Combinatorial Optimization on Quantum Computers

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PART 0: SOME BIG-PICTURE CONSIDERATIONS

Complexity of solving problems

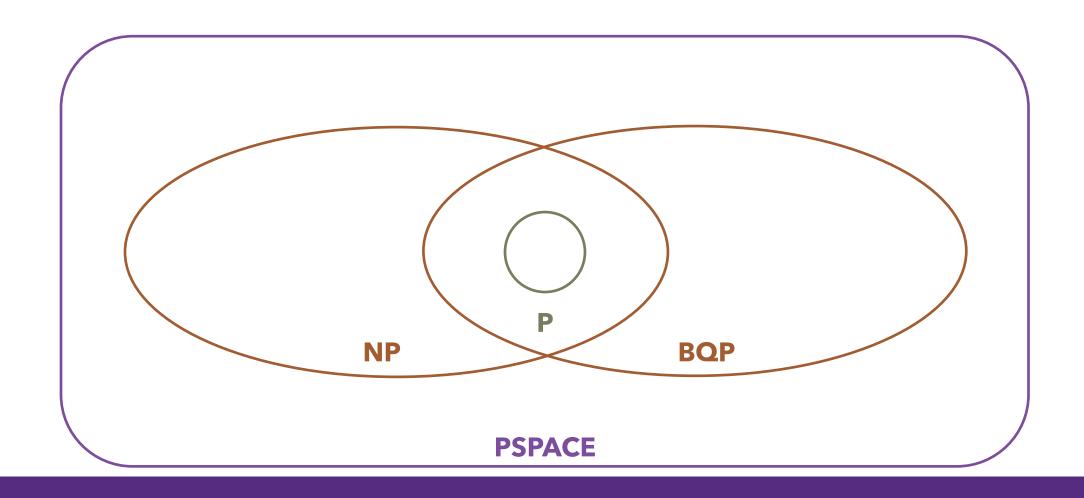
 When reasoning about complexity of solving problems (including optimization problems!), we are usually interested in how the time / memory requirements grow with problem size (asymptotic complexity)

Complexity of solving problems

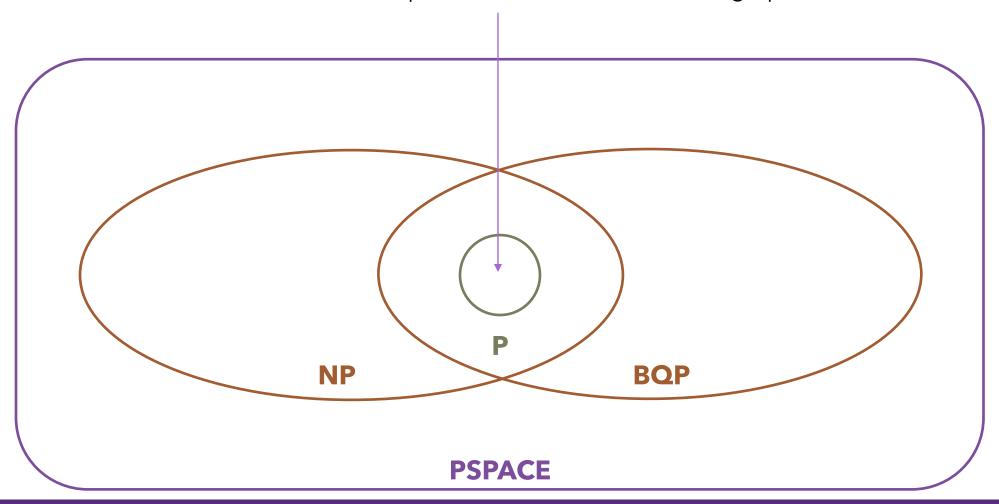
- When reasoning about complexity of solving problems (including optimization problems!), we are usually interested in how the time / memory requirements grow with problem size (asymptotic complexity)
- Famous classes of problems:
 - P solvable in polynomial time
 - NP can verify proof of the solution in polynomial time
 - PSPACE solvable in polynomial space (and unlimited time)

