

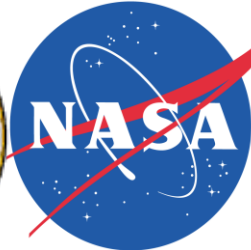
Complexity of the Quantum Adiabatic Algorithm

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1207.1712, 1208.3757

UC SANTA CRUZ 



Google

Collaborators

- joint work with **Peter Young**, UC Santa Cruz



- also partly with **Eddie Farhi, Peter Shor, David Gosset**, M.I.T.



- **Anders Sandvik**, Boston University



- and **Francesco Zamponi**, Ecole Normale Supérieure.



Motivation

in what ways quantum computers are more efficient than classical computers?

what problems could be solved more efficiently on a quantum computer?

□ best-known examples are:

- **Shor's algorithm** for integer factorization. solves the problem in polynomial time (exponential speedup).
current quantum computers can factor all integers up to *21*.
- **Grover's algorithm** is a quantum algorithm for searching an unsorted database with *N* entries in $O(N^{1/2})$ time (quadratic speedup).

□ importance is huge (cryptanalysis, etc.).

Motivation

what more can quantum computers do?

- here, we will discuss “hard” satisfiability (SAT) and optimization problems which are at least “NP-complete”, i.e.,
 - hard to solve classically; time needed is exponential in the input (exponential complexity).
 - could a quantum computer solve these problems in an efficient manner? perhaps even in polynomial time?
- we also discuss the graph isomorphism problem.

the Quantum Adiabatic Algorithm

is a general approach to solve a broad range of hard optimization problems using a quantum computer [Farhi et al.,2001]

Outline

- **introduction:**
 - the quantum adiabatic algorithm (QAA)
- **satisfiability problems**
 - the specific SAT models studied
 - **method:** quantum Monte Carlo simulations
 - **results:** complexity of the quantum adiabatic algorithm
 - **results:** comparison to the classical algorithm WalkSAT
- **3reg Max-Cut:** an antiferromagnet on a random graph
- QAA, applied to **the graph isomorphism problem**
- summary, conclusions and future research

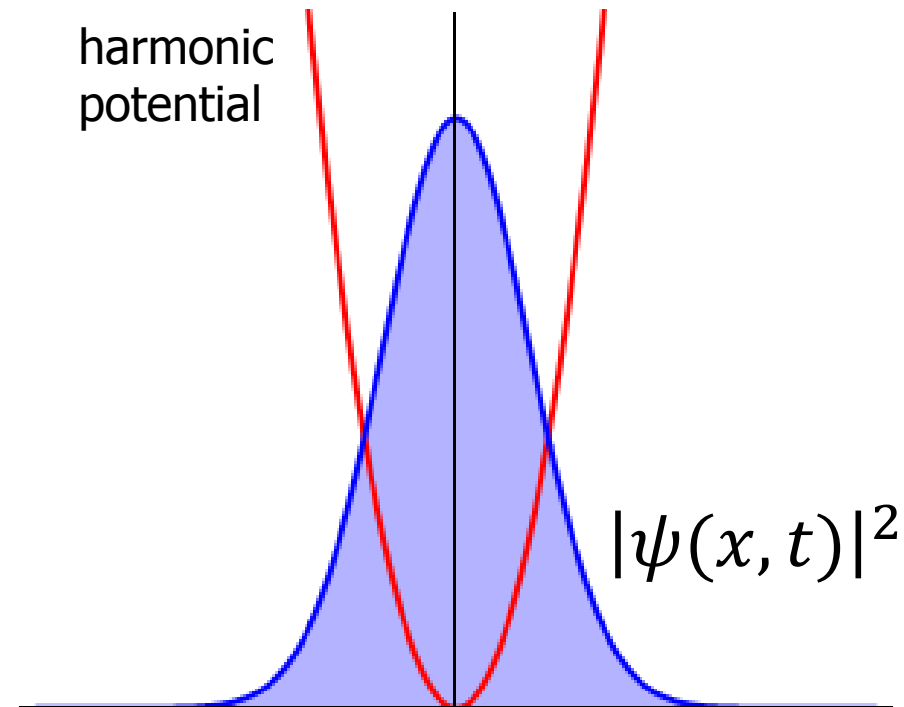
The Quantum Adiabatic Algorithm (QAA)

The adiabatic theorem of QM

- the adiabatic theorem of QM tells us that a physical system remains in its instantaneous eigenstate if a given perturbation is acting on it slowly enough and if there is a gap between the eigenvalue and the rest of the Hamiltonian's spectrum.

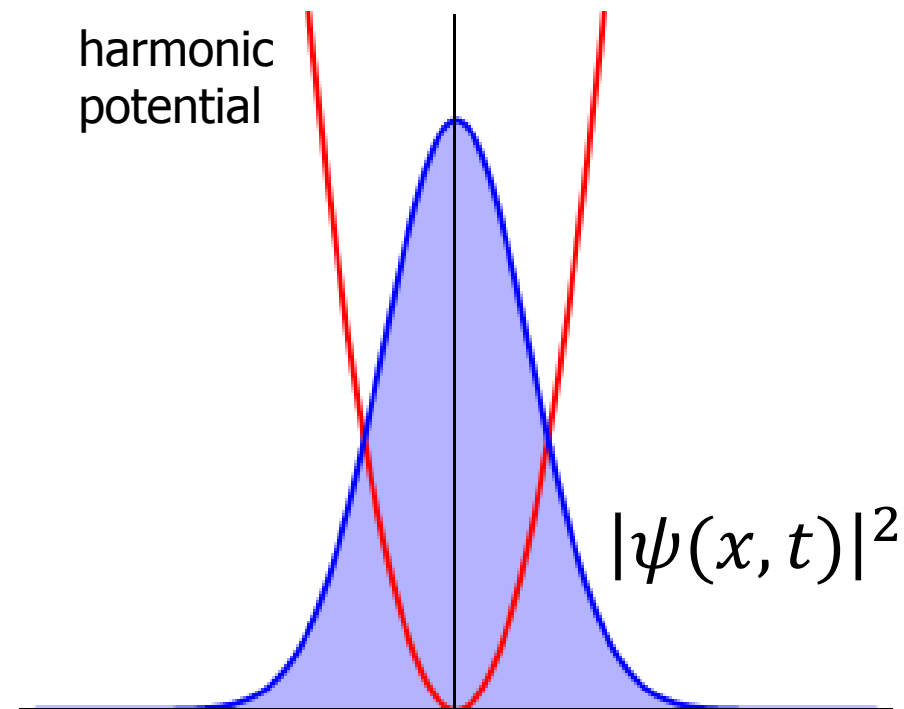
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- example: change the strength of a harmonic potential of a system in the ground state:



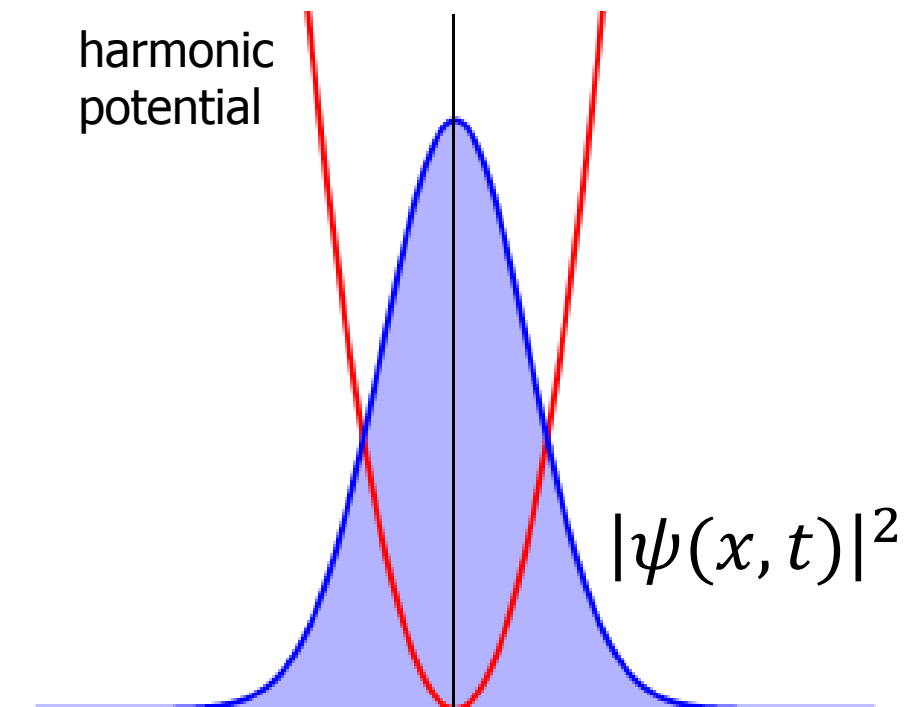
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- an abrupt change (a *diabatic* process):



The adiabatic theorem of QM

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- example: change the strength of a harmonic potential of a system in the ground state:
- a gradual slow change (an *adiabatic* process): wave function can “keep up” with the change.

