

# Quantum Algorithms for Solving PDEs

**Xiantao Li**

**Department of Mathematics**

Pennsylvania State University

**SIAM NNP**



# Outline

- Motivation
- Simulating quantum dynamics
- From lattice dynamics to Schrödinger equation
- General non-unitary non-dissipative differential equations
- Extension to stochastic/steady state/nonlinear dynamics

## The Quantum Computing Promises:

- **2025: The Year of Quantum:** significant milestone/accelerating interest/investment in the quantum field.
- **Overcoming Classical Barriers:** potential to overcome the barrier faced by classical processors.
- **Natural Simulation:** natural fit to simulate quantum chemistry and quantum physics (**exponential speedup**).

QM models (TDSE)

- $\frac{d}{dt} |\psi\rangle = -iH|\psi\rangle$
- 1<sup>st</sup> quantization:  $H = \sum_j -\frac{\nabla_j^2}{2} + V(x)$
- 2<sup>nd</sup> quantization:  
$$H = \sum_{ij} t_{ij} a_i^\dagger a_j + \sum_{ijkl} V_{ijkl} a_i^\dagger a_j^\dagger a_k a_l$$
- Transverse-Field Ising  
$$H = -J \sum_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z - \sum_i \sigma_i^x$$

## Scientific computing tasks

### Large-scale ODE/PDEs

- $u_t = Ku_{xx}, u_{tt} = c^2 u_{xx}$
- Nonlinearity
- Stochastic dynamics
- Feedback control
- Machine-learning models  
 $x' = NN_\theta(x, t).$
- Optimizations
- Sampling.

***These models are very different from TDSE***

***Can quantum computers simulate classical dynamics?***

***Express them as Schrödinger equations!***

# Time-dependent Schrödinger equation

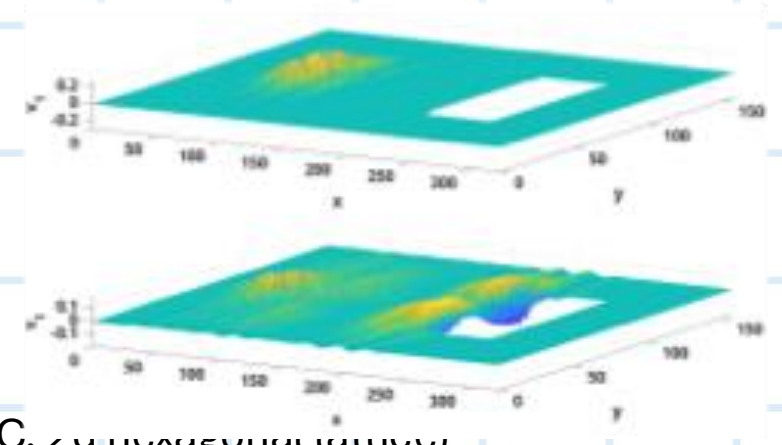
- TDSE:  $\frac{d}{dt} |\psi\rangle = -iH|\psi\rangle$ .  $H$ : self-adjoint (Hermitian)  $H^\dagger = H$
- State-of-the-art: the evolution in  $\mathbb{C}^N$  can be efficiently simulated: Cost =  $T||H|| \log N \text{ polylog } \frac{1}{\epsilon}$
- Algorithms:
  - Operator splitting (Trotter):  $e^{-it(A+B)} \approx e^{-itA} e^{-itB}$ . (Childs et al PRX 2021).
    - each exactly implemented by gate operations
  - Block encoding:  $U_A = \frac{1}{\alpha} \begin{bmatrix} H & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix}$
  - QSVT:  $U_A = \begin{bmatrix} H & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow U_{p(A)} = \begin{bmatrix} p(H) & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix}$  (Gilyén *et al.* 2019)
  - LCU (Childs-Wiebe 2012).
  - Approximate diagonalizations
- **Such a quantum speedup can be leveraged if the problem can be reduced to TDSE**

