Lecture 2: Problem mappings and a bit of (classical) complexity theory fun

September 30, 2022



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1 Overview: what is in this lecture

- What it does (and more importantly doesn't) mean for a problem to be NP-Hard, with cautionary example
 - Funtime bonus! how to show Super Mario is (NP)-Hard
- The relationship between Ising and QUBO formalisms and why they can be used almost interchangeably
- Mapping more connected graphs to less connected: minor embedding and parity encoding
- Mapping higher order interactions
- Mapping higher than binary variables (one hot, binary encoding, and domain wall)

2 NP-hardness

• NP stands for non-deterministic polynomial (not "non-polynomial"!): this means that a "maximally lucky" Monte-Carlo type algorithm¹ could solve

 $^{^{1}\}mathrm{technically}$ any algorithm run on a non-deterministic Turning machine which gets maximally lucky

the problem in polynomial time, even if every bit is wrong this only takes n bit flips

- P?=NP, can a non-cheating i.e. not maximally lucky algorithm solve these in polynomial time, strongly suspected but not proven that $P \neq NP$
- Can be mapped into each other in polynomial time/space, showing that one can be solved in poly time shows that all can
- There are harder classes of problems for example #P hard → how many solutions does a problem have, even "maximally lucky" algorithms cannot solve these in polynomial time because there may be exponentially many solutions

3 Using NP-hard problems to benchmark solvers

- Finding ground state of Ising problem D-Wave chimera graph is NP-hard (easy to show actually, just max-cut mapping+how to map arbitrary graphs, which I will explain later)
- Take random Ising instances and use them for benchmarking (these are hard problems right? the problem class has "hard" right in the name) [1, 2]
- Actually no, [3] showed using spin glass theory that these problems are easy to solve using simulated annealing type algorithms (no finite T spin glass transition)
- What is going on? did the authors of [3] accidentally show that P=NP?
 - No, they showed that that these problems are typically easy, NP-hardness is about what can be mapped and is therefore a worst case statement²

4 More on NP-hardness

- Many other problems are actually NP-hard but typical cases are (at least computationally) easy, my favourite example, playing Super Mario (not joking, see [4] for a mapping of 3-SAT to Super Mario and other classic games)
- How it works (slightly simplified from the paper but same idea):
 - 1. For each variable a_i you can choose one pipe True or False, for true you get to a pipe for all clauses which involve a and if you chose false you get one for all involving $\neg a$

²I am not trying to belittle the authors of [1, 2], they do amazing work and are leaders in the field, I would have probably made the same mistake in their shoes

- 2. These pipes go underneath boxes where you can release invincibility stars
- 3. Then you go where the stars are, there is fire, if at least one star you can make it through, if not, too bad
- 4. Can only beat the level if you find a satisfying arrangement!
- In all seriousness, [4] is a really accessible way to learn the basic of how these hardness proofs work
- So what do you want for benchmarking? *uniform* hardness, much more difficult to prove, doesn't just require you to show mapping
- Final note: even though these problems all map to each other with polynomial overhead, not all polynomial overheads are equal (big difference in practice between n^2 and n^3 for example) \rightarrow finding good mappings is important

5 Mapping problems to quantum annealers

 What you have (hardware) → Ising model with two body interactions and not all connections allowed

$$H_{\text{Ising}} = \sum_{ij \in \chi} J_{ij} Z_i Z_j + \sum_i h_i Z_i \tag{1}$$

- What real problems often have
 - Usually not expressed as Ising models
 - Unlikely to match the graph of your hardware (unless you design special hardware to match the structure)
 - Interactions involving more than two variables (think 3-SAT)
 - Variables may be higher than binary
- In principle all of these issues are solvable assuming your hardware is big enough and has enough dynamic range (range of values the h's and J's can take)

6 First mapping QUBO to Ising

- Physicists love Ising models, but no-one else cares
- Optimisation problems often represented as QUBO's (Quadratic Unconstrained Binary Optimisation)

$$E = \vec{x}^T * Q * \vec{x} \tag{2}$$

- $-\vec{x}_i \in \{0,1\}$ the B in QUBO (*U* comes from the fact that any value is allowed)
- $-\ Q$ involves both diagonal and off diagonal elements 2=quadratic=the Q in QUBO
- Goal is to minimize E (the O in QUBO)

How to map this to an Ising model:

- $x_i x_i = x_i$ up to irrevelvant constant offset, can transform to $-\frac{Q_{ii}}{2} Z_i^3$
- $x_i x_j$ for $i \neq j$, a bit trickier, because $x_i x_j$ is only non-zero if both variables are 1 need both single and two body terms
 - 1. $-Z_i Z_j$ will give $|11\rangle$ a higher energy than $|10\rangle$ or $|01\rangle$ but will give $|00\rangle$ an even lower energy
 - 2. Z_iZ_j can be used to offset $|00\rangle$ so that $|10\rangle$, $|01\rangle$, and $|00\rangle$ all have the same energy
 - 3. $-Z_i Z_j + Z_i Z_j$ will give -1 for $|10\rangle$, $|01\rangle$, and $|00\rangle$ and +3 for $|11\rangle$ \rightarrow normalize by dividing by 4
 - 4. End up with $\frac{Q_{ij}}{4}(-Z_i-Z_j+Z_iZ_j)$ (note this also works for diagonal elements if we recall that Z_iZ_i gives the identity
- Could have also taken a shortcut $x_i \to \frac{1}{2}(1-Z_i)$ and factored out and ignored constants

