# Quantum computation of stopping power for inertial fusion target design

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# Setting the stage

- What is stopping power?
- The average kinetic energy lost by a particle moving through a medium.
  - What does it have to do with inertial fusion?
- It appears in the source term in the energy balance that defines thermonuclear ignition.
  - How is it calculated classically?
- There are many methods, but time-dependent density functional theory is the gold standard.
  - What type of quantum advantage should we expect?
  - Systematically improvable accuracy in quantum dynamics, at polynomial cost.
    - How does our quantum algorithmic protocol work?
- Prepare a particle in a state with prescribed velocity, evolve in time, measure kinetic energy loss.



Target Density and composition are fixed Starts in equilibrium state

Projectile Bare charge and mass are fixed Initial energy prescribed

dEStopping power is the differential energy loss per unit length<sup>\*\*</sup>, S(E) $\overline{dx}$ 

\*I.e., bremsstrahlung

## Stopping power: context & definition



Energy is lost in collisions with nuclei, electrons, and light\*.

Today, we are *only* concerned with electronic collisions.

\*\*This has units of force, not power.

# Stopping from first principles



### Proton stopping in warm dense deuterium

Simulate the dynamics of a projectile on an O(nm) length scale, O(as) time scale

Governed by the same Hamiltonian that you've seen in chemistry/materials science

$$H_{0} = \sum_{i=1}^{\eta} \frac{\nabla_{i}^{2}}{2} - \sum_{l=1}^{L} \sum_{i=1}^{\eta} \frac{\zeta_{l}}{||r_{i} - R_{l}||} + \sum_{i \neq j}^{\eta} \frac{1}{||r_{i} - R_{l}||}$$
$$H_{proj} = \frac{\nabla_{proj}^{2}}{2M_{proj}} - \sum_{i=1}^{\eta} \frac{\zeta_{l}}{||r_{i} - R_{proj}||}$$



# Who cares about stopping powers?

### Cancer therapies



Shepard, Yost, and Kanai, PRL 130 (2023) It is *relatively* straightforward to measure stopping power. One needs: (1) a charged particle source, (2) a few samples of the target<sup>\*</sup>, (3) a spectrometer. So, the value of a computational prediction is proportional to the cost of these three things. This cost is rather high for one of the most important applications of stopping power: fusion. \*A key complication is the fact that the sample needs to be "differentially" thin.

Applications include radiation damage in space, nuclear reactors, charged-particle microscopy...

Nuclear spin qubits in silicon



Jakob, et al., arXiv:2309.09626





# Inertial confinement fusion



Laser quads

Zylstra, et al., Nature 601 (2022)

Ignition: fusion reactions are the dominant source of heat, exceeding losses. This heating is due to stopping.

# Fusion involves materials in extreme conditions



### Photo credit: Randy Montoya

Instabilities that develop on the way to ignition are part of what makes fusion hard. This is more of a materials science problem than a nuclear physics problem. It is compounded by the materials being in extremes of temperature/pressure.



Gomez, et al., PRL 113 (2014)



# What do I mean by "extreme"?



### Fusion happens here...

## It is hard to constrain materials models here.



# What do I mean by "extreme"?

We need to tabulate materials properties over a wide range of conditions to simulate experiments...





Fusion happens here...

It is hard to constrain materials models here. (Interesting basic science, too!)

Figure credit: Mike Desjarlais

# Our best models are expensive...

Below, first principles calculations of stopping power of aluminum in the warm dense regime.



proton velocity (at. u.) Kononov, et al., in prep (2023)

- This plot took about 250 million CPU hours to produce, using a \$170M machine.
  - We do not use these expensive models in hydrodynamic modeling.
    - We do use them to check the models that are/could be.



## ...but their accuracy is hard to assess.

### We chose aluminum because it is an ideal system for benchmarking.



Kononov, et al., arXiv:2307.03213/accepted in npj Computational Materials We can get results that agree well with experiment, for *some* experiments. Even then, we don't have a systematic understanding of approximations. Experimental data are *extremely* sparse in the warm dense matter regime.

# First-principles stopping power calculations

![](_page_11_Picture_1.jpeg)

![](_page_11_Figure_3.jpeg)

Create a representative supercell with 10s-1000s of atoms/electrons. Push a projectile (red) through the target (blue) with some initial velocity ( $v_{proj}$ ). The energy loss of the projectile relates to an average force - the stopping power.