# Wave equations

- Wave equation.  $\partial_t^2 u = c^2 \nabla^2 u$
- Factorization:  $-\nabla_h^2 = Q^T Q$ ,  $Q$  sparse – rectangle matrix
- $\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \psi = -iH\psi$ ,  $H = -\begin{bmatrix} & Q^T \\ Q & \end{bmatrix}$ . Costa et al 2019. Babbush, et al. 2023.
- Vector-valued discretized wave equation:  $\ddot{u}_j = -\sum_{k=1}^N D_{j-k} u_k$ . Or  $\ddot{u} = -Du$ .
- Dispersion relation.  $\hat{D}(k) = \sum_j D_j e^{-ik \cdot j}$ .
- Trigonometric factorization:  $D_j = \frac{1}{|B|} \int_B \hat{D}(k) e^{ik \cdot j} dk = \frac{1}{|B|} \int_B \hat{Q}(k)^\dagger \hat{Q}(k) e^{ik \cdot j} dk$
- Exact factorization (Fejer-Rietz factorization).  $\hat{D}(k) = \sum_j D_j z^j$ ,  $\hat{Q}(k) = \sum_j Q_j z^j$
- $\hat{D}(k) = |\hat{Q}(k)|^2 \Rightarrow D = Q^\dagger Q$  (matrix multiplication by convolution)

# From wave equations to Schrödinger (Li, PRL)

- $\ddot{u} = -Du$  (Lattice waves/finite difference for acoustic and elastic wave equations)
- $D = Q^\dagger Q \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt}\psi = -iH\psi, H = -\begin{bmatrix} & Q^T \\ Q & \end{bmatrix}$
- Example:  $\ddot{u}_j = -\frac{1}{6}u_{j-2} + u_{j-1} - \frac{5}{3}u_j + u_{j+1} - \frac{1}{6}u_{j+2}$ .
- $\hat{D}(k) = \frac{2(1 - \cos k)}{q_0} = \frac{1}{3}(1 - \cos 2k)$ .  $\hat{Q} = q_0 + q_1 e^{-ik} + q_2 e^{-i2k}$ .
- $Q = \begin{bmatrix} q_0 & & & \\ q_1 & q_0 & & \\ q_2 & q_1 & \ddots & \\ & q_2 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & \end{bmatrix}_{(N+2) \times N}$
- In general,  $Q = \sum_j A_j \otimes Q_j$ .  $A_j$ : binary entries labelling neighbors. (3d FCC, 2d hexagonal lattice)
- The optimal Hamiltonian simulation algorithms apply.
- Overall quantum simulation complexity: logarithmic in system size and precision, linear in time \* Debye frequency
- Linear wave equations are quantum easy.
- **What about general ODEs ? (dissipative, stable, unstable, non-autonomous, ODEs).**



# Linear dissipative ODEs/PDEs

- Linear PDEs  $u_t = Lu$ . E.g.,  $u_t = \kappa u_{xx}$ ,  $u_{tt} = c^2 u_{xx}$ ,  $iu_t = -\frac{\nabla^2}{2}u + V(x)u - i\Sigma u$
- Spatial discretization  $\rightarrow : x' = Ax$ ,  $A = -iA_0 + A_1$ 
  - $A_0$  and  $A_1$  Hermitian,  $A_0^\dagger = A_0, A_1^\dagger = A_1, A_1 \leq 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \|x(t)\| \leq 0$ .
- **Schrödingerization:** Jin-Liu-Yu, PRL 2024.
  - $\psi(t, p) = e^p x(t), p \geq 0$ .
  - $\partial_t \psi = -iA_0 \psi + A_1 \partial_p \psi = -iH\psi$ ,
  - With the right BCs,  $H$  is Hermitian. ( $\partial_p$  can be turned into a skew Hermitian operator)
- Example: the heat equation
  - $\partial_t u = \kappa \partial_{xx} u, A_0 = 0, A_1 = \kappa \partial_{xx}$
  - After Schrödingerization:  $\partial_t \psi(t, x, p) = \kappa \partial_{pxx} \psi$ .
  - To recover the solution:  $u(t, x) = e^{-p_*} \psi(t, x, p_*)$ .
- Linear combination of Hamiltonian evolution An-Liu-Lin, PRL 2024.
  - $e^{-iA_0 t - A_1 t} = \int \frac{1}{\pi(1+k^2)} e^{-itA_0 - itkA_1} dk$