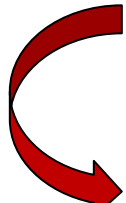


The quantum adiabatic algorithm (QAA)


□ the mechanism proposed by Farhi et al., the QAA:




1. take a difficult (classical) optimization problem.



2. encode its solution in the ground state of a quantum "problem" Hamiltonian \hat{H}_p .



3. prepare the system in the ground state of another easily solvable "driver" Hamiltonian" \hat{H}_d . $[\hat{H}_p, \hat{H}_d] \neq 0$.



4. vary the Hamiltonian **slowly** and smoothly from \hat{H}_d to \hat{H}_p until **ground state of \hat{H}_p is reached**.

The quantum adiabatic algorithm (QAA)

- the interpolating Hamiltonian is this:

$$\hat{H}(t) = s(t)\hat{H}_p + [1 - s(t)]\hat{H}_d$$

\hat{H}_p is the problem Hamiltonian whose ground state encodes the solution of the optimization problem

\hat{H}_d is an easily solvable driver Hamiltonian, which does not commute with \hat{H}_p

- the parameter s obeys $0 \leq s(t) \leq 1$, with $s(0) = 0$ and $s(\mathcal{T}) = 1$. also: $\hat{H}(0) = \hat{H}_d$ and $\hat{H}(\mathcal{T}) = \hat{H}_p$.
- here, t stands for time and \mathcal{T} is the running time, or complexity, of the algorithm.

The quantum adiabatic algorithm (QAA)

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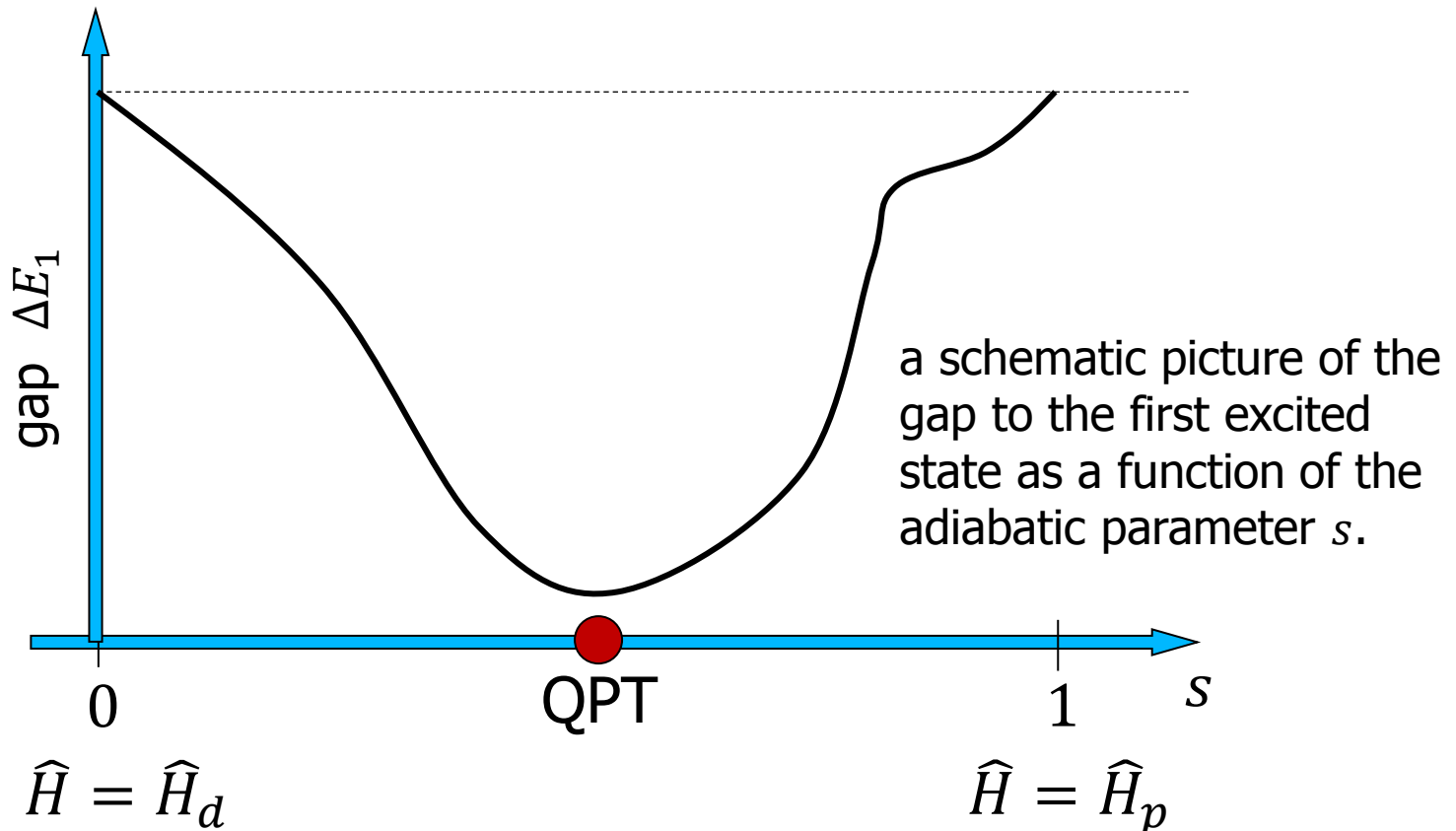
$$\hat{H}(t) = s(t)\hat{H}_p + [1 - s(t)]\hat{H}_d$$

- the adiabatic theorem ensures that **if the change in $s(t)$ is made slowly enough, the system will stay close to the ground state of the instantaneous Hamiltonian** throughout the evolution.
- one finally obtains a state close to the ground state of \hat{H}_p .
- **measuring the state will give the solution of the original problem** with high probability.

how fast can the process be?

Quantum phase transition

- bottleneck is likely to be a quantum phase transition (QPT) where the gap to the first excited state is small.
- there, the probability to “get off track” is maximal.



Quantum phase transition

- **Landau-Zener theory** tells us that to stay in the ground state the running time needed is:

$$\mathcal{T} \propto 1/\Delta E_{min}^2$$

- **exponentially closing gap (as a function of problem size N) \rightarrow exponentially long running time \rightarrow exponential complexity.**

Quantum phase transition

- **Landau-Zener theory** tells us that to stay in the ground state the running time needed is:

$$\mathcal{T} \propto 1/\Delta E_{min}^2$$

- **exponentially closing gap (as a function of problem size N)** → **exponentially long running time** → **exponential complexity.**
- it would be interesting to explore what one can do with “**Local Adiabatic Evolution**”, i.e., by slowing down when approaching the minimum gap etc. for example, the adiabatic algorithm for **Grover’s search problem.**

The quantum adiabatic algorithm

- most interesting unknown about QAA to date:

could the QAA solve in polynomial time
“hard” (NP-complete) problems?

or

for which hard problems is \mathcal{T} sub-exp' in N ?

The quantum adiabatic algorithm

- most interesting unknown about QAA to date:

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for which hard problems is \mathcal{T} sub-exp' in N ?

- early studies [Farhi et al., Hogg] on very small systems (number of bits $N \leq 24$) seemed to indicate that for some problems complexity scales like N^2 .
- later studies on bigger systems showed a “crossover” from polynomial to exponential complexity [Young et al.].
- matter is still in debate [Altshuler et al., Knysh and Smelyanskiy]. no clear-cut example. **Sergey's latest result.**

The quantum adiabatic algorithm

- another interesting unknown:

what is the future of adiabatic quantum computation?

- almost no examples that adiabatic quantum computation is efficient. however there exists an adiabatic version of Grover's search algorithm that uses "local adiabatic evolution".
- also, there is a correspondence between circuit-based computing and adiabatic computing [Aharonov et al., 2005].
- also, D-Wave Systems have built operational prototypical quantum annealers based on superconductor flux qubits (still being debated whether really quantum or not).

Satisfiability problems

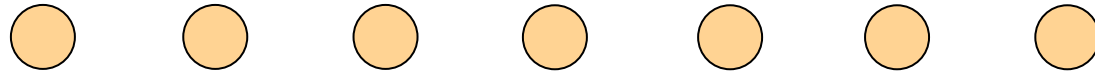
Satisfiability problems

- here, we consider certain “constraint satisfaction” (SAT) problems that are known to be hard classically.
- in SAT problems we ask whether there is an assignment of N bits (or Ising spins) which satisfies all of M clauses (or logical conditions). bits in each clause are chosen at random.

