which corresponds to:

$$\varepsilon_c \approx C_1 / (n_g \sqrt{n_q} \sqrt{\ell})$$

(11)

where $C_1$ is a numerical constant and $n_g$ is number of gates per iteration, $n_q$ number of qubits, $\ell$ the localization length. Fig. 16 is compatible with this scaling, with $C_1/\sqrt{\ell} \approx 0.3$. We note that this threshold is similar to the threshold for the transition to quantum chaos presented for a quantum computer not running an algorithm in [35].

When perturbation theory breaks down, it is usually expected from earlier works on quantum many-body physics [35, 42] that the system enters a Breit-Wigner regime where the local density of states is a Lorentzian of half-width $\Gamma \approx 2\pi |V_{\text{typ}}|^2 / \Delta_c$ according to the Fermi golden rule. This implies that the IPR grows like $\Gamma / \Delta_n \sim \varepsilon^2 n_q n_g N$, where $\Delta_n \sim 1/N_H \sim 1/N$ is the mean level spacing ($N = 2N_H$ since there is an ancilla qubit). This is not confirmed by the data shown on Fig. 17 which suggest that the IPR scales like $\varepsilon$. This indicates that in our system we are in a regime different from the golden-rule (Breit-Wigner) regime.

Such a regime is present for large perturbation strength in many-body systems. It is indeed known that for large enough values of the couplings, the system leaves the golden rule regime and enters a new regime where the local density of states is a gaussian of width given by the variance $\sigma$. The variance can be approximated by $\sigma^2 \sim \sum_{\ell \neq n} V_{\text{typ}}^2 \sim \varepsilon^2 n_q n_g$. In this regime the IPR is given by $\sigma / \Delta_n \sim \varepsilon n_g \sqrt{n_q} N$, which is consistent with

FIG. 16: Critical value of $\varepsilon$ (error strength) as a function of parameters for $K = 2, L = 27$, with other parameter values the same as in Fig. 13. $\varepsilon_c$ is defined by the saturation value of IPR twice the unperturbed value. Averages were made with up to 10 realizations of disorder. Solid line is the formula (11). Logarithms are decimal.

FIG. 17: IPR as a function of $\varepsilon$. Parameters values are the same as in Fig. 16. Solid lines correspond to the dependence $\xi \propto \varepsilon$. Logarithms are decimal.
data from Fig.14 and Fig.17. This regime is known to supersede the golden rule regime for $\Gamma > \sigma$, which should therefore be the case for our system. This implies that the relevant time scale for the system to remain close to the exact one is $1/\sigma$. For the largest values of $n_q$, the data in Fig.17 show some departure from this law, which may be due simply to statistical fluctuations (the averaging is made over more instances for smaller $n_q$), or a shift toward the golden rule regime for large $n_q$.

The scaling laws obtained in this regime show that for $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_c$, with $\varepsilon_c$ given by (13), the system is still localized in presence of imperfections, and the localization length is close to the exact one. In this case, the localization length is correct for very long times, much longer than for example the fidelity decay time. For larger $\varepsilon$, the system with imperfections is delocalized. We still expect it to be close to the exact one up to a time $\sim 1/\sigma \sim 1/(\varepsilon n_q \sqrt{n_q})$.

C. Partially delocalized regime

For larger values of $K$ at $L$ fixed, the system enters a partially delocalized region. In this regime, there is a coexistence of localized and delocalized eigenstates. An initial wave packet will have significant projections on all delocalized eigenstates but only on neighboring localized eigenstates. After a certain number of time steps (kicks) the part corresponding to delocalized states will spread in all the system, while the localized part will remain close to the initial position. Fig.18 shows an example of a wave packet initially at $n = 0$ after 100 iterations in this regime, displaying an exponential peak corresponding to localization superimposed on a plateau which spreads with time to larger and larger momentum. It is known that the spreading of the wave packet in this regime (for large enough time) is ballistic away from the line $K = L$ and diffusive on this line.