![](_page_11_Picture_6.jpeg)

# Time-dependent density functional theory

The time-dependent Kohn-Sham equations<sup>1</sup> govern the electronic dynamics,

$$i\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\phi_n(\mathbf{r},t) = \left(-\frac{\nabla^2}{2} + v_S\left[\rho\right](\mathbf{r},t)\right)\phi_n(\mathbf{r},t), \ \forall n \in \{1,\dots,M\}$$

where the density<sup>2</sup> is given as  $\sum_{n=1}^{M} f_n(T_e) |\phi_n(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2$ 

$$\rho(\mathbf{r},t) = \sum_{n=1}^{N}$$

The density-dependent one-body potential is defined as,

$$v_{S}[\rho](\mathbf{r},t) = v_{ext}(\mathbf{r},t) + v_{H}[\rho](\mathbf{r},t) + v_{xc}[\rho](\mathbf{r},t)$$

The exchange-correlation potential, the central approximation.

The *exact* potential<sup>3</sup> has many features that are extremely difficult to approximate.

<sup>1</sup> Runge and Gross, PRL 52 (1984), <sup>2</sup> Mermin PR 137 (1965), and <sup>3</sup> Elliott, et al. PRL 109 (2012)

# Approximate classical vs. exact quantum

TDDFT has the form of a mean-field theory, like TD Hartree-Fock (TDHF). In either, we're propagating the dynamics of a *single* Slater determinant. TDHF is *fundamentally* limited in its accuracy, TDDFT is *practically* limited in its accuracy.

Mean-field theories are generally the least expensive and least accurate.

Algorithm Processor T = 0 mean-field with occ-RI-K/ACE<sup>23,24</sup> Classical Classical T > 0 mean-field (density matrix) with refs. 23,24 Classical T > 0 mean-field (sampled trajectories) with refs. 23,2 Second-quantized Trotter grid algorithm<sup>45</sup> Quantum First-quantized Trotter grid algorithm here Quantum Interaction picture plane wave algorithm<sup>51</sup> Quantum Grid basis algorithm from Appendix K of ref. 53 Quantum New shadows procedure here Quantum Gradient measurement<sup>61</sup> Quantum Gradient measurement<sup>61</sup> Quantum

Table 1 | Costs of exact quantum algorithms and mean-fie

Babbush, et al., Nature Communications 14 (2023) Quantum algorithms for dynamics can have better asymptotics than classical algorithms for mean-field theories.

eld	classical	algorithms	for	simulating	fermionic	dynamics
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	Observable	Space	Gate complexity
	Anything	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(N\eta)$	$(N^{4/3}\eta^{7/3}t + N^{5/3}\eta^{4/3}t)(\frac{Nt}{\epsilon})^{o(1)}$
	Anything	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(NM)$	$(N^{4/3}M^2\eta^{1/3}t + \frac{N^{5/3}M^2t}{\eta^{2/3}})(\frac{Nt}{\epsilon})^{o(1)}$
24	Anything	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(N\eta)$	$\left(\frac{N^{4/3}\eta^{7/3}t}{\epsilon^2} + \frac{N^{5/3}\eta^{4/3}t}{\epsilon^2}\right)\left(\frac{Nt}{\epsilon}\right)^{O(1)}$
	Sample $ \psi(t)\rangle$	O(N log N)	$(N^{4/3}\eta^{1/3}t + \frac{N^{5/3}t}{\eta^{2/3}})(\frac{Nt}{\epsilon})^{o(1)}$
	Sample $ \psi(t) angle$	$\mathcal{O}(\eta \log N)$	$(N^{1/3}\eta^{7/3}t + N^{2/3}\eta^{4/3}t)(\frac{Nt}{\epsilon})^{o(1)}$
	Sample $ \psi(t)\rangle$	$\mathcal{O}(\eta \log N)$	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(N^{1/3}\eta^{8/3}t)$
	Sample $ \psi(t) angle$	$\mathcal{O}(\eta \log N)$	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(N^{1/3}\eta^{8/3}t)$
	k-RDM(t)	$\mathcal{O}(\eta \log N)$	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(k^k \eta^k L \mathcal{C}_{samp} / \epsilon^2)$
	$\left< \psi(t)   O   \psi(t) \right>$	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\eta + L)$	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{L}\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{samp}}\lambda/\epsilon)$
	$\langle \psi(t) H \psi(t)\rangle$	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\eta + L)$	$\widetilde{\mathcal{O}}(\frac{\sqrt{L}\mathcal{C}_{samp}t(N^{1/3}\eta^{5/3}+N^{2/3}\eta^{1/3})}{\epsilon})$

![](_page_13_Picture_9.jpeg)

# Challenges for a quantum stopping protocol

Naive approach: Do everything that we would do in TDDFT, but using our favorite quantum dynamics algorithm.