Satisfiability problems

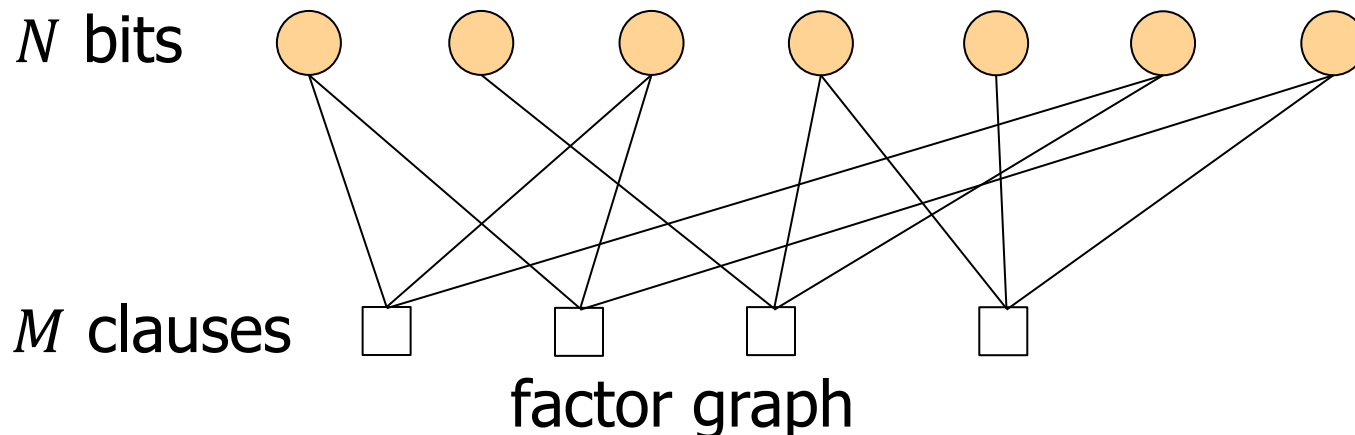
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N bits



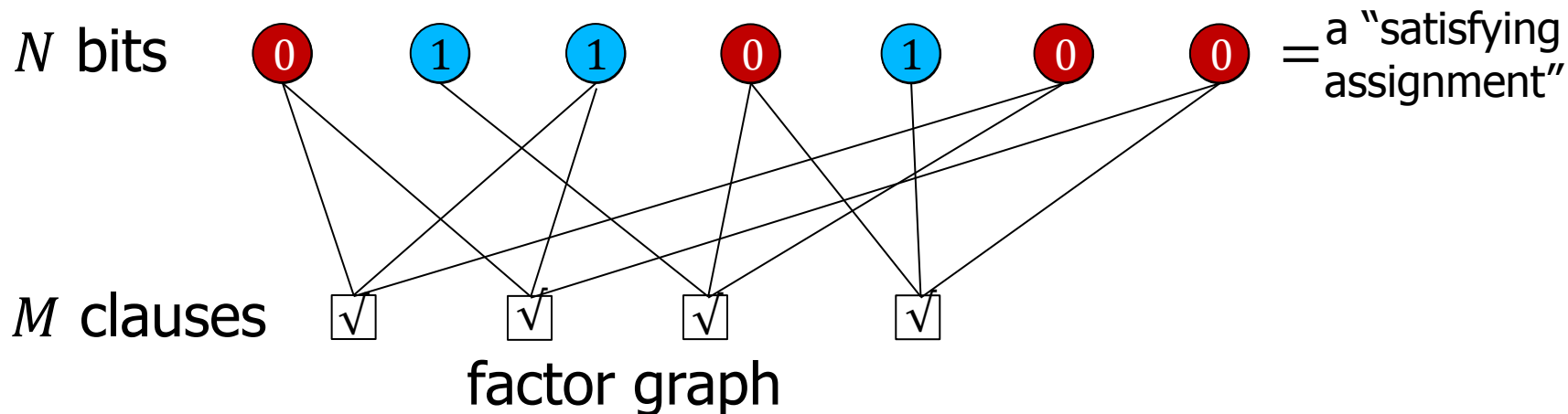
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- in SAT problems we ask whether there is an assignment of **N bits (or Ising spins)** which satisfies all of **M clauses** (or logical conditions). **bits in each clause are chosen at random.**
- an example for a clause containing the bits x_1, x_2, x_3 would be: $(x_1 \wedge \neg x_2 \wedge \neg x_3) \vee (x_2 \wedge \neg x_3 \wedge \neg x_1) \vee (x_3 \wedge \neg x_1 \wedge \neg x_2)$.



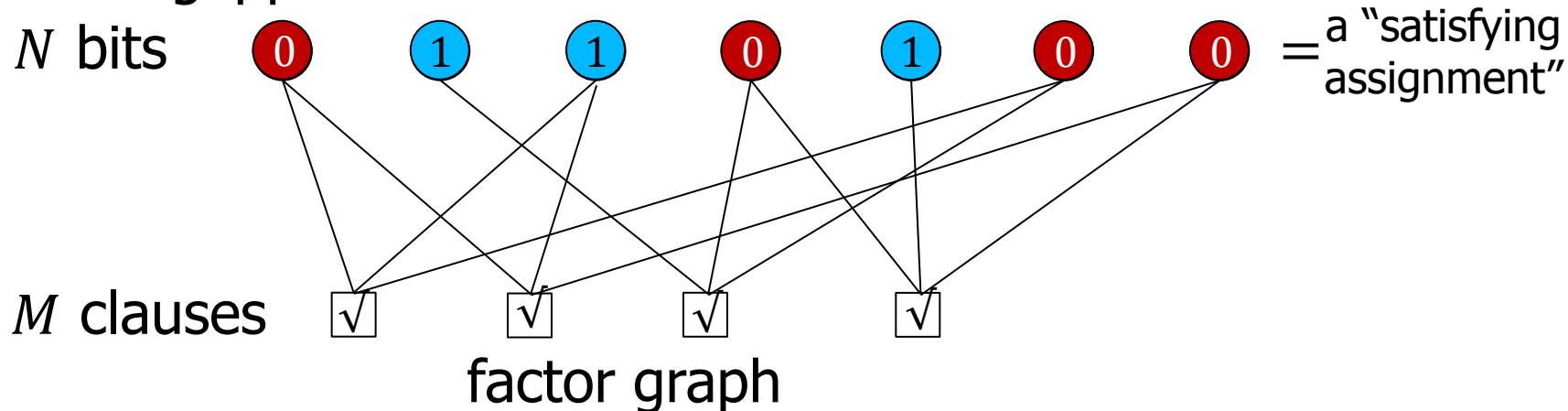
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Satisfiability problems

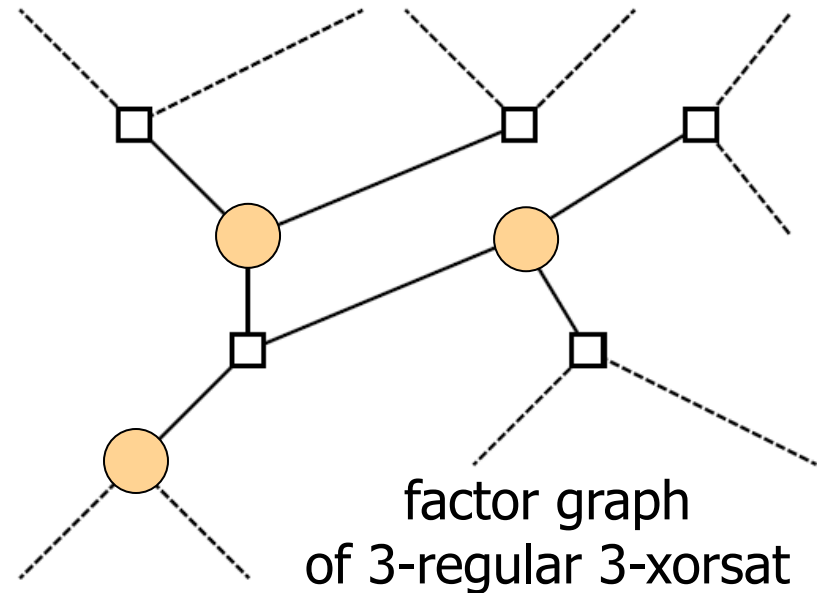
- for small M/N : easy to satisfy all clauses. exponential number of solutions or “satisfying assignments” (SAT phase).
- for large M/N : no satisfying solution exists (UNSAT phase).
- we take the ratio of M/N to be at the *satisfiability threshold*, where it is difficult to find a solution.
- we study random instances with a *unique satisfying assignment (USA)*. numerically more convenient because model is gapped.



Satisfiability problems

□ the SAT problems we examined:

- **locked 1-in-3:** a clause is a triplet of bits picked at random from a pool of N bits. it is satisfied if and only if exactly one bit is 1 and the other two are 0.
- **locked 2-in-4:** same as above only with 2 bits out of 4 in each clause that must be 1 [Zdeborová & Mézard, 08].
- **3-regular 3-xorsat** [Jörg et al]: here, each bit is exactly in 3 clauses and a clause is satisfied if the sum of the 3 bits in a clause (mod 2) is a value specified (0 or 1). this problem is in P.