7 How to map to hardware graph

• Minor embedding: take a graph minor (a connected subcomponent of a graph), and couple together with strong ferromagnetic coupling

$$-\lambda \sum_{\text{chains }(i,j \in \text{chain})} Z_i Z_j \tag{3}$$

- As long as λ is "big enough" I can force all qubits in chain to take same value [5]
- Act like one variable
- Graph needs to be non-planar (needs some crossings), but can have highly local connectivity
- Quasi-planar graphs (local connectivity in small region) can embed fully connected graphs but require n^2 variables [6]

 $^{^{3}}$ Recall $\langle 1 | Z_i | 1 \rangle = -1$

- Alternative approach: parity mapping, each physical qubit corresponds to a coupler in a fully connected graph, four body terms enforce logical consistency (all neighbouring qubits see same value)
- Parity schemes, such as the LHZ (Lechner-Hauke-Zoller) scheme [7, 8], flipping a single variable, need to keep flipping until all constraints are satisfied
- Not clear which is better, LHZ allows for more clever decoding, but numerics show minor embedding performs better in some practical cases [9]

8 More than 2 body terms

- Core idea: add constrained auxilliary qubits and penalize those as well
- Simple example: $Z_i Z_j Z_k$, add a single auxilliary qubit, a, and constrain with $-\lambda(Z_i Z_a + Z_j Z_a + Z_k Z_a)$, for large λ this constrains a to take a majority vote of the three qubits
- Problem: without adding more penalties, the $|000\rangle$ state gets a -3λ contribution to the energy, while $|011\rangle$ only gets $-\lambda$
- Solution: add $\frac{\lambda}{2}(Z_iZ_j + Z_jZ_k + Z_iZ_k)$, now we get $-\frac{3}{2}\lambda$ contribution from both, everything else works out by symmetry (try it if you don't believe me)
- Now let's actually make a $Z_i Z_j Z_k$, penalizing the majority vote $-Z_a$ almost does the right thing, except for it gives $|111\rangle$ and $|000\rangle$ the wrong energies, fix by adding single body terms after some algebra we find

$$Z_i Z_j Z_k \rightarrow Z_i + Z_j + Z_k + 2Z_a + \lambda \left(\frac{1}{2} (Z_i Z_j + Z_j Z_k + Z_i Z_k) - Z_i Z_a - Z_j Z_a - Z_k Z_a \right)$$

$$\tag{4}$$

- $Z_i Z_j Z_k$ terms can be chained together to make arbitrary multi-body terms $(Z_i Z_j Z_k Z_l \to Z_i Z_j Z_a + Z_a Z_k Z_l)$ [10] alternative trick based on symmetry in [11]
- Many other ways to do this I am not going to talk about, this is just to give you a flavour of how this works

9 Higher-than-binary variables

• Variables which represent more than two mutually exclusive possibilities, but still only interact pairwise discrete quadratic modes (DQMs)

- Examples: scheduling (where individual events may use the same resource and therefore conflict), colouring (where adjacent nodes can't be the same colour)
- Most efficient way to do this in principle: encode each value in a binary string (binary encoding)
- ullet In principle we know how to make ZZZ...Z terms, and these can encode any interaction
- In practice:
 - If we have two variables of size m than it will take m^2 Ising terms to express each interaction
 - Anything ZZZ or higher will require at least one auxilliary qubit
 - Not very practical for general interactions
 - Some specific interactions (i.e. multiplication of numbers) can be expressed efficiently in this way [12]
- A different approach: unary encodings, number of qubits scales with m rather than log(m), but interactions easier
- One-hot encoding, enforce constraint that exactly one of a set of m qubits takes a $|1\rangle$ value, easier to imagine as a QUBO, set constraint $\lambda(\sum_i x_i 1)^2$
- Since each qubit corresponds to a value the variable can take, interactions are of the form $x_{i,\alpha}x_{j,\beta}$, where (α,β) index variables and (i,j) index values
- A different way to do this, domain-wall encoding [13], use m-1 Ising Qubits in a frustrated chain $-\lambda(-Z_1+\sum_{i=1}^{m-2}Z_iZ_{i+1}+Z_{m-1})$
- m fold degenerate ground state of domain wall states (where exactly one term is frustrated), can be addressed by terms of the form $Z_{i+1} Z_i$ which give zero if there is no domain wall between i and i + 1, but 1 if there is, products of these terms are quadratic
- Domain-wall encoding is a new idea, but recent work shows it performs better [14], and it can be shown to be maximally optimal if generic interactions are desired [15]

10 Key Points

- NP-hard does not mean "non-polynomial", instead non-deterministic polynomial relating to a (fictional) maximally lucky device
- It is a "worst case" statement random instances may not be hard (Super Mario levels are not typically (computationally) hard)

- Uniform hardness is the case where random instances are hard, much more difficult to prove
- Real problems do not look like Ising models, and need to be mapped to hardware graphs
- Most mapping involves constraining to an optimal subspace and potentially adding extra qubits
- Better problem mapping for annealing is an area of active research

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