# An EEE framework ( ArXiv:2507.10285)

for  $u_t = \mathcal{L}(t)u$

- $x' = -iH(t)x + K(t)x, , H^\dagger = H, K^\dagger = K$
- A general dilation scheme

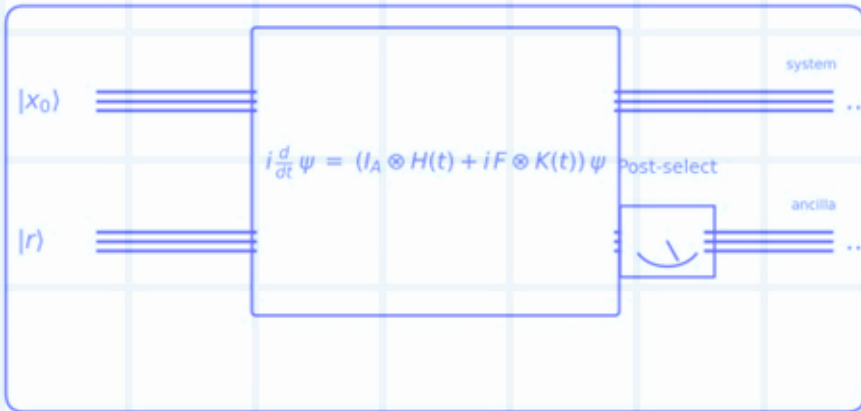
$(l  \otimes I$	$\mathcal{T}e^{-i \int_0^t I_a \otimes H(s) + i F_a \otimes K(s) ds}$	$ r\rangle \otimes  x_0\rangle$	$= \mathcal{T}e^{\int_0^t A(s) ds}  x_0\rangle$
Evaluation	Evolution	Encoding	Exact ODE Evolution
$(l $ : linear functional	$F_a^\dagger = -F_a$ , in $\mathcal{H}_a$ $\mathcal{H}_a$ dense in $\mathbb{X}$	$ r\rangle = f(p) \in \mathbb{X}$	

- **Theorem:**  $(l| \otimes I \mathcal{T}e^{-i \int_0^t I_a \otimes H(s) + i F_a \otimes K(s) ds} |r\rangle \otimes I = \mathcal{T}e^{\int_0^t A(s) ds}$  if the moment conditions  $(l| F_a^k |r\rangle = 1, \forall k \geq 0$ , are satisfied.
- Example:  $(l|r) = 1$  and  $F_a |r\rangle = |r\rangle$ .
- ROM perspective: engineering a reservoir that reproduces  $\mathcal{T}e^{\int_0^t A(s) ds}$  as an input/output map



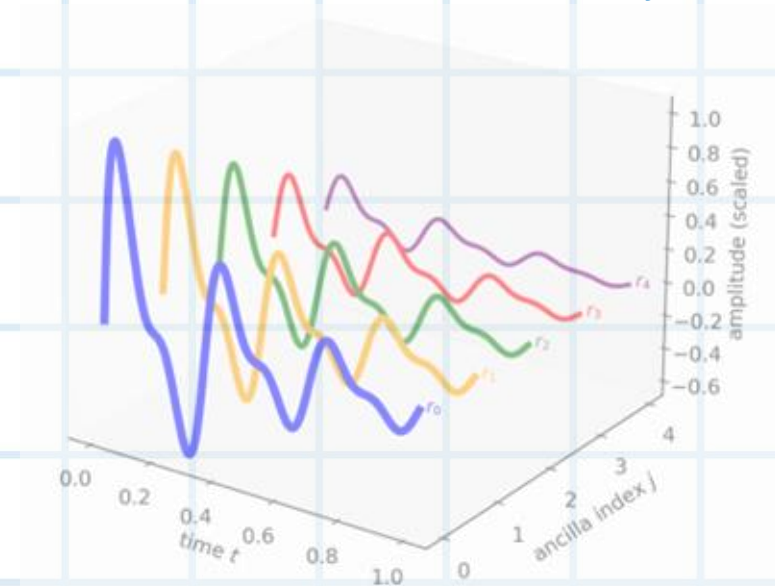
# EEE workflow

- The overall circuit



- Algorithms for the unitary evolution
  - Operator-splitting, Dyson series, Magnus expansion, etc.
  - Qubitization, Q singular value transform, linear combination of unitaries.
  - All these algorithms lead to  $O(\log N)$  complexity

- The final quantum state:  $\sum_j r_j |j\rangle \otimes |x(t)\rangle$ .