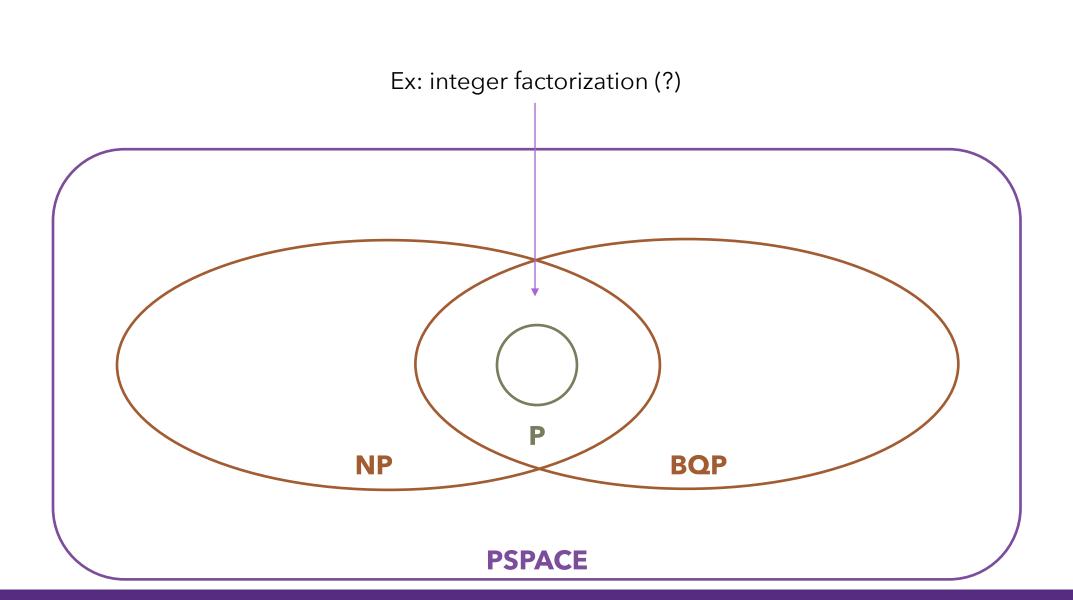
Complexity of solving problems

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- Famous classes of problems:
 - P solvable in polynomial time
 - NP can verify *proof* of the solution in polynomial time
 - PSPACE solvable in polynomial time (and unlimited space)
- Quantum complexity class that we are most interested in:
 - BQP (bounded-error quantum polynomial time) solvable on a quantum computer in polynomial time, with an error probability of at most 1/3 for all instances

