The Walrus: the fastest calculation of hafnians, Hermite polynomials and Gaussian boson sampling

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Summary

The hafnian matrix function was introduced by Caianiello (1953) as a generalization of the permanent while studying problems in bosonic quantum field theory. For a symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T$ of size $2n$, the hafnian (haf) is defined as

$$\mathrm{haf}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathrm{PMP}(2n)} \prod_{i=1}^{n} A_{\sigma(2i-1),\sigma(2i)},$$

where $\mathrm{PMP}(2n)$ is the set of perfect matching permutations of $2n$ elements, i.e., permutations $\sigma : [2n] \to [2n]$ such that $\sigma(2i-1) < \sigma(2i)$ and $\sigma(2i-1) < \sigma(2i+1)$ for all i (Barvinok 2016).

While the permanent counts the number of perfect matchings of a *bipartite* graph encoded in an adjacency matrix $\mathbf{B}$, the hafnian counts the number of perfect matchings of an *arbitrary undirected graph*, and thus the permanent is a special case of the hafnian; this relation is encapsulated in the identity $\mathrm{perm}(\mathbf{B}) = \mathrm{haf}\left(\left[\begin{smallmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{B}^T & \mathbf{0} \end{smallmatrix}\right]\right)$.

The permanent has received a significant amount of attention, especially after Valiant (1979) proved that it is #P-hard to compute, giving one of the first examples of a problem in this complexity class. This important complexity-theoretic observation was predated by Ryser (1963), who provided an algorithm to calculate the permanent of an arbitrary matrix of size $n \times n$ in $O(2^n)$ time, which is still to date the fastest algorithm for calculating permanents.

Surprisingly, it took almost half a century to derive a formula for hafnians that matched the complexity of the one for permanents. Indeed, it was only Björklund (2012) who derived an algorithm that computed the hafnian of a $2n \times 2n$ matrix in time $O(2^n)$.

The interest in hafnians was recently reignited by findings in quantum computing. Gaussian Boson Sampling (GBS) (Hamilton et al. 2017; Kruse et al. 2018) is a non-universal model of quantum computation in which it is possible to show that there are computations a quantum computer can do in polynomial time that a classical computer cannot. Experimentally, GBS is based on the idea that a certain subset of quantum states, so-called Gaussian states, can be easily prepared in physical devices, and then those states can be measured with particle-number resolving detectors. Because these are quantum mechanical particles, the outcomes of the measurements are stochastic in nature and it is precisely the simulation of these random "samples" that requires superpolynomial time to simulate on a classical computer.

The relation between GBS and hafnians stems from the fact that the probability of a given experimental outcome is proportional to the hafnian of a matrix constructed from the covariance matrix of the Gaussian state. This observation requires the Gaussian state to have zero mean and the detector to be able to resolve any number of particles. More generally, one can consider Gaussian states with finite mean (N Quesada 2019; N Quesada et al. 2019), in which the probability is given by a loop hafnian, a matrix function that counts the number of perfect matchings of a graph that has loops (Björklund, Gupt, and Quesada 2019). Moreover, if the particle detectors can only decide whether there were zero or more than zero particles – so-called threshold detectors – then the probability is given by the torontonian, a matrix function that acts as a generating function for the hafnian (Quesada, Arrazola, and Killoran 2018). One can also show that the probabilities of a Gaussian state probed in the number basis are related to multidimensional Hermite polynomials (Dodonov, Man'ko, and Man'ko 1994). Calculating the probabilities of a GBS experiment in terms of multidimensional Hermite polynomials is often suboptimal since they have worse space and time scaling than the corresponding calculation in terms of hafnians.

In The Walrus, we provide a highly efficient implementation of the best known algorithms for hafnians, loop hafnians, Hermite polynomials, and torontonians of generic real and complex matrices. We also implement algorithms that specialize to certain matrices with structure, for example having repeated rows and columns (Kan 2008) or non-negative entries (Barvinok 1999). For increased efficiency, these algorithms are implemented in C++ as a templated header-only library, allowing them to be applied to arbitrary numeric types and are also parallelized via OpenMP. Common linear algebra algorithms are applied using the Eigen C++ template library, which may also act as a frontend to an optimized BLAS/LAPACKE library installation if the user so chooses. For ease of use, a Python interface to the low-level C++ algorithms is also provided, as well as pre-compiled static libraries installable via the Python package manager `pip` for Windows, MacOS, and Linux users. We also provide implementations of multidimensional Hermite polynomials, that are, to the best of our knowledge, the first ones implemented in a fast open source library. With this underlying machinery we also provide two extra Python-only modules. The first one, *quantum*, allows one to calculate in an efficient manner the probabilities or probability amplitudes of Gaussian states in the particle representation. The second one, *samples*, allows one to generate GBS samples. This module implements state-of-the-art algorithms that have been recently developed (Nicolas Quesada and Arrazola 2019). Of course, given the promise that GBS should be a hard problem for classical computers, the complexity of the algorithm we provide for GBS is, like the complexity of the hafnian, still exponential in the size of the number of particles generated.

Our package has already been used in several research efforts to understand how to generate resource states for universal quantum computing (N Quesada et al. 2019), study the dynamics of vibrational quanta in molecules (N Quesada 2019), and develop the applications of GBS to molecular docking (Banchi et al. 2019), graph theory (Schuld et al. 2019), and point processes (Jahangiri et al. 2019). More importantly, it has been useful in delineating when quantum computation can be simulated by classical computing resources and when it cannot (Gupt et al. 2018; Nicolas Quesada and Arrazola 2019; Killoran et al. 2019).

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