Estimate the total energy for multiple evolution times? Energy estimation is expensive... Estimate the projectile force for multiple evolution times? Force operator has a large norm/variance... Updates to projectile position -> time-dependent simulation.

Solution: make the projectile an explicit quantum degree of freedom, estimate its kinetic energy at multiple evolution times.

Note: we *don't* expect nuclear quantum effects in the projectile to be physically relevant. This choice is strictly in pursuit of algorithmic efficiency.

![](_page_14_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_14_Picture_7.jpeg)

![](_page_14_Figure_8.jpeg)

![](_page_14_Figure_9.jpeg)

![](_page_14_Figure_10.jpeg)

# Summary of our protocol

Step 0: Choose a representation for the system (target + projectile). Step 1: Prepare the initial state for the electron-projectile dynamics. Step 2: Time evolution, using qubitization/interaction picture/Trotter. Step 3: Measure the projectile's kinetic energy loss along its trajectory. Step 4: Postprocess the sampled outcomes to estimate stopping power.

# Step 0: Representing the system

Basis: Babbush, et al., npj QI 5 (2019) The system is described in first quantization: Block encodings: Su, et al., PRX Quantum 2 (2021)

Each quantum particle is described by a reg of qubits that encode a plane-wave basis.

Electrons are all treated as quantum, only the projectile nucleus is treated as quant

The non-projectile nuclei will not move appreciably over the fast timescale associated with electronic stopping. The projectile is moving about as fast as the electrons!

There are several non-trivial extensions of the block encodings in Su, et al., that account for details of incorporating the projectile into the typical electronic structure Hamiltonian.

gister 
$$k_p = 2\pi p / \Omega^{1/3}$$
  
5.  $p \in G = \left[ -(N^{1/3} - 1)/2, (N^{1/3} - 1)/2 \right]^{\otimes 3}$ 

$$\longrightarrow 3\eta \lceil \log(N^{1/3}) \rceil + 3\lceil \log(N_{proj}^{1/3}) \rceil \approx 3(\eta + 1) \lceil \log(N^{1/3}) \rceil$$

![](_page_16_Figure_9.jpeg)

![](_page_16_Figure_10.jpeg)

![](_page_16_Figure_11.jpeg)

![](_page_16_Figure_12.jpeg)

# Step 1: Prepare the initial state

The joint electron-projectile system is initialized as:

Generically hard to prepare/sample from.

We use a mean-field initial state from Mermin-Kohn-Sham density functional theory.

Initial electronic state drawn from the canonical ensemble associated w/mean-field initial state— probabilities easy to compute.

Uses Bagherimehrab, et al., PRX Relies on efficiently preparing Slater determinants -Quantum 3 (2022). Babbush, et al., Nature Communications 14 (2023).

 $\exp(-\beta H_0)/\operatorname{Tr}\left[\exp(-\beta H_0)\right] \otimes |\psi_{\text{proj}}(t=0)\rangle \langle \psi_{\text{proj}}(t=0)|$ 

Gaussian wave packet in momentum space, sharply peaked near  $v_{proj}$ .

- The standard deviation of the wave packet is a free parameter.
- Ultimately we can make it  $10^4$  times smaller than a physical proton!

![](_page_17_Picture_12.jpeg)

# Step 2: Time evolve the system

- We considered time evolution using qubitization, the interaction picture, and Trotterization.

  (Easy to bound) (Not competitive) (Hard to bound)
- Qubitization counts: QSP to implement Jacobi-Anger<sup>1,2,3</sup>, block encoding includes the projectile. Trotterization counts: QROM interpolation<sup>4</sup> + Newton-Raphson<sup>5</sup> for inverse square root.
  - Significant numerical testing went into estimating constants for tighter Trotter bounds based on Low, et al., PRX Quantum (2023).
  - And the Trotter numerics still give worst-case (state-independent) bounds...
  - Note: Trotter estimates are for a real-space grid representation with comparable resolution.
- <sup>1</sup> Low & Chuang, PRL 118 (2017), <sup>2</sup> Low & Chuang, Quantum 3 (2019), <sup>3</sup> Babbush, Berry & Neven, PRA 99 (2019), <sup>4</sup> Sanders, et al., PRX Quantum 1 (2020), <sup>5</sup> Jones, et al., New J Phys (2012)

![](_page_18_Figure_8.jpeg)

![](_page_18_Figure_9.jpeg)

![](_page_19_Picture_0.jpeg)

Cirq-FT (Google tool) was used to build and profile a model of the entire protocol.