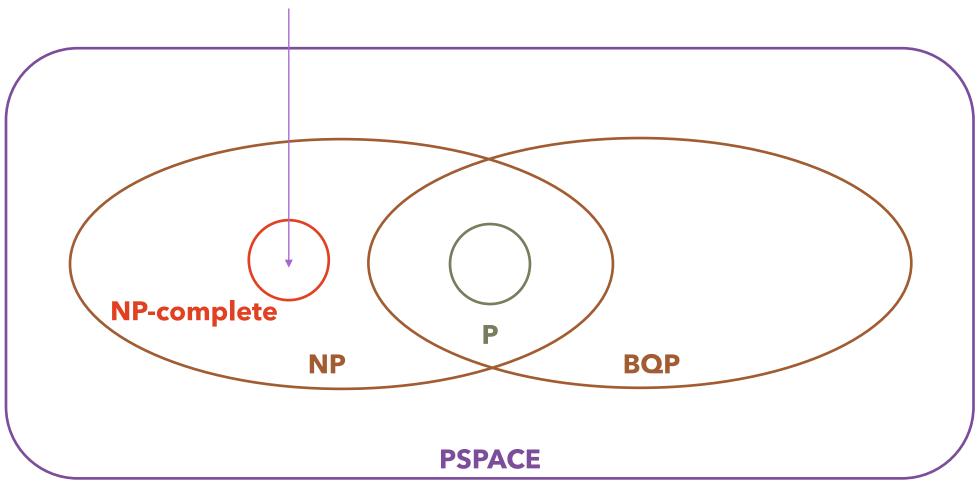


Ex: Find shortest path between two nodes in a graph

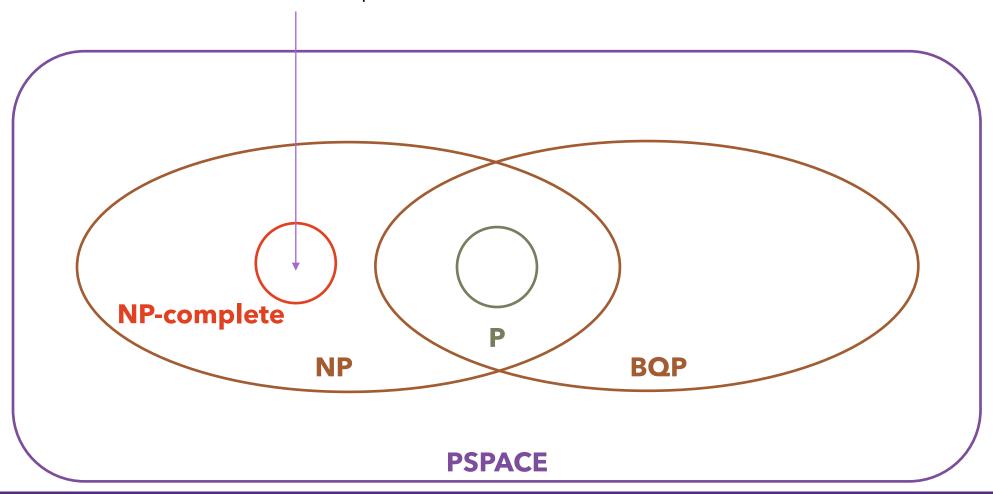




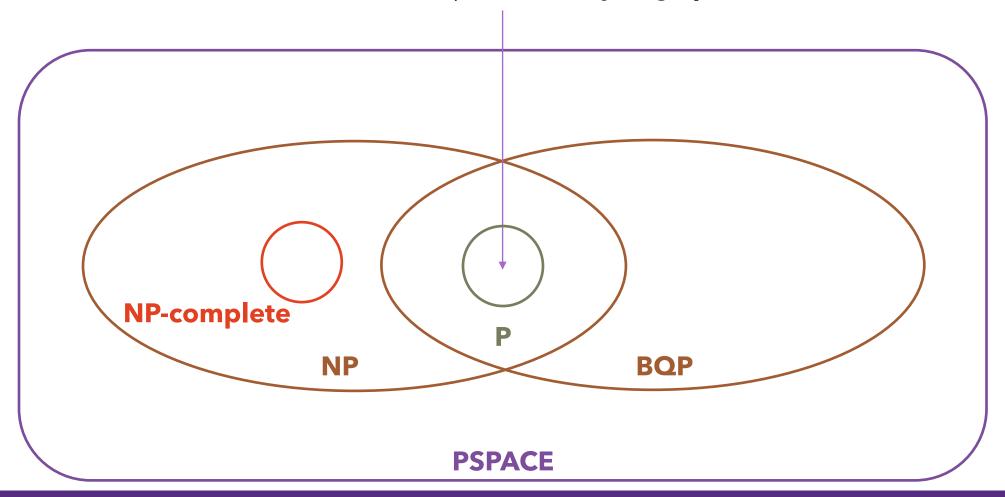
Ex: maximum cut problem



Ex: maximum cut problem **in worst case**



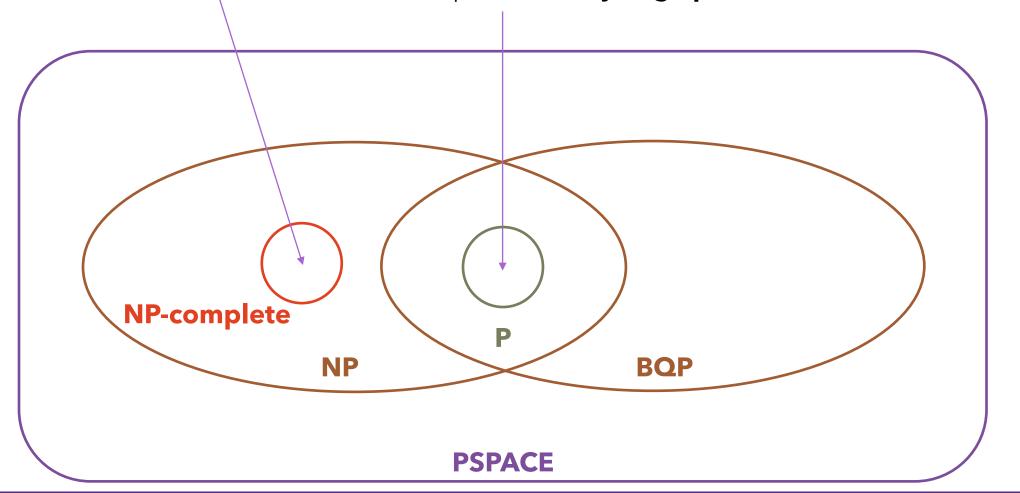
Ex: maximum cut problem **on cycle graph**



Ex: maximum cut problem in worst case

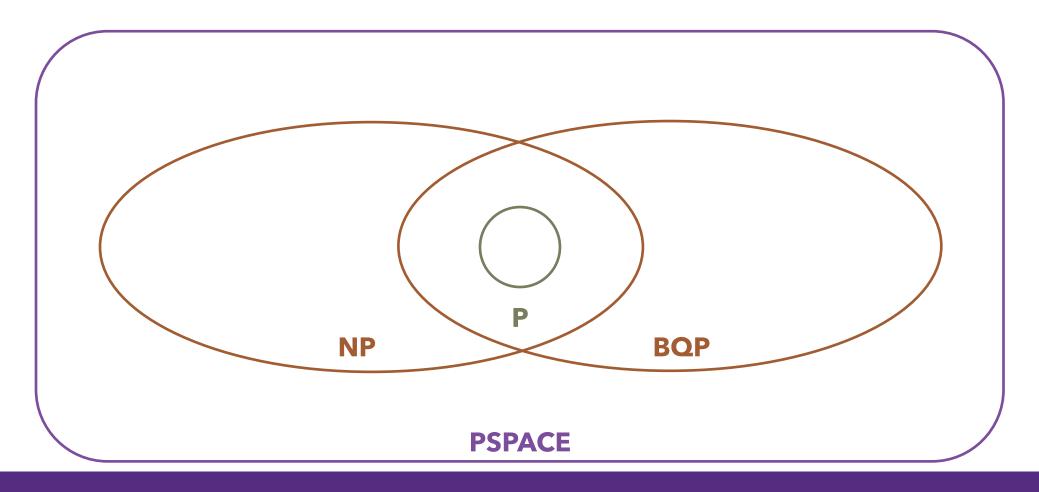
Worst-case instances are difficult to construct!
Proving asymptotic performance is even more difficult!

Ex: maximum cut problem on cycle graph



Disclaimer

• We are **not** going to solve NP-complete problems in polynomial time (today)



Disclaimer

- We are **not** going to solve NP-complete problems in polynomial time (today)
- Instead, we are going to adopt a different perspective...