In this regime, as above a coarse grained measurement can give the localized part with moderate accuracy, thus enabling to compute the localization length. As in the preceding part, the gain over classical computation will be polynomial. As concerns the delocalized part of the wave function, it seems at first sight that getting information on it is difficult, since it takes very long time to reach its saturation distribution (it has to spread diffusively or ballistically through the whole system), and this distribution itself is spread over the exponentially large system. Still, after a time large enough for the wave packet to spread beyond the localization length, the structure of the wave function can be seen very clearly from coarse-grained measurements whose number is on the order of the localization length. Once such coarse grained measurement has been performed, and the localization length found by fitting an exponential function around the maximum, the relative importance of the plateau can be found by subtracting the localized part. Even though the plateau has not yet reached its final distribution, its integrated probability is related to the number of eigenstates which are delocalized at these parameter values. This information enables to monitor the transition precisely for different values of $K$ and $L$, a non trivial information as seen from Fig.18. The number of operations for classical and quantum algorithms are the same as for the localization length, and therefore the same polynomial gain can be expected. Another quantity which can be readily obtained is the quantum diffusion constant. Indeed, away from the line $K = L$, it is known that a quantum wave packet initially localized in momentum will spread anomalously (ballistically) with the law $\langle n^2(t) \rangle \approx D_B t^2$. Classically, estimating the diffusion constant requires to simulate the system until some time $t^*$. This requires to evolve $\sim t^*$ quantum states until the time $t^*$, making the total number of operation $\sim (t^*)^2$. On a quantum computer, one time step requires a logarithmic number of operations, so the total number of operations is $\sim t^* \approx (t^*)^{3/2}$. Classically compared to $\sim t^*$ for the quantum algorithm, with still a polynomial gain. Such computations can give quite interesting results, in particular to specify precisely which kind of diffusion is present in the vicinity of the line $K = L$, a question which is not definitively settled.

Effects of different strengths of imperfections can be seen in Fig.18. For moderate values of $\varepsilon$, a flat back-
ground of larger and larger amplitude is created by the imperfections. When this background reaches the values of the plateau due to delocalized states, information on these delocalized states is lost, but the localized peak remains until $\varepsilon$ is large enough to destroy it. This is visible also on Fig.19 which displays the time evolution of the imperfection Hamiltonian (6) between eigenstates; the IPR does not reach the plateau due to delocalized states, information is lost, but the localized peak remains until $\varepsilon = 0$ and $\varepsilon = 10^{-7}$ are indistinguishable.

In this regime, the analysis of the preceding section should be modified. Indeed, a certain fraction $\beta$ of the Floquet eigenstates $|\psi_n\rangle$ of $\hat{U}$ (unperturbed) in (10) are not localized. For these delocalized states, the $c_n^m$ of (10) have small nonzero values $\sim \sqrt{1/\sqrt{N_H}}$ for all $m$. The estimation $V_{typ} \sim \varepsilon n_g \sqrt{\sqrt{N}/\sqrt{N_H}}$ for the typical matrix element of the imperfection Hamiltonian (10) between eigenstates $|\psi_a\rangle$ and $|\psi_b\rangle$ remains correct only if $|\psi_a\rangle$ and $|\psi_b\rangle$ are both localized.

If $|\psi_a\rangle$ and $|\psi_b\rangle$ are both delocalized, one has $c_n^m \sim c_b^m \sim 1/\sqrt{N_H}$ in (10) for most $m,n$. This implies that the quantities $\sum_{n=1}^{N} c_n^m c^m_n$, previously of order $1/\sqrt{l}$ becomes $\sim 1/\sqrt{N_H}$ (sum of $N_H$ terms of order $\sim 1/\sqrt{N_H}$ with random signs). This modifies the estimate for $V_{typ}$: with the same reasoning as in the localized case, one has

$$V_{typ} \sim \varepsilon n_g \sqrt{n_q/\sqrt{N_H}}.$$  

If one of the states $|\psi_a\rangle$ and $|\psi_b\rangle$ is localized and the other one delocalized, then $\sum_{m=1}^{N} c_n^m c^m_n$ is the sum of $l$ terms of order $\sim 1/\sqrt{l \sqrt{N_H}}$ with random signs, which is of order $\sim 1/\sqrt{N_H}$. This gives the same estimate $V_{typ} \sim \varepsilon n_g \sqrt{n_q/\sqrt{N_H}}$ for the matrix element as if both states were delocalized.

Therefore if a proportion $\beta$ of the unperturbed Floquet eigenstates are delocalized, both localized and delocalized eigenstates will have matrix elements of order $V_{typ} \sim \varepsilon n_g \sqrt{n_q/\sqrt{N_H}}$ with $\beta N_H$ other eigenstates. This will be the dominant effect, since these couplings lead perturbation theory to break down much earlier than for the purely localized system. Indeed, $V_{typ}$ is comparable to the distance between directly coupled states $\Delta_c \sim 1/N_H \sim 1/N$ (since $N = 2N_H$) for $\varepsilon n_q \sqrt{n_q/\sqrt{N}} \sim 1/N$, which corresponds to:

$$\varepsilon_c \approx C_2/(n_q \sqrt{n_q} \sqrt{N})$$  

where $C_2$ is a numerical constant, $n_q$ the number of gates per iteration, $n_q$ the number of qubits and $N = 2^n_q$ the dimension of the Hilbert space of the quantum computer. Fig.20 is compatible with this scaling, with $C_2 \approx 7.4$.