The encoding Hamiltonians

- the SAT problems are encoded in problem Hamiltonians that are sums of clause Hamiltonians, each of the clauses is a sum of products of σ_i^Z matrices.

$$\hat{H}_p = \sum_{a=1..M} \hat{H}_a(\sigma_i^Z)$$

- the ground state of the problem Hamiltonian \hat{H}_p is a solution to the SAT problem. \hat{H}_p is diagonal in the computational basis.
- we choose the simplest possible driver Hamiltonian (e.g., equal weights):

$$\hat{H}_d = \sum_{i=1..N} \frac{1}{2} (1 - \sigma_i^x)$$

- this is a simple **transverse-field Hamiltonian**. it **does not commute with any of the problem Hamiltonians**. its **ground state is unique and its energy is 0**. the **gap is 1**.

Method

- main goal:

determine the complexity of the QAA for the various SAT problems

- study the dependence of the typical minimum gap

$$\Delta E_{\min} = \min_{s \in (0,1)} \Delta E$$

on the size N (number of bits) of the problem.

- this is because:

$$\mathcal{T} \propto 1 / \Delta E_{\min}^2$$

- polynomial dependence \rightarrow polynomial complexity!

Method

- ❑ for each given problem we study **several system sizes**, because we are **interested in size-dependence**.
- ❑ we consider **typically 50 instances per problem size**. to obtain “typical behavior” we take medians.
- ❑ for each instance, we **measure the gap of the system for several values of the parameter s** in order to obtain an accurate estimation of the minimum gap.
- ❑ for each s value, **we run a quantum Monte Carlo (QMC) simulation to obtain the gap** numerically (and other measurable quantities).

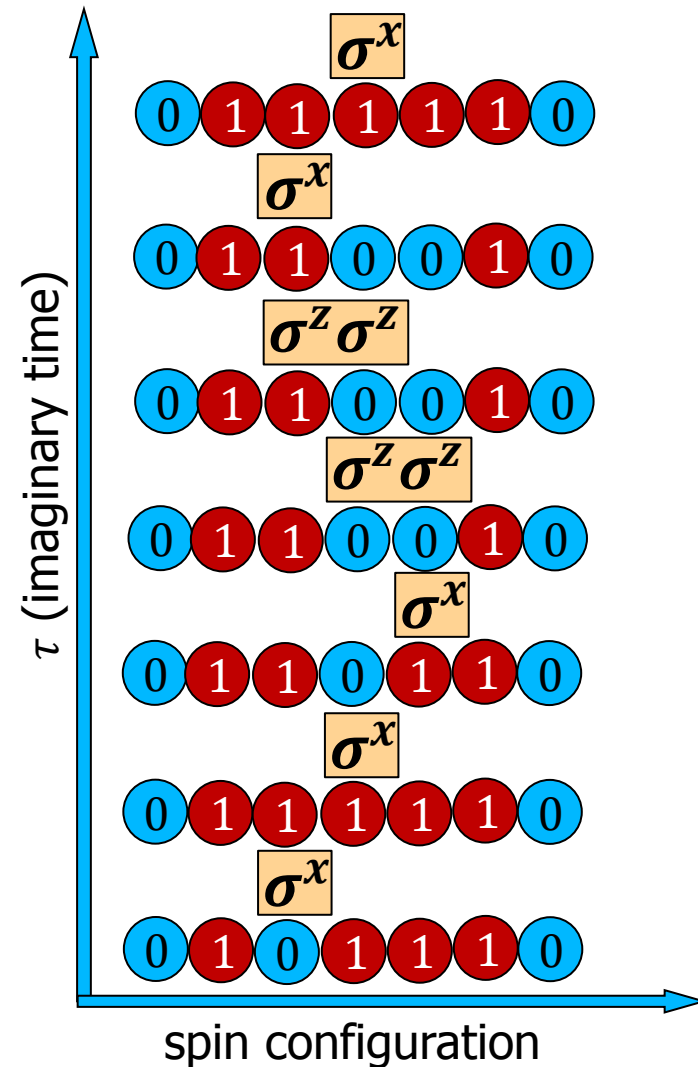
Quantum Monte Carlo

- for large system sizes, we can not use exact diagonalization.
- we employ a **continuous-time quantum Monte Carlo (QMC) technique**.
- an additional **periodic dimension of imaginary time** $0 \leq \tau < \beta$. β is the inverse-temperature obeying $\beta \Delta E_1 \gg 1$.
- with QMC we do a **sampling of the 2^N states** of the Hilbert space. **exact-numerical up to statistical errors**.
- QMC enables access to the **equilibrium properties of the system** but also provides **indirect access to the system gap**.
- here, we basically **simulate spin-1/2 systems with different interactions and different sizes**.
- we employ **parallel tempering (swapping configurations of adjacent s values)** which speeds up equilibration.

Quantum Monte Carlo: SSE

- we use the **stochastic series expansion** (SSE) algorithm devised by Anders Sandvik [Sandvik, 1991,1992,1994].
- algorithm is based on a **Taylor series expansion of the partition function** $Z = \text{Tr}[e^{-\beta\hat{H}}]$. no systematic errors.
- algorithm enables **both local and global (cluster or loop) updates** which in most cases prove to be more efficient than single-spin-flip (local) updates.

a typical segment of an SSE configuration



Extracting the gap

- we **extract the gap** of the system by measuring and **analyzing different-imaginary-time correlation functions** of certain operators:

$$C_A(\tau) = \langle \hat{A}(\tau) \hat{A}(0) \rangle - \langle \hat{A} \rangle^2$$

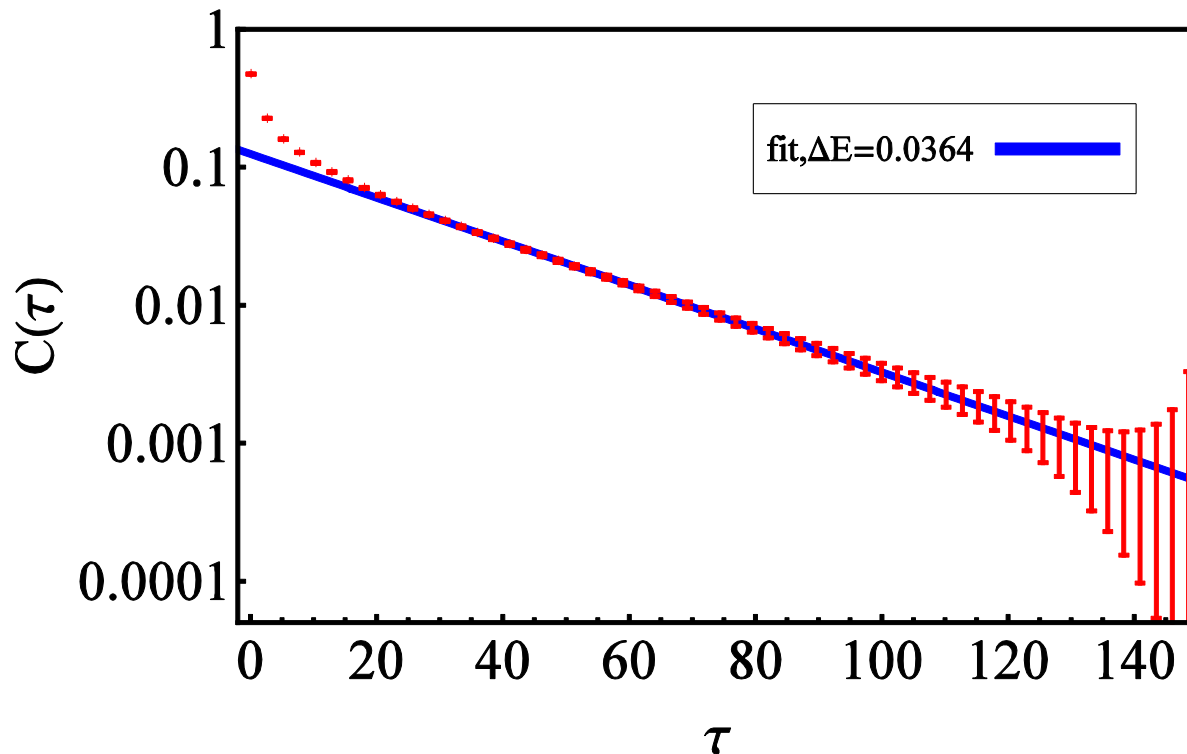
- if $\beta \Delta E_1 \gg 1$ (system is in its ground state) then at long imaginary times we have:

$$C_A(\tau) \cong |\langle 0 | \hat{A} | 1 \rangle|^2 e^{-\Delta E_1 \tau}$$

- i.e., **only the slowest-decaying exponent survives** (provided that the corresponding matrix element does not vanish).