# Fulfilling the moment conditions

$$(l|F_a^k|r) = 1, \forall k \geq 0$$

- **Schrödingerization:**

- $F = -\frac{\partial}{\partial p}$ , skew Hermitian on  $[0, +\infty)$  if  $f(0) = 0$ .
- $|r) = e^{-p}$ ,  $(l|f = e^{p*}f(p_*)$ . Moment conditions are satisfied.
- $|r) \notin \mathcal{H}_a$ . Numerical issue: minimize the boundary effect.

- Invariance under unitary transformation:  $(l|U^{-1}, UF_aU^{-1}, U|r)$  still satisfy the moment condition.

- Let  $U$  be Fourier transform.

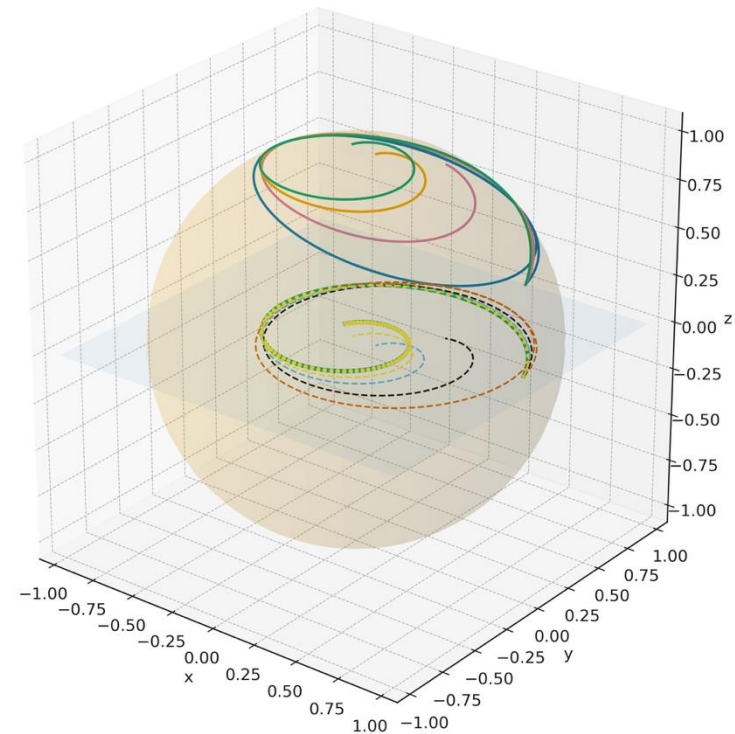
- $U|r) = \frac{1}{k+i}$ ,  $U \circ F \circ U^{-1} = ik$ ,  $(l|U^{-1}f = Res_{k=-i}\hat{f}(k)$
- This is the LCHS

- **Are there other choices? Many**

Space $H_A$	Dilation operators	Generator $F$	Right vector $ r)$	Evaluation $(l $
$H^1(0, 1)$	Differential	$\theta(p\partial_p + \frac{1}{2})$	$p^{1/\theta-1/2}$	$(l f = 2^{1/\theta-1/2}f(\frac{1}{2})$
$L^2(\mathbb{R})$	Integral	$(Ff)(p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} pe^{-\theta p-q }f(q)dq$	$e^{a(\theta)p}$	$(l f = f(0)$
$L^2(\mathbb{R})$	Pseudo-differential	$-i(-\Delta)^\theta$	$e^{i\xi_0 x}$ , $\xi_0 = e^{i\pi/(4\theta)}$	$(l f = f(0)$
$\mathcal{B}$	Bargmann-Fock	$\theta(a^\dagger - a)$	$\exp\left(\frac{z^2}{2} - \frac{z}{\theta}\right)$	$(l f = f(0)$
$\ell^2$	Difference	$(Ff)_n = \theta(f_n - f_{n-1})$	$\{\lambda_\theta^n\}_{n \geq 0}$ , $\lambda = \frac{\theta}{1+\theta}$	$(l f = f_0$