Algorithms with proven performance

Classical

- Matrix multiplication
- Dijkstra's algorithm for shortest path

Quantum

- Shor's algorithm for integer factoring
- Grover's algorithm for unstructured search

Heuristic methods

Classical

- Gradient descent (for nonconvex problems)
- Simulated annealing
- Genetic algorithm

Quantum

- Quantum annealing
- QAOA
- More to be discovered...

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- Many of the most powerful classical algorithms are heuristics – no reason to think quantum will be different
- NISQ hardware provides a unique opportunity to develop novel quantum heuristic methods

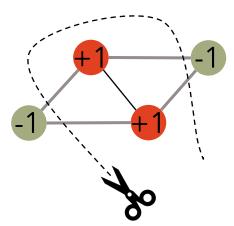
PART 1: MAPPING COMBINATORIAL OPTIMIZATION PROBLEMS ONTO QUANTUM COMPUTERS

Outline

- 1. Maximum cut as a paradigmatic example
- 2. General rules for constructing Hamiltonians representing Boolean functions

Maximum Cut Problem (MAXCUT)

- The goal of maximum cut is to split the set of vertices V
 of a graph into two disjoint parts such that
 the number of edges spanning two parts is maximized.
- For example, if color denotes part, in the graph on the right 4 edges are cut:

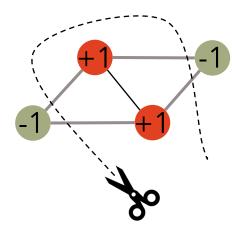


• Maximum cut can be formulated as an optimization problem:

$$\max_{\mathbf{s}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - s_i s_j) \qquad s_i \in \{-1, +1\}$$

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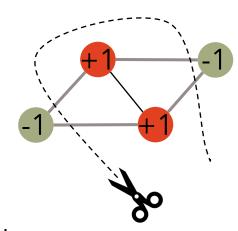
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Same sign – no edge is cut (no contribution to the objective): $\frac{1}{2}(1-s_is_j)=0$

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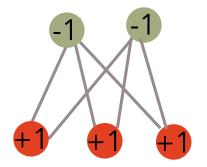


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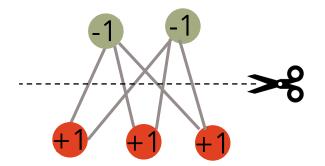
$$\max_{\mathbf{s}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - s_i s_j) \qquad s_i \in \{-1, +1\}$$

Different sign – an edge is cut (contribution to the objective = 1): $\frac{1}{2}(1 - s_i s_j) = 1$

Q: What is the cut in the graph below?



Q: What is the cut in the graph below?



• A: six edges are cut

Classical

Maximizing objective

$$\max_{\mathbf{s}} C(\mathbf{s}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - s_i s_j)$$



Quantum

Characterizing a Hamiltonian (Hermitian operator) *C*

To solve an optimization problem on a quantum computer, we need to convert it into a problem of characterizing a quantum Hamiltonian

Classical

Objective $\max_{\mathbf{s}} C(\mathbf{s}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - s_i s_j)$

Solution

$$\mathbf{s} \in \{-1, +1\}^n$$

Quantum

Hamiltonian (Hermitian operator) C

Highest energy eigenstate $|s\rangle$ (largest eigenvalue eigenvector)

Classical

Quantum

Objective
$$\max_{\mathbf{s}} C(\mathbf{s}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - s_i s_j)$$

Solution

$$\mathbf{s} \in \{-1, +1\}^n$$

Hamiltonian (Hermitian operator) C

Highest energy eigenstate $|s\rangle$ (largest eigenvalue eigenvector)

Since the Hamiltonian is classical, this eigenstate is a computational basis state*, we can measure it and **get** the solution with certainty

 Hamiltonian is diagonal, with values on the diagonal corresponding to the values of the objective function

$$\max_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} f(x)$$

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} f(0 \dots 00) & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & f(0 \dots 01) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & f(1 \dots 10) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & f(1 \dots 11) \end{pmatrix}$$

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- Hamiltonian is diagonal, with values on the diagonal corresponding to the values of the objective function
- In general:

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This Hamiltonian is too large to construct explicitly!

Classical

Objective $\max_{\mathbf{s}} C(\mathbf{s}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - s_i s_j)$

Quantum

Hamiltonian (Hermitian operator) C

Evaluation d

How do we construct this Hamiltonian?

state s

Solution

$$s \in \{-1, +1\}^n$$

Highest energy eigenstate $|s\rangle$

Notation Reminder

$$|x\rangle=\mathbf{x}=\vec{x}=egin{bmatrix} x_1 \ x_2 \ \vdots \ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$
 column vector $\langle y|=|y\rangle^\dagger=egin{bmatrix} y_1^* & y_2^* & \cdots & y_n^* \end{bmatrix}$ conjugate transpose

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$$\langle y|x\rangle = y_1^*x_1 + \dots + y_n^*x_n = \begin{bmatrix} y_1^* & y_2^* & \dots & y_n^* \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$
 inner product