The dominant Toffoli cost (C4) is in a subroutine that involves applying controlled SWAPs to move each electron into a working register during SELECT.

## "Profiling" our protocol

![](_page_19_Figure_4.jpeg)

## Step 3: Measure the kinetic energy

We compared estimates of the kinetic energy loss at the standard quantum limit (SQL) to a recent Heisenberg-scaling approach: Kothari & O'Donnell, SODA (2023)

![](_page_20_Figure_2.jpeg)

We find that the aggregate Toffoli count for the approach at the SQL is lower for the target precision. Higher precision might be required for non-fusion applications.

![](_page_20_Figure_5.jpeg)

## Step 4: Postprocess sampled outcomes

To assess how the sampling requirements impact estimates of the stopping power, we test our classical Monte Carlo estimate on a TDDFT trajectory w/fixed projectile variance\*.

![](_page_21_Figure_2.jpeg)

\*We do not expect the effective variance to change appreciably over the timescales of our simulations.

However, better accounting for variance due to sampling the thermal distribution over initial states might require more care.

![](_page_21_Picture_7.jpeg)

## Resource estimates for fusion-relevant systems

Projectile + Host	$\eta$	QSP Toffoli	Product Formula Toffoli	QSP Qubits	Product Formula Qubits
Alpha + Hydrogen (50%)	28	$5.593  imes 10^{14}$	$1.124  imes 10^{13}$	1749	2666
Alpha + Hydrogen (75%)	92	$2.033  imes 10^{16}$	$3.069 imes10^{14}$	3309	3902
Alpha + Hydrogen	218	$1.992  imes 10^{17}$	$1.399 imes10^{15}$	5650	6170
Proton + Deuterium	1729	$2.121  imes 10^{20}$	$2.079 \times 10^{17}$	33038	33368
Proton + Carbon	391	$2.225  imes 10^{18}$	$1.074 imes10^{16}$	8841	9284

For the smallest instance, the Toffoli count is  $\sim 100x$  the state-of-the-art for FeMoco<sup>1</sup>. For larger instances, counts are closer to FeMoco in 2016<sup>2</sup> - cause for optimism!

Strongly non-equilibrium dynamics of even 28 electrons in a large basis is classically challenging. This would still tell us interesting things about how mean-field approximations fail... Classical perspective: 10% of 40 PFlop/s for a week =  $2.5 \times 10^{21}$  floating point ops...

<sup>1</sup> Lee, PRX Quantum 2 (2021) and <sup>2</sup> Reiher, et al., PNAS 114 (2017)

![](_page_22_Picture_6.jpeg)

![](_page_22_Picture_7.jpeg)

# Conclusions

...but/and...

## Questions? Comments? My email address is <u>adbacze@sandia.gov</u>.

Sandia National Laboratories is a multi-missions laboratory managed and operated by National Technology and Engineering Solutions of Sandia, LLC, a wholly owned subsidiary of Honeywell International Inc., for DOE's National Nuclear Security Administration under contract DE-NA0003525.

![](_page_23_Picture_8.jpeg)

I've shown you a quantum algorithmic protocol for estimating stopping powers in a classically challenging thermodynamic regime, relevant to inertial fusion.

The smallest "useful" instances have Toffoli counts that are 100x the state of the art for sampling the eigenspectra of industrially relevant molecules.

These are still among the first end-to-end estimates for implementing a practically relevant quantum dynamics calculation...

The competing classical resources are orders of magnitude larger than those typical of a lot of ground state quantum chemistry.

![](_page_23_Picture_13.jpeg)

![](_page_23_Figure_14.jpeg)

![](_page_23_Figure_15.jpeg)

![](_page_23_Picture_16.jpeg)

# Our best experiments are also expensive

Plasma

Petrasso

Phys. Rev. Lett. 114, 215002 – Published 27 May 2015

![](_page_24_Figure_4.jpeg)

There are fewer than half a dozen data sets that constrain stopping in this regime.