In this regime, the critical interaction strength drops therefore exponentially with the number of qubits, in sharp contrast with the localized regime. This effect has been noted for a different system in [43], and is similar to the enhancement of weak interaction in heavy nuclei [4]. The physical mechanism is that the much smaller
IPR is actually often in the transition regime. Here \( L = 27, h/(2\pi) = (13 - \sqrt{5})/82 \) (actual value is the nearest fraction with denominator \( 2^n \)), initial state is \( |\psi_0\rangle = |0\rangle \), IPR is shown after 100 iterations using \( 2 \times 40 \) slices per iteration, \( n_q = 8 \) (\( n_q = n_r + 1 \)), with averages made over 10 realizations of disorder.

FIG. 21: IPR in presence of imperfections as a function of \( K \) in the transition regime. Here \( L = 27, h/(2\pi) = (13 - \sqrt{5})/82 \) (actual value is the nearest fraction with denominator \( 2^n \)), initial state is \( |\psi_0\rangle = |0\rangle \), IPR is shown after 100 iterations using \( 2 \times 40 \) slices per iteration, \( n_q = 8 \) (\( n_q = n_r + 1 \)), with averages made over 10 realizations of disorder.

![Graph showing IPR as a function of K in presence of imperfections.](image)

FIG. 22: Shift of the transition point due to imperfections as a function of imperfection strength and \( n_q \). Parameters values are the same as in Fig.21 with averages made over up to 10 realizations of disorder. Solid line corresponds to the dependence \( \Delta K_c \propto \varepsilon n_q \sqrt{n_q} N \). Logarithms are decimal.

![Graph showing shift of the transition point due to imperfections.](image)

coupling term between states is compensated by the even smaller distance in energy between coupled states. This result implies that even for moderate number of qubits, a small interaction strength is enough to modify enormously the long-time behavior of the system: saturation values of the IPR are very much affected by the perturbation, much more so than in the localized regime. However, for short time the behavior of the system should be close to the unperturbed one, implying that the measures suggested to get interesting information, such as relative size of the plateau and diffusion constants can still be accessible.

Fig.21 shows examples of the growth of the IPR as a function of \( K \) and imperfection strength. In the partially delocalized zone, the figure shows a growth of the IPR with \( K \), which is strongly affected by imperfections. An interesting quantity is the value of the transition point between localized and delocalized states. In systems such as the Anderson model investigated in [20], the transition point is well-defined, since all states are localized or delocalized on one side of the transition. In the case of the kicked Harper model there is some arbitrariness in the definition. We chose as transition point the value \( K_c \) (at \( L \) fixed) for which the IPR is \( N_H/4 = N/8 \) (even for a totally delocalized state, the IPR is actually often \( N_H/2 = N/4 \) instead of \( N_H \) due to fluctuations). In the partially delocalized regime, the IPR at fixed \( K \) should grow with \( \varepsilon \). If the system is in the Breit-Wigner (golden-rule) regime, IPR should grow as \( \Gamma/\Delta_n \) where \( \Delta_n \sim 1/N \) is the mean level spacing and \( \Gamma \approx 2\pi |V_{typ}|^2/\Delta_n \sim \varepsilon^2 n_q^2 n_q \). We therefore expect the transition point to move with imperfections as \( \Gamma/\Delta_n \sim \varepsilon^2 n_q^2 n_q N \). On the contrary, in the gaussian regime, the IPR grows like \( \sigma/\Delta_n \), where \( \sigma \sim \varepsilon n_q \sqrt{n_q} \). In this case the transition point should move as \( \varepsilon n_q \sqrt{n_q} N \).

Fig.22 shows the data numerically obtained for the shift of the transition point due to imperfections. It indicates that \( \Delta K_c \sim \varepsilon n_q \sqrt{n_q} N \) agrees with the data, whereas \( \varepsilon^2 n_q^2 n_q N \) is a much less reasonable scaling variable (data not shown). The data therefore seem to indicate that in the partially delocalized regime as in the localized regime, the IPR grows as \( \varepsilon n_q \sqrt{n_q} N \), as does the shift of the transition point. This result is in sharp contrast with the findings of [20] for the Anderson transition, which was shown to scale polynomially with the number of qubits. In our case, the presence of delocalized state coexisting with localized states makes the delocalization much easier in presence of imperfections.