Extracting the gap

- if conditions are right, then it is possible we extract the gap of the system.
- we use a **straight line fit on a log-linear scale**.
- however, data becomes very noisy at large imaginary times.



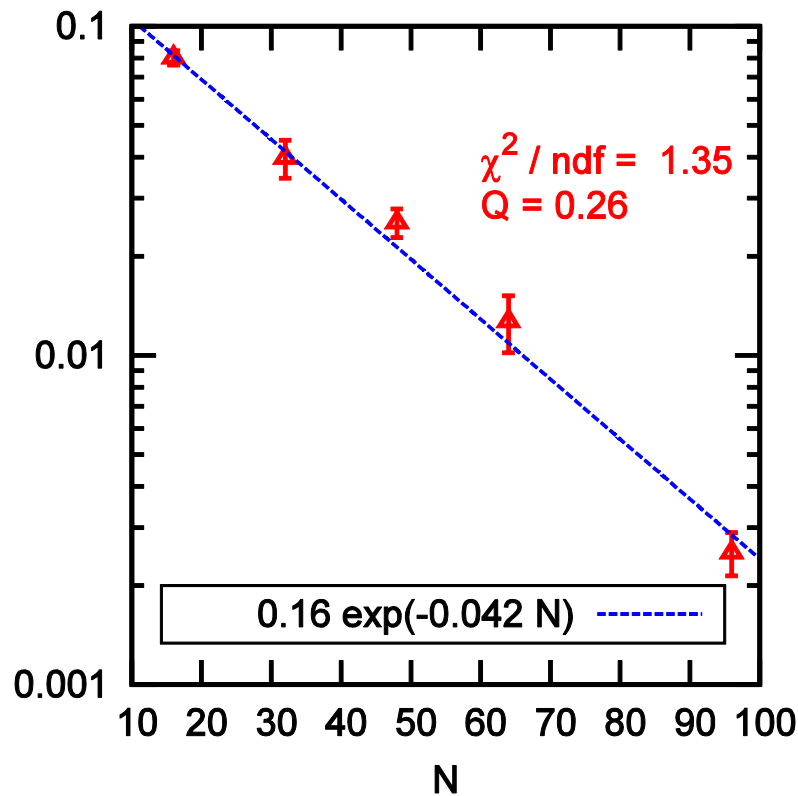
correlation function of a 64-spin instance of the locked-1-in-3 problem ($s = 0.39, \beta = 1024$). log-linear scale.

QMC results

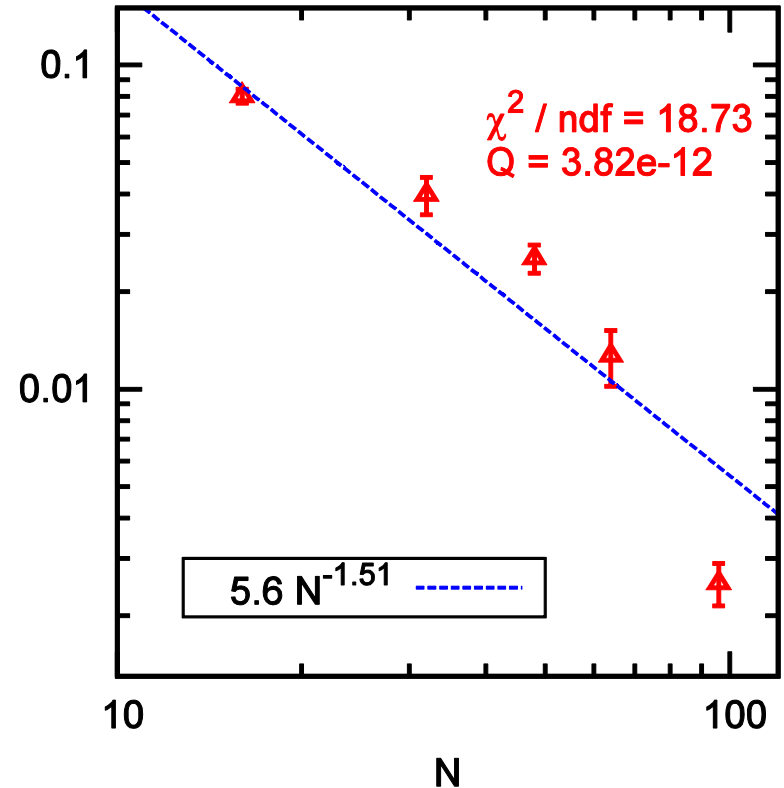
- main goal: to **determine the complexity of the QAA** for the various SAT problems.
- for each of the problems studied, we look at the **dependence of the typical (median) minimum gap on the size of the problem.**
- a **polynomially decreasing gap** would mean a polynomially increasing running time and hence QAA could be called **efficient.**
- an **exponentially decreasing gap** would mean that the QAA is **not more efficient** than the best classical algorithm.
- **heavy QMC simulations.** hundreds/thousands of cores, running in some cases for weeks/months.

Locked 1-in-3 SAT

plots of the median minimum gap vs problem size N



exponential (log-linear) fit

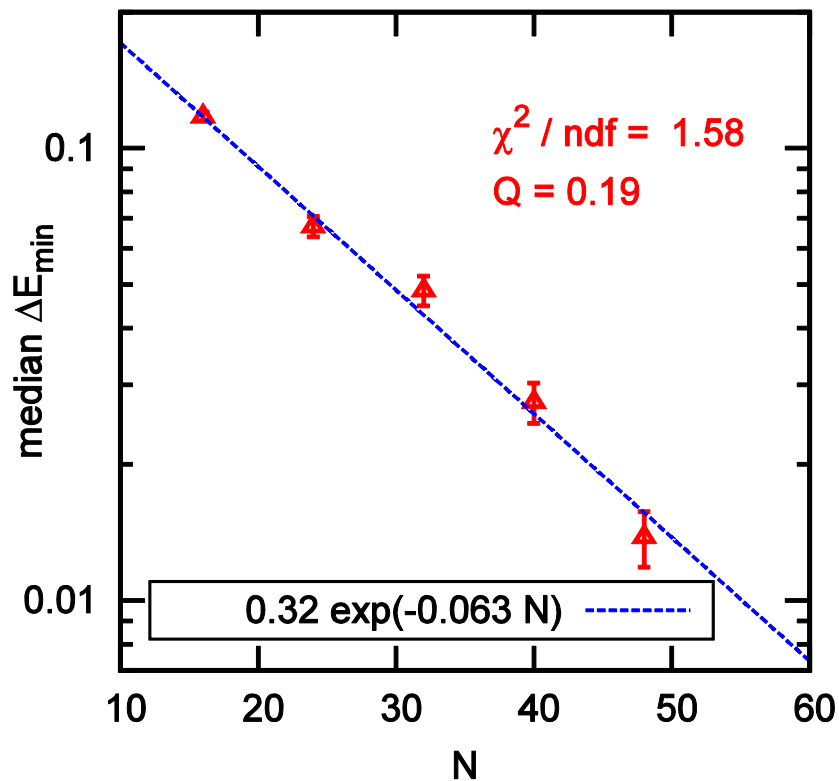


power-law (log-log) fit

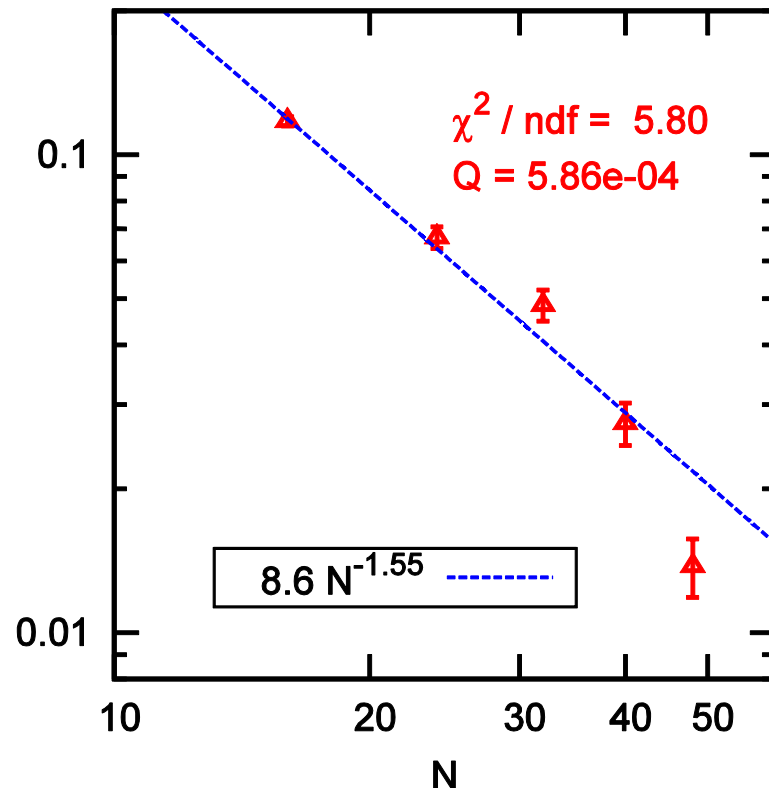
clearly, the behavior of the minimum gap is exponential.