# From moment fulfilling to universal approximation

- These families of fulfilling operators  $\rightarrow$  Exact dilation methods
- $(|l\rangle \otimes I \mathcal{T}e^{-i \int_0^t I_a \otimes H(s) + i F_a \otimes K(s) ds} |r\rangle \otimes I = \mathcal{T}e^{\int_0^t A(s) ds}$
- By  $\epsilon$  approximating  $|r\rangle$  in the Hilbert space, we find  $\epsilon$  approximations of  $x(t)$  using TDSE
- ***How is this implemented for general ODEs?***



# Differential operator on $[0,1]$

- $F_\theta = \theta \left( p \partial_p + \frac{1}{2} \right), |r\rangle = p^{\frac{1}{\theta} - \frac{1}{2}}, (l|f = 2^{\frac{1}{\theta} - \frac{1}{2}} f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$ . ( $\theta$ : tunable parameters to min complexity).
- Example:  $u_t = au_x + u_{xx}$ ,
  - PBC on  $[0, 2\pi]$ .
  - $A_0 = a\partial_x, A_1 = \partial_{xx}$ .
  - Dilated system:  $w(t, x, p): \partial_t w = a\partial_x w + p\partial_{x p} w + \frac{1}{2}\partial_{xx} w$ .  $w(0, x, p) = u(0, x)p^{\frac{1}{\theta} - \frac{1}{2}}, w(t, x, 1) = 0$ .
- Finite-difference with summation-by-parts (SBP) property
  - $F_\theta = \frac{\theta}{2} \{\partial_p, p\} \approx \theta F_h = \frac{\theta}{2} \{D_h, P\}$
  - Combined Hamiltonian  $\tilde{H} = I \otimes H + i\theta F_h \otimes K \Rightarrow i\Psi = -i\tilde{H}\Psi$
- Initial condition:  $|r\rangle \approx |r\rangle \propto \sum_j p_j^\beta |j\rangle, \beta = \frac{1}{\theta} - \frac{1}{2}$ .  $w(0, x, p) = |r\rangle \otimes |x_0\rangle$
- Boundary condition:  $w(t, x, 1) = 0$ . To ensure that  $\theta F_h$  is skew Hermitian.

# Finite speed of propagation property

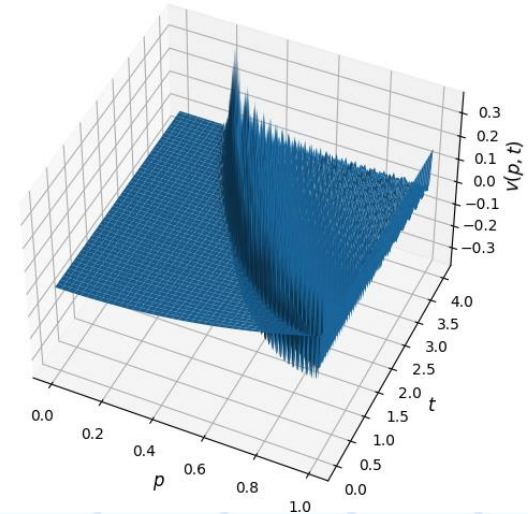
- The transport equation from  $F: u_t = -pu_p - \frac{1}{2}u$ ,  $p \in (0,1)$ .
- The error comes from the boundary effect.
- Method of characteristics:  $\dot{p} = -p, \dot{u} = -\frac{1}{2}u$ .
- Boundary effective arrives at a point  $p_*$  at time  $t_* = \log \frac{1}{p_*}$ .
- Finite speed propagation for the finite difference method.