Fig.23 shows the scaling of the IPR as a function of \( \varepsilon \). For small values of \( n_q \), the IPR without imperfections is already a large fraction of Hilbert space dimension, so data are meaningful only for \( n_r \geq 9 \). Still, data shown on Fig.23 seem to indicate that the regime where \( \zeta \propto \varepsilon \) is present, confirming that the system is in a gaussian regime rather than in the golden rule regime.

The scaling laws obtained in this regime show that there is an exponentially small value \( \varepsilon_c \) given by (12) above which imperfections destroy the localization properties of the system. In particular, the transition point is exponentially sensitive to the number of qubits. This sharp difference between localized and delocalized regime can be easily seen on experiments: the long time behav-
ior of the system will be very different in both cases. Still, the algorithms presented can be useful in delocalized regime in presence of imperfections, even for $\varepsilon > \varepsilon_c$. Indeed, the system should remain close to the exact one up to a time $\sim 1/\sigma \sim 1/(\varepsilon n g \sqrt{n_0})$ as in the localized regime, so measurability of physical quantities will eventually rest on the comparison of this time scale with the time for the system to show the delocalization plateau. On the contrary, in the localized regime for moderate levels of imperfections the localization length can be measured for very long times.

V. SPECTRUM: MEASUREMENT AND IMPERFECTION EFFECTS

Another type of physical properties which can be obtained through quantum simulation of the kicked Harper model concerns the spectrum of the evolution operator $U$. This spectrum has been the focus of many studies (see e.g. [23]): it shows multifractal properties, and transport properties (localized or delocalized states) are reflected in the eigenvalues, as well as dynamical properties (chaotic or integrable states). Additionally, for small $K = L$, this spectrum will be close to the famous spectrum of the Harper model (“Hofstadter butterfly”), which shows fractal properties [15], as can be seen in Fig.24.

To get information about eigenvalues, we can use the phase estimation algorithm. This algorithm, at the heart of the Shor algorithm, proceeds by transforming the state $\sum_i |i\rangle |\psi_0\rangle$ into $\sum_i |i\rangle |U^i \psi_0\rangle$. Then a QFT of the first register will give peaks at the values of the eigenphases of $U$. To be efficient, this process should be applied to operators $U$ for which exponentially large iterates can be obtained in polynomial number of operations. In [15] it was suggested that one can obtain approximate eigenvalues exponentially fast provided one starts from an initial state $|\psi_0\rangle$ already close to an eigenvector. In the case at hand, we do not know how to get exponentially large iterates in polynomial time, nor how to build a good approximation of the eigenvectors without knowing them. We therefore suggest a third strategy, which is more generally applicable than the ones above, but does not yield an exponential gain.

We first build the state $\sum_{i=0}^{N_H-1} |i\rangle |\psi_0\rangle$, where $|\psi_0\rangle$ is an arbitrary quantum state on a Hilbert space of dimension $N_H = 2^{n_r}$ which can be efficiently built, for example it can be the state $2^{-n_r/2} \sum_n |n\rangle$, which can be obtained from $|0\rangle$ with $n_r$ Hadamard gates. Once the state $|0\rangle |\psi_0\rangle$ is realized, it can be transformed with $n_r$ Hadamard gates on the first register into $2^{-n_r/2} \sum_{i=0}^{N_H-1} |i\rangle |\psi_0\rangle$. We have seen that the evolution operator $U$ can be implemented in $\text{poly}(\log N_H)$ operations by the three strategies exposed in section III. Therefore we can apply powers of $U$ on the second register controlled by the value of the first register. This yields $2^{-n_r/2} \sum_i |i\rangle |U^i \psi_0\rangle$ in $O(N_H)$ operations, up to logarithmic factors. A QFT of the first register will yield peaks centered at eigenvalues of the operator $U$. Thus measurement of the first register will give an eigenvalue of $U$ with good probability in $O(N_H)$ operations including measurement. A drawback of this approach is that peaks have additional probabilities on nearby locations, and since the number of eigenvalues is $N_H$, measuring the precise shape of all peaks will be inefficient ($O(N_H^2)$ operations). A more precise, although slower method is to use amplitude amplification [16] (a method derived from the Grover algorithm [3]) to zoom on a small part of the spectrum. This enables to get the precise values of all eigenvalues in a given interval. The total cost will be $O(N_H \sqrt{N_H})$ operations. This methods
FIG. 25: Eigenphases of the evolution operator \( \hat{U} \) of (4) as a function of imperfection strength. The slice method is used with \( 2 \times 100 \) slices to compute the operator. The 16 eigenphases closest to 0 are shown. Here \( n_r = 6 \) \( (n_q = n_r + 1) \), \( \hbar = 2\pi/2^6 \) (actual value is the nearest fraction with denominator \( 2^6 \)), \( K = L = 10^{-3} \). An overall phase factor (global motion of eigenvalues) has been eliminated. Logarithm is decimal.