Locked 2-in-4 SAT

plots of the median minimum gap vs problem size N



exponential (log-linear) fit



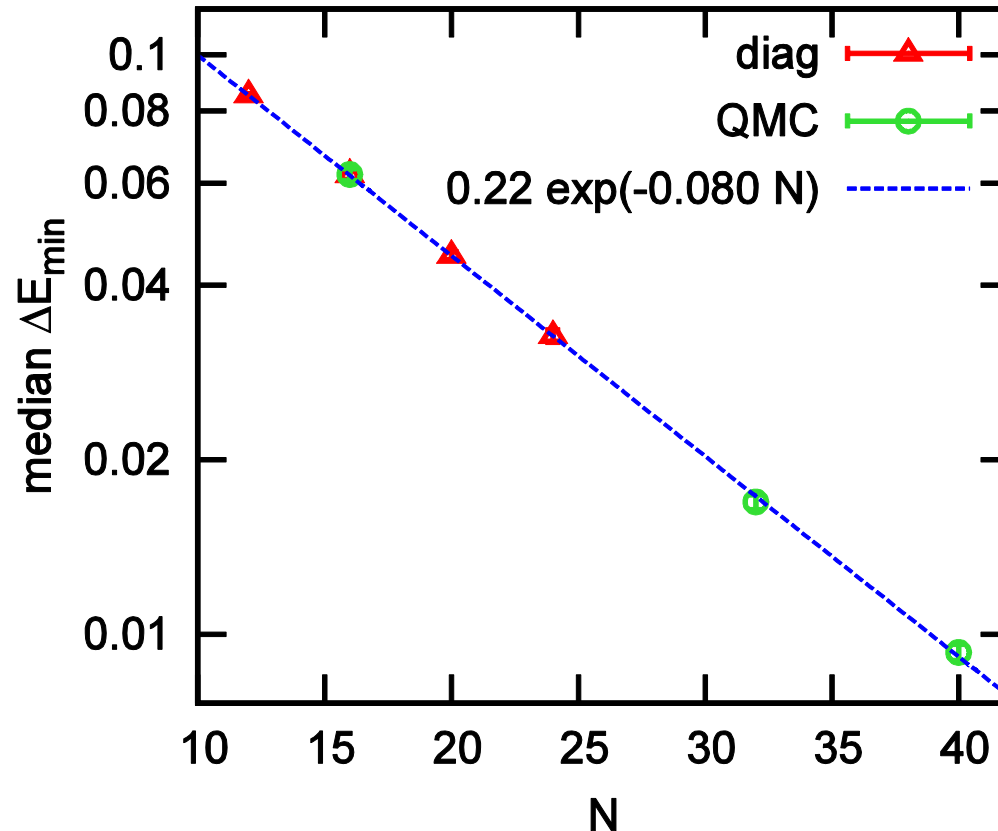
power-law (log-log) fit

clearly, the behavior of the minimum gap is exponential.

3-regular 3-XORSAT

exponential (i.e., log-linear) plot of the median minimum gap

3-reg XORSAT



median minimum gap is exponential,
even from small N , and even though problem is in P.

Comparison with a classical algorithm

- ❑ WalkSAT is a classical, heuristic, local search algorithm.
- ❑ it is a reasonable classical algorithm to compare with QAA [Guidetti and Young, 2010].
- ❑ the algorithm itself is very simple:
 - pick at random an unsatisfied clause and flip a bit in that clause.
 - with some probability this bit is chosen to be the one which causes the fewest previously satisfied clauses to become unsatisfied, and otherwise it is chosen at random.
 - repeat until the number of unsatisfied clauses is zero.

Comparison with a classical algorithm

- WalkSAT is a classical, heuristic, local search algorithm.
- it is a reasonable classical algorithm to compare with QAA [Guidetti and Young, 2010].
- the complexity of WalkSAT is determined by the amount of “bit flips” the algorithm performs until it reaches a solution.

$$\mathcal{T} \propto N_{\text{flips}} \sim \exp[\mu N]$$

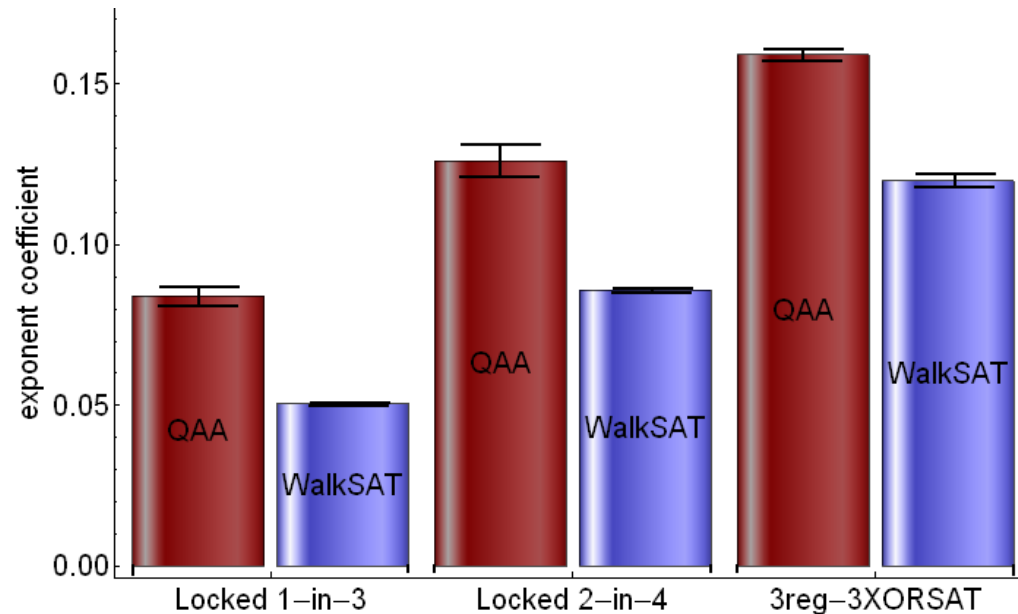
- for the QAA, we have

$$\mathcal{T} \propto \exp[2cN] \text{ for } \Delta E_1 \propto \exp[-cN]$$

- we can therefore compare exponent coefficients.

Comparison with a classical algorithm

- running times are proportional to $\exp[\mu N]$ where N is system size.



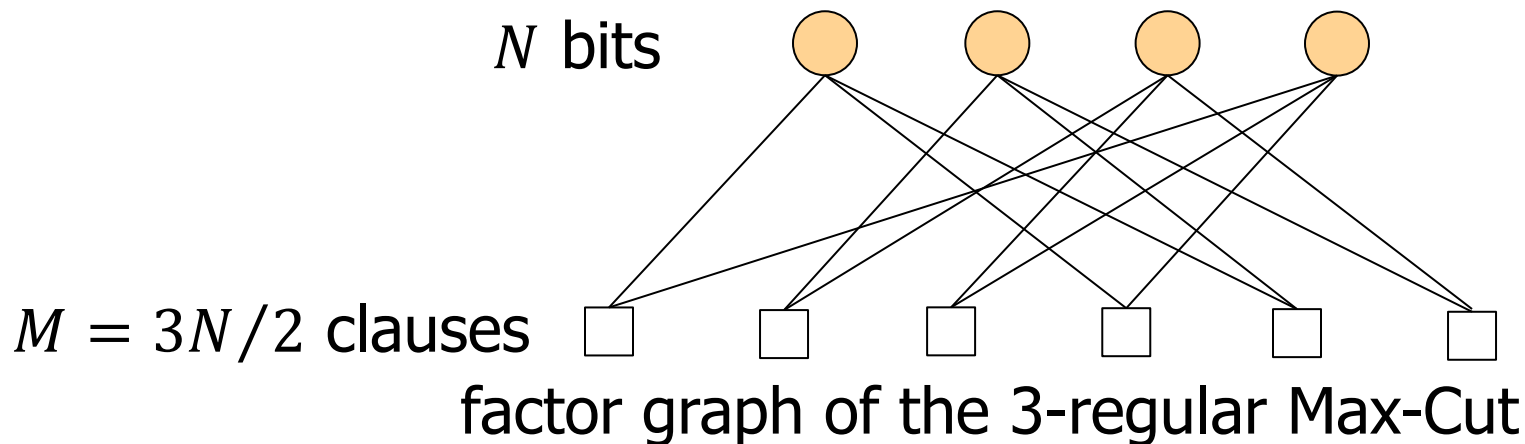
a comparison of the μ values among the different models and between QAA and WalkSAT

- WalkSAT is better, however we see the same trend.
- important to remember: we used here the simplest implementation of the QAA for instances with USA. algorithm can certainly be improved.