Consider the dilated dynamics:  $\psi_t = -i(I_A \otimes H + \theta F_h \otimes K)\psi$ , with initial condition supported at the boundary. Assume that  $\eta = \frac{e\theta K_{\max} t}{1-p_*} < 1$ .  $h = \frac{1}{M}$  and  $p_* = 1 - mh$ . Then

$$||\langle i | \otimes I \psi(t) | \psi_0 \rangle|| < C \eta^m, \forall ih < p_*.$$

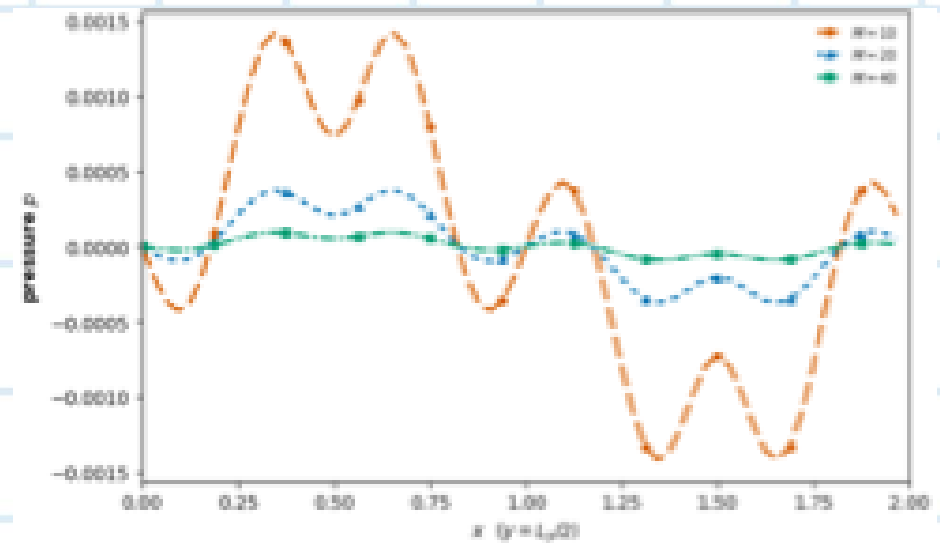
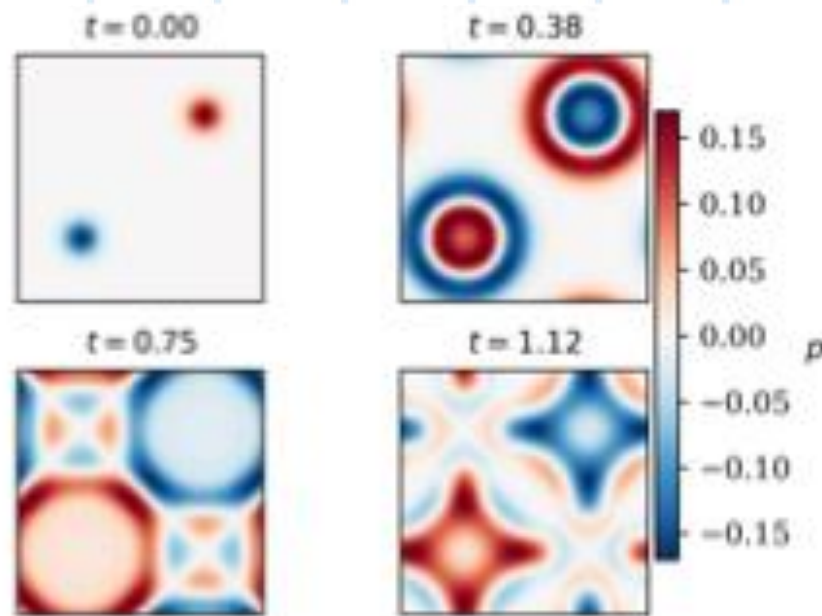
Therefore:  $M = \Omega(\log \frac{1}{\epsilon})$  is enough to suppress the boundary effect

The boundary effect can be delayed by geometrically refined grids



# Example

- Two-dimensional Maxwell Viscoelastic Wave equation
- Strain, momentum and stress  $(\epsilon, p, \sigma)$  with viscous stress.



The convergence with the ancilla dimension.



# Summary

- Linear differential equations are mostly quantum-easy (theoretically).
- The procedure is motivated by reduced-order modeling.
- Some nonlinear equations are quantum-easy. (smoothing/weakly nonlinear/no resonance)
- For general nonlinear equations:  $e^{O(T)} O(\log N)$ . Brüstle-Wiebe 2025.

Many remaining questions

- Implementation of dilation methods on near term device
- Integrate quantum algorithms with error mitigation schemes
- Improving the convergence radius for nonlinear problems.