which uses Grover’s search on phase estimation can be seen as a process reverse to quantum counting [47] (where phase estimation is used on the Grover operator).

Calculating the spectrum by direct diagonalization of a \( N_H \times N_H \) matrix such as the one of the operator \( \hat{U} \) of (4) requires in general of the order of \( N_H^3 \) classical operations. However, in the case of the operator \( \hat{U} \) of (4) there is a faster classical method similar to the quantum phase estimation algorithm: one iteration of \( \hat{U} \) can be computed classically in \( O(N_H) \) operations (up to logarithmic factors) by using the classical FFT algorithm to shift between \( n \) and \( \theta \) representations, and multiplying by the relevant phase in each representation. Iterating this process \( N_H \) times and keeping each intermediate wave function costs \( O(N_H^2 \log N_H) \) operations. Then a FFT enables to get the spectrum of \( \hat{U} \) with \( O(N_H \log N_H) \) operations. This method was advocated in [48] for getting the spectrum of the kicked Harper model. Therefore it is possible to get the spectrum classically in \( O(N_H^2) \) operations up to logarithmic factors. Thus the quantum algorithms explained above \( (O(N_H) \) operations for one eigenvalue with unknown precision, \( O(N_H \sqrt{N_H}) \) for all eigenvalues in a given small interval) realize a polynomial gain compared to the classical ones. It is important to note that although the number of operations needed is only polynomially better in the quantum case, the spatial resources are exponentially smaller (logarithmic number of qubits compared to the number of classical bits).

The Fig.25-27 show the spectrum of the kicked Harper model in presence of errors for both slice and Chebyshev methods. The error model chosen is the static imperfection Hamiltonian (6) as in the preceding section. The evolution operator was computed by evolving basis states in presence of errors and then diagonalizing the resulting operator. The spectrum shown corresponds to small \( K = L \), where the spectrum is close to the “Hofstadter butterfly”, as can be seen in Fig.24. Only 16 eigenvalues are shown. Overall phase shifts due to errors were eliminated since it seems reasonable they can be estimated and compensated. It is clear from the data presented that eigenvalues are much more sensitive to strength of errors than transport properties. Numerical limitations prevented us to find the scaling in \( n_q \) of error effects, but Fig.26-28 show the scaling with respect to \( \epsilon \) at constant \( n_q \).

In the case of the slice method, the average error on the eigenvalue is clearly linear in \( \epsilon \). We think this corresponds probably to a perturbative regime, since small values of \( \epsilon \) are involved. For the Chebyshev method, our data indicate that a lower level of errors is needed than in the slice method to get good accuracy. This could have been expected, since we established in Section III than this method necessitates more gates for a similar accuracy, and each gate introduces errors. The scaling of errors with respect to \( \epsilon \) indicates the law \( \Delta E \sim \epsilon^{\alpha} \) with \( \alpha \approx 1.3 \).
VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, several quantum algorithms were presented which enable to simulate the quantum kicked Harper model, a complex system with relevance to certain physical problems. The comparison showed that while the slice method and the Chebyshev method are approximate, they are much more economical in resources than the exact simulation. It was also shown that different transport and spectral properties can be obtained more efficiently on a quantum computer than classically, although the gain is only polynomial. Numerical simulations enabled us to precise the effect of numerical errors on these algorithms, and also to evaluate the effects of imperfections. The results show that depending on the regime of parameters, the same quantity can be stable or exponentially sensitive to imperfections. In general, in presence of moderate amount of errors the results of the algorithm can be meaningful, but a careful choice of the measured quantities should be done. For the different quantities computed, the slice method was shown to be more efficient and resilient to errors than the Chebyshev method, although the latter is similar to the method used in classical computers to evaluate functions.

Our results show that interesting quantum effects such that fractal-like spectrum, localization properties, anomalous diffusion are already visible with 7-8 qubits. We therefore believe that such algorithms could be used in experimental implementations in the near future.

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