3-regular random antiferromagnet (3-reg Max-Cut)

3-regular Max-Cut

- we have also studied one "MAX" (i.e., optimization) problem.
- MAX means that we are in the UNSAT phase, and would like to find the configuration with the least number of unsatisfied clauses.
- 3-regular: each bit is in exactly 3 clauses.
- Max-Cut: sum of two bits (product of two spins) must be a specified value.



3-regular Max-Cut

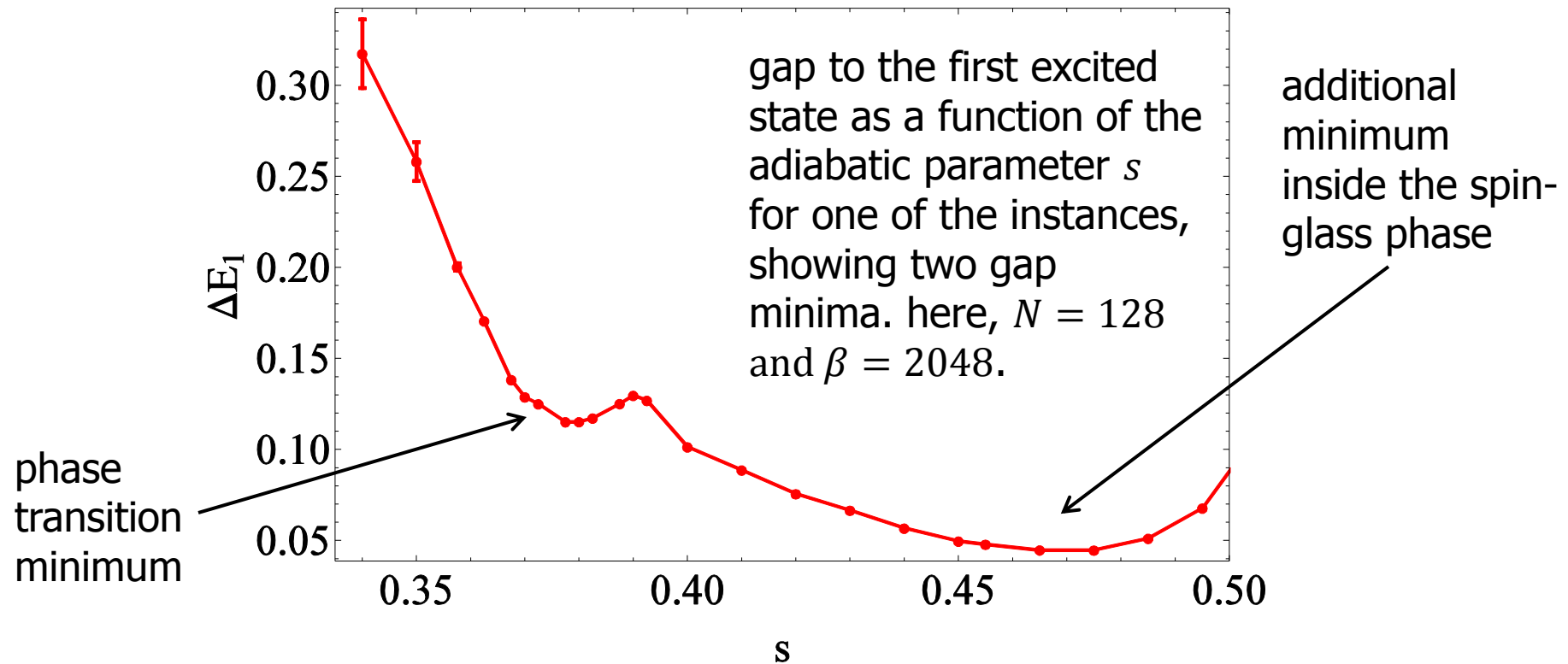
- in our case, the Hamiltonian of a clause is:

$$\hat{H}_a = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_{a1}^z \sigma_{a2}^z + 1)$$

- product of spins in a clause must be -1 to satisfy the clause.
- this is a 3-regular **antiferromagnet on a random graph**. note the symmetry under bit flips.
- however, solution is not a simple “up-down” antiferromagnet because of **loops of odd length**. in fact, **this is a *spin-glass***.
- after adding a Driver Hamiltonian, **there is a quantum phase transition above which symmetry is spontaneously broken**.
- “Cavity” calculations (Gosset/Zamponi) find the transition at $s \approx 0.36$.

3-regular Max-Cut

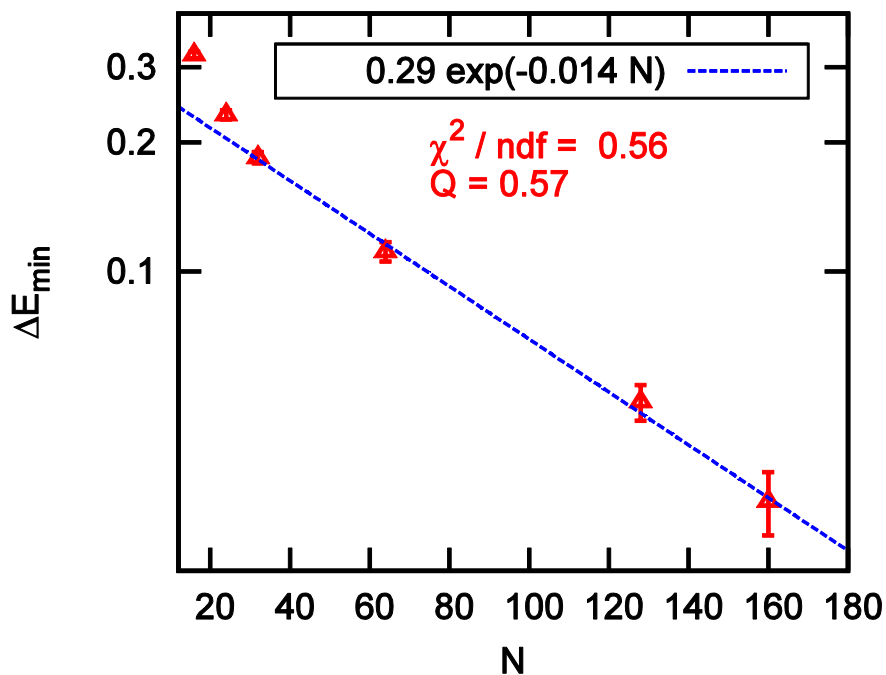
- we observe minima near the expected phase transition (where the critical point was determined precisely)
- there are however **additional avoided crossings inside the spin-glass phase** as well



3-regular Max-Cut

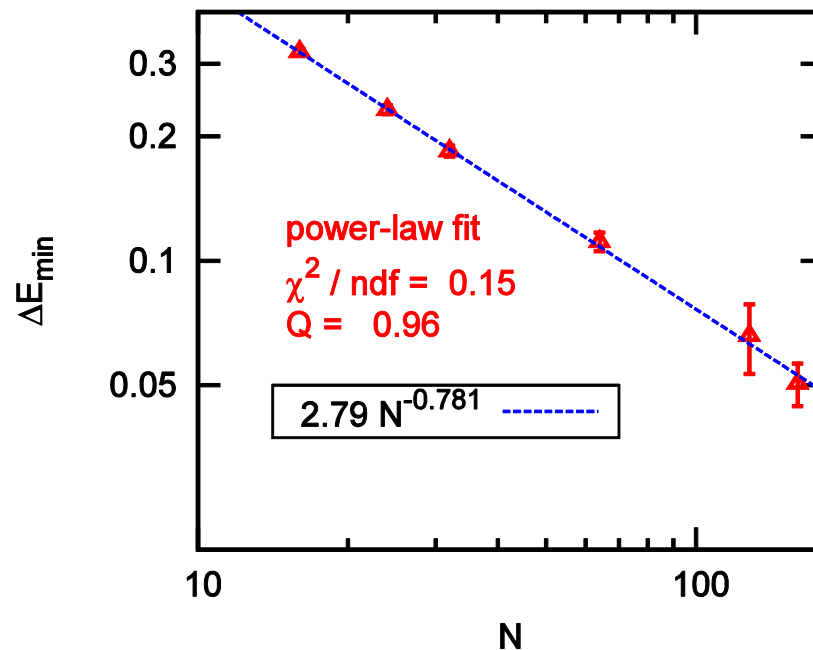
median minimum gap in the vicinity of the quantum transition

3-reg MAX-2-XORSAT



exponential (log-linear) fit

3-reg MAX-2-XORSAT (near 0.36)