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$$|x\rangle\langle y| = \begin{bmatrix} x_1y_1^* & \cdots & x_1y_n^* \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_ny_1^* & \cdots & x_ny_n^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1^* & y_2^* & \cdots & y_n^* \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{outer product}$$

Constructing MAXCUT Hamiltonian

MAXCUT objective:

$$\max_{\mathbf{s}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - s_i s_j) \qquad s_i \in \{-1, +1\}$$

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• MAXCUT Hamiltonian is constructed by mapping binary variables \mathbf{s}_i onto the eigenvalues of \mathbf{Z}

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j)$$

Want to show:

$$C|x\rangle = C(\mathbf{x})|x\rangle$$

Consider Pauli Z operator

$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Therefore,

$$Z|x\rangle = (-1)^x |x\rangle \quad x \in \{0, 1\}$$

Acting on the i-th qubit:

$$Z_i |x_0 \dots x_n\rangle = I \otimes \dots \otimes Z_i \otimes \dots \otimes I |x_0 \dots x_n\rangle$$

= $(-1)^{x_i} |x_0 \dots x_n\rangle$ $x_i \in \{0, 1\}, \quad i = 1, \dots n$

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Acting on the i-th and j-th qubit:

$$Z_i Z_j | x_0 \dots x_n \rangle = I \otimes \dots \otimes Z_i \otimes Z_j \otimes \dots \otimes I | x_0 \dots x_n \rangle$$

= $(-1)^{x_i} (-1)^{x_j} | x_0 \dots x_n \rangle \qquad x_i \in \{0, 1\}, \quad i = 1, \dots n$

(note that here we reorder qubits such that i-th and j-th qubit are adjacent)

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Let's reformulate it in the following way:

$$x_i = \frac{1}{2}(1 - s_i)$$
 $s_i = 1 \to x_i = 0, \quad (-1)^{x_i} = 1 = s_i$
 $s_i = -1 \to x_i = 1, \quad (-1)^{x_i} = -1 = s_i$

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New objective:

$$\max_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - (-1)^{x_i} (-1)^{x_j}) \qquad x_i \in \{0, 1\}$$

MAXCUT objective:

$$C(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - (-1)^{x_i} (-1)^{x_j}) \qquad x_i \in \{0, 1\}$$

MAXCUT Hamiltonian:

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j)$$

Want to show:

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$$C |x\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j) |x_0 \dots x_n\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j) |x_0 \dots x_n\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (|x_0 \dots x_n\rangle - Z_i Z_j |x_0 \dots x_n\rangle)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (1 - (-1)^{x_i} (-1)^{x_j}) |x_0 \dots x_n\rangle = C(\mathbf{x}) |x\rangle$$

$$x_i \in \{0, 1\}, \quad i = 1, \dots n$$

Constructing MAXCUT Hamiltonian

MAXCUT objective:

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• MAXCUT Hamiltonian is constructed by mapping binary variables \mathbf{s}_i onto the eigenvalues of \mathbf{Z}

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j)$$

 Note that the same procedure would work for any (unconstrained) binary objective!

Q: what is the size of Hamiltonian C?

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j)$$

- Recall that: $Z_iZ_j=I\otimes\ldots\otimes Z_i\otimes Z_j\otimes\ldots\otimes I$
- Therefore each term in the sum is a 2ⁿx2ⁿ matrix if written explicitly!
- Luckily, we do not have to write them out explicitly

Recall that we want to construct a Hamiltonian C such that:

$$C|x\rangle = f(x)|x\rangle \qquad \forall x \in \{0,1\}^n$$

- How can we do this efficiently for an arbitrary function f?
- In other words, how do we map Boolean and real functions to diagonal Hamiltonians acting on qubits?

This method is due to Hadfield, Stuart. "On the representation of Boolean and real functions as Hamiltonians for quantum computing." arXiv preprint arXiv:1804.09130 (2018).

• Consider Boolean "maximum" function on two bits, $f = max_2$

$$\max_{2}(+1, +1) = +1$$
$$\max_{2}(-1, +1) = +1$$
$$\max_{2}(+1, -1) = +1$$
$$\max_{2}(-1, -1) = -1$$

• Recall from a couple of slides ago that we can go between $x \in \{0,1\}$ and $x \in \{-1,1\}$ by performing a change of variables:

$$x \to (-1)^x$$

• Consider Boolean "maximum" function on two bits, $f = max_2$

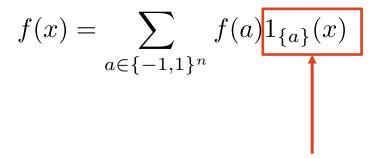
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It can be expressed as a multilinear polynomial

$$\max_{2} (x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}x_1 + \frac{1}{2}x_2 - \frac{1}{2}x_1x_2$$

with up to 2^n terms corresponding to subsets of indices $S \subseteq [n]$

To construct this multilinear polynomial, note that:



Indicator polynomial

To construct this multilinear polynomial, note that:

$$f(x) = \sum_{a \in \{-1,1\}^n} f(a) 1_{\{a\}}(x)$$

Indicator polynomial

• Indicator polynomial can be constructed as:

$$1_{\{a\}}(x) = \left(\frac{1 + a_1 x_1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1 + a_2 x_2}{2}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{1 + a_n x_n}{2}\right)$$

To construct this multilinear polynomial, note that:

$$f(x) = \sum_{a \in \{-1,1\}^n} f(a) 1_{\{a\}}(x)$$

• For max₂ example:

$$\max_{2}(x) = (+1)\left(\frac{1+x_{1}}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1+x_{2}}{2}\right)$$

$$+(+1)\left(\frac{1-x_{1}}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1+x_{2}}{2}\right)$$

$$+(+1)\left(\frac{1+x_{1}}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1-x_{2}}{2}\right)$$

$$+(-1)\left(\frac{1-x_{1}}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1-x_{2}}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}x_{1} + \frac{1}{2}x_{2} - \frac{1}{2}x_{1}x_{2}$$

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with up to 2^n terms corresponding to subsets of indices $S \subseteq [n]$

• We write the monomial corresponding to S as

$$x^S = \prod_{i \in S} x_i$$
 (with $x^{\emptyset} = 1$ by convention)

• Consider Boolean "maximum" function on two bits, $f = max_2$

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$$\max_{2}(-1, +1) = +1$$
$$\max_{2}(+1, -1) = +1$$
$$\max_{2}(-1, -1) = -1$$

• It can be expressed as a multilinear polynomial, called the **Fourier expansion**:

$$\max_{2} (x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}x_1 + \frac{1}{2}x_2 - \frac{1}{2}x_1x_2 = \sum_{S \subseteq [2]} \widehat{\max}_{2} (S)x^S$$

with Fourier coefficients:

$$\widehat{\max}_2(\emptyset) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \widehat{\max}_2(\{1\}) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \widehat{\max}_2(\{2\}) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \widehat{\max}_2(\{1,2\}) = -\frac{1}{2};$$

More generally,

Theorem Every function $f: \{-1,1\}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ can be uniquely expressed as a multilinear polynomial,

$$f(x) = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} \widehat{f}(S) x^S$$

This expression is called the Fourier expansion of f, and the real number $\widehat{f}(S)$ is called the Fourier coefficient of f on S. Collectively, the coefficients are called the Fourier spectrum of f.

Recall that we want to construct a Hamiltonian C such that:

$$C|x\rangle = f(x)|x\rangle \qquad \forall x \in \{0,1\}^n$$

Note that this is equivalent to:

$$C = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} f(x) |x\rangle \langle x|$$

Projector operator

Recall that we want to construct a Hamiltonian C such that:

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$$C = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} f(x) |x\rangle \langle x| = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} f(x) Pr_x$$

Projector operator

Classical

$$f(x) = \sum_{a \in \{-1,1\}^n} f(a) \mathbf{1}_{\{a\}}(x)$$
 Indicator polynomial

Quantum

$$C = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} f(x) |x\rangle \langle x| = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} f(x) Pr_x$$
Projector operator

• Now, note that products of Pauli Z operators implement parity functions:

$$\prod_{j \in S} Z_j |x\rangle = x^S |x\rangle$$

where

$$x^{S} = \prod_{i \in S} x_{i} \quad x_{i} \in \{-1, +1\}$$

Classical

$$f(x) = \sum_{a \in \{-1,1\}^n} f(a) 1_{\{a\}}(x)$$



Fourier expansion

$$f(x) = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} \widehat{f}(S) x^S$$

Quantum



$$C = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} f(x) |x\rangle \langle x| = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} f(x) Pr_x$$



$$C = \sum_{S \subset [n]} \widehat{f}(S) \prod_{j \in S} Z_j$$

Unique n-qubit Hamiltonian representing f

Classical

$$f(x) = \sum_{a \in \{-1,1\}^n} f(a) 1_{\{a\}}(x)$$



Fourier expansion

$$f(x) = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} \widehat{f}(S) x^S$$

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$$C = \sum_{S \subset [n]} \widehat{f}(S) \prod_{j \in S} Z_j$$

Unique n-qubit Hamiltonian representing f

1. Perform Fourier expansion of the desired function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{S \subseteq [n]} \widehat{f}(S) x^S$$

2. The unique n-qubit Hamiltonian representing f is given by:

$$C = \sum_{S \subset [n]} \widehat{f}(S) \prod_{j \in S} Z_j$$

- Note: this is a general recipe!
- ... but in general it is #P-hard to compute the Fourier expansion