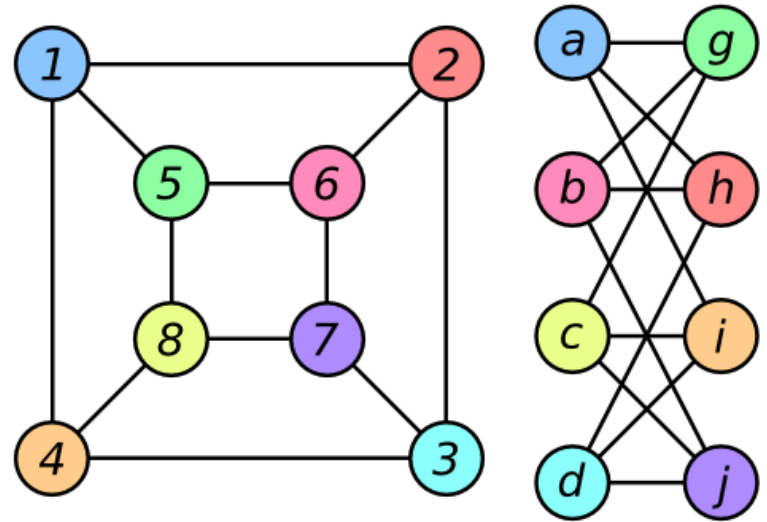
power-law (log-log) fit
near phase transition

gap is polynomial near the phase transition, however
additional avoided level crossings lead to an exponential gap

The graph isomorphism problem

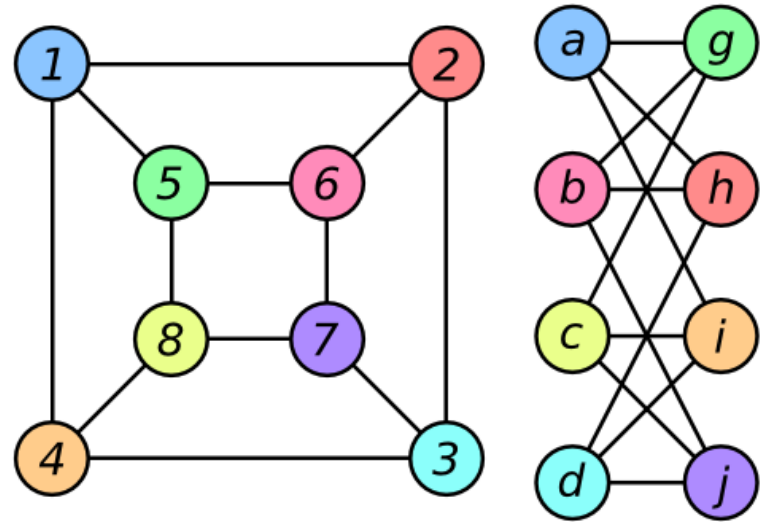
The graph isomorphism problem

- are two graphs the same upon permuting the indices?
- how could one use **adiabatic quantum computation** to answer this question?
- conjecture: **all non-isomorphic graphs can be distinguished by putting a suitable Hamiltonian on the edges of a graph:**
 - we construct a problem Hamiltonian for each graph.
 - we run the QAA a multiple number of times.
 - we compute appropriate average physically measurable quantities by repeated measurements.



The graph isomorphism problem

- if the Hamiltonian and the quantities we choose are invariant under permutation of the indices, isomorphic graphs will give the same results.
- we hypothesize that non-isomorphic graphs can always be distinguished.
- we have tested the hypothesis for some **small graphs** ($N \leq 29$) from **various families of graphs** that are known to be hard to distinguish (same adjacency matrices).
- **so far, method seems to work** if measurements are accurate enough.



The graph isomorphism problem

- we tried the “spin-glass” antiferromagnet on the graph:

$$\hat{H}_p(G) = \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle \in G} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z$$

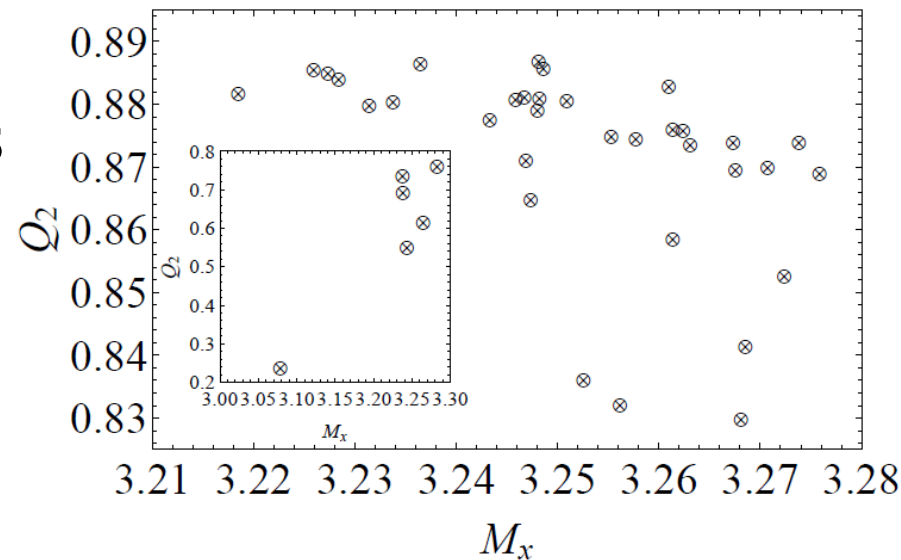
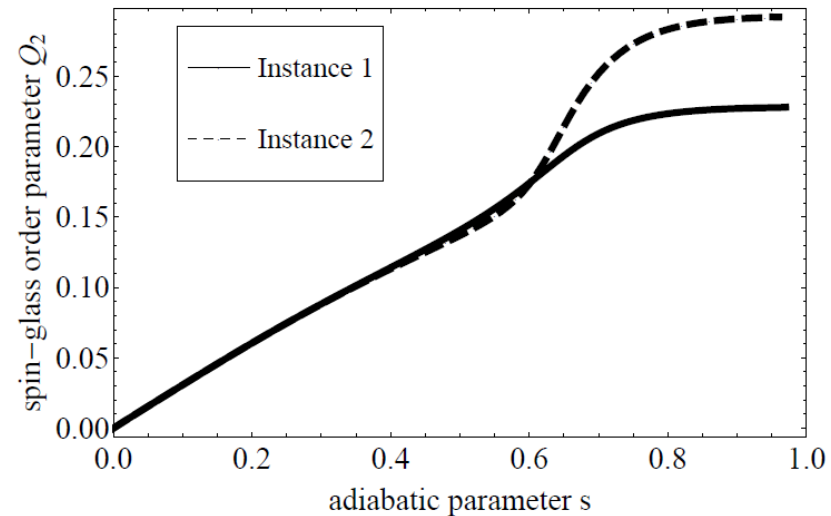
- main results are for Strongly Regular Graphs (SRG's; families of similar but non-isomorphic graphs) but not just. we considered sizes from $N = 15$ to 29 vertices.
- we computed energy, x -magnetization (M_x) and the spin glass order parameter (Q_2) for different values of the adiabatic parameter s :

$$M_x = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \langle \sigma_i^x \rangle$$

$$Q_2 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i \neq j} \langle \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z \rangle}$$

The graph isomorphism problem

- the value of Q_2 , the spin-glass order parameter, in the ground state for the two non-isomorphic SRG's on $N = 16$ vertices, as a function of the adiabatic parameter s . the two graphs are clearly distinguished.
- scatterplot of Q_2 against M_x in the $s \rightarrow 1$ limit for the 41 SRG's with $N = 29$. the QAA distinguishes all graphs in the family in that limit (although some of the values are close together).



The graph isomorphism problem

- ❑ perhaps there are “better” Hamiltonians than the one chosen here. here, we have used “glassiness” to solve the graph isomorphism problem.
- ❑ perhaps there are better measurements that can be performed in order to distinguish between graphs, e.g., susceptibilities. here, we have mainly used the spin-glass order parameter.
- ❑ can be tested experimentally on existing D-Wave hardware with relatively minor modifications.
- ❑ it is unclear whether or not the algorithm is efficient. what is the nature of the quantum phase transition? need to investigate size-dependence of minimum gap.
- ❑ clearly more testing is needed.

Conclusions and future research

Conclusions

- ❑ for the SAT problems investigated, we don't find that QAA is better than state-of-the-art classical algorithms.
- ❑ we find that the harder a problem is for classical algorithms (WalkSAT), the harder it is also for the QAA.
- ❑ for the Max-Cut (random antiferromagnet) problem, results point to a polynomially decreasing gap near the quantum phase transition. it seems however that the overall gap behavior is exponential.
- ❑ QAA seems to be able to solve the graph isomorphism problem (more tests are needed) however the efficiency of the algorithm is not yet known.