Constructing a Hamiltonian for a general problem: a *simpler* recipe

Start with the table of building blocks:

f(x)	H_f	f(x)	H_f
x	$\frac{1}{2}I - \frac{1}{2}Z$	\bar{x}	$\frac{1}{2}I + \frac{1}{2}Z$
$x_1 \oplus x_2$	$\frac{1}{2}I - \frac{1}{2}Z_1Z_2$	$\bigoplus_{j=1}^k x_j$	$\frac{1}{2}I - \frac{1}{2}Z_1Z_2\dots Z_k$
$x_1 \wedge x_2$	$\frac{1}{4}I - \frac{1}{4}\left(Z_1 + Z_2 - Z_1Z_2\right)$	$\Lambda_{j=1}^k x_j$	$\frac{1}{2^k} \prod_j (I - Z_j)$
$x_1 \vee x_2$	$\frac{3}{4}I - \frac{1}{4}(Z_1 + Z_2 + Z_1Z_2)$	$V_{j=1}^k x_j$	$I - \frac{1}{2^k} \prod_j (I + Z_j)$
$\overline{x_1x_2}$	$\frac{3}{4}I + \frac{1}{4}\left(Z_1 + Z_2 - Z_1Z_2\right)$	$x_1 \Rightarrow x_2$	$\frac{3}{4}I + \frac{1}{4}(Z_1 - Z_2 + Z_1Z_2)$

Combine them as follows:

$$H_{\neg f} = H_{\bar{f}} = I - H_f$$
 $H_{f \Rightarrow g} = I - H_f + H_f H_g$ $H_{f \land g} = H_f g = H_f H_g$ $H_{f \lor g} = H_f + H_g - 2H_f H_g$ $H_{af+bg} = aH_f + bH_g$ $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

PART 2: QUANTUM APPROXIMATE OPTIMIZATION ALGORITHM (QAOA)

• QAOA prepares a parameterized "trial" (ansatz) state of the form:

$$|\psi(\boldsymbol{\theta})\rangle = |\psi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma})\rangle$$

$$= e^{-i\beta_p B} e^{-i\gamma_p C} \cdots e^{-i\beta_1 B} e^{-i\gamma_1 C} H^{\otimes n} |0\rangle.$$

- Here C is the problem Hamiltonian, e.g. for MAXCUT: $C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I Z_i Z_j)$
- B is the mixer Hamiltonian: $B = \sum_i X_i$

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• Then a classical optimizer is used to vary the parameters $oldsymbol{eta}, oldsymbol{\gamma}$ to maximize:

$$f(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \langle \psi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) | C | \psi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \rangle.$$

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- Note that for $p \to \infty$ QAOA can at least exactly approximate adiabatic quantum evolution and can therefore find the exact optimal solution
- For small p, picture is more mixed, but there is some indication of the potential for quantum advantage

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How do we implement this circuit in gates?

Implementing QAOA

Let's assume the following gate set

$$X \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}; \quad Y \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}; \quad Z \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad H \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix};$$
$$S \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix}; \quad R_z(\theta) \equiv e^{-i\theta Z/2} = \cos\frac{\theta}{2}I - i\sin\frac{\theta}{2}Z = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta/2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Implementing QAOA

• Let's start with simple operator $e^{-iZt} = R_z(2t)$

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- Slightly more complicated operator: $e^{-iZZt} = e^{-iZ\otimes Zt}$
- Remember that Z has eigenvectors $|0\rangle$, $|1\rangle$ with eigenvalues 1,-1 and $e^A|v\rangle=e^\lambda|v\rangle$ if $A|v\rangle=\lambda|v\rangle$
- Then:

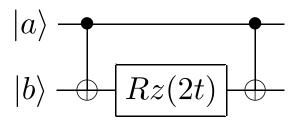
$$\begin{array}{ll}
e^{-iZ\otimes Zt} |00\rangle &= e^{-i(1\times 1)t} |00\rangle = e^{-it} |00\rangle \\
e^{-iZ\otimes Zt} |01\rangle &= e^{-i(1\times -1)t} |01\rangle = e^{it} |01\rangle \\
e^{-iZ\otimes Zt} |10\rangle &= e^{-i(-1\times 1)t} |10\rangle = e^{it} |10\rangle \\
e^{-iZ\otimes Zt} |11\rangle &= e^{-i(-1\times -1)t} |11\rangle = e^{-it} |11\rangle
\end{array}$$

Adds a phase factor with the sign depending on parity! In general:

$$e^{-iZ\otimes Zt} |ab\rangle = e^{-i(-1)^{a\oplus b}t} |ab\rangle$$

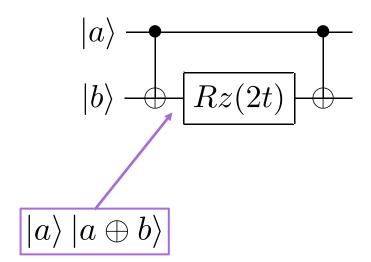
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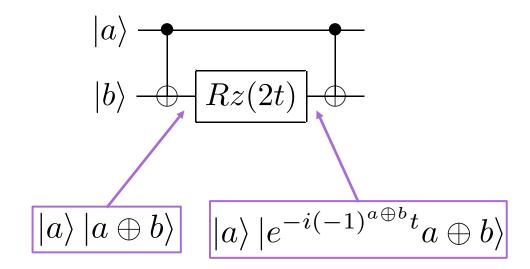
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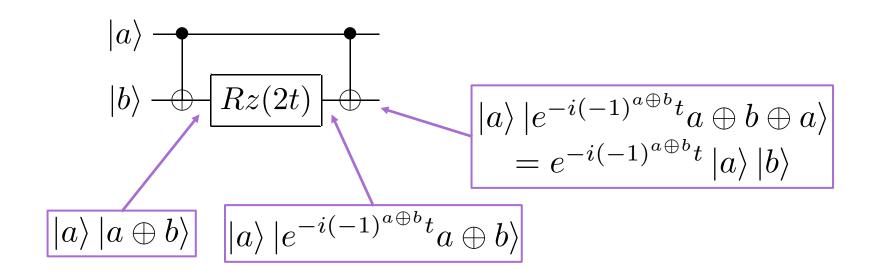
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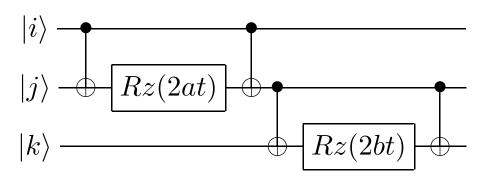
$$e^{-iZ\otimes Zt} |ab\rangle = e^{-i(-1)^{a\oplus b}t} |ab\rangle$$



 If terms of our Hamiltonian commute, we can just concatenate corresponding circuits:

$$e^{-iaZ_iZ_jt - ibZ_jZ_kt} = e^{-iaZ_iZ_jt}e^{-ibZ_jZ_kt}$$

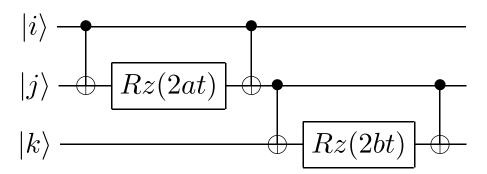
• Circuit:



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 Now we can simulate the operator corresponding to the problem Hamiltonian:

$$e^{-i\gamma C} = e^{-i\gamma \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j)}$$

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$$e^{-i\gamma C} = e^{-i\gamma \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j)}$$

- Mixer operator: $e^{-i\beta B} = e^{-i\beta \sum_j X_j}$
- One term: e^{-iXt}
- Note that

$$e^{-iZt} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-iZt)^j}{j!} = I - iZt - \frac{Z^2t^2}{2!} + \dots$$

$$He^{-iZt}H = H\left(I - iZt - \frac{Z^2t^2}{2!} + \dots\right)H = I - iHZHt - \frac{HZHHZHt^2}{2!} + \dots$$
$$= I - iXt - \frac{X^2t^2}{2!} + \dots = e^{-iXt}$$

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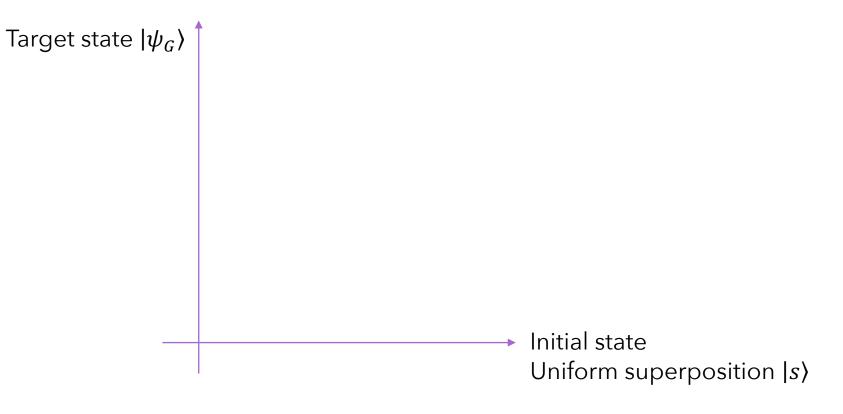
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• Circuit: -H - Rz(2t) - H -

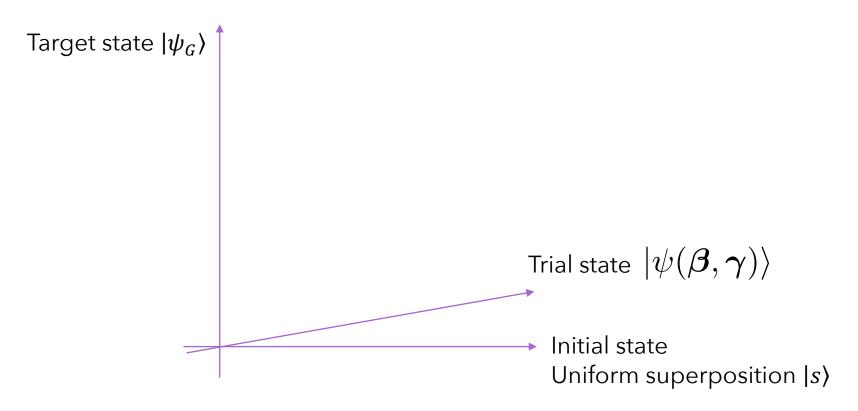
Quantum Approximate Optimization Algorithm (QAOA): Geometric Interpretation

• QAOA prepares a parameterized "trial" (ansatz) state $|\psi(m{\beta},m{\gamma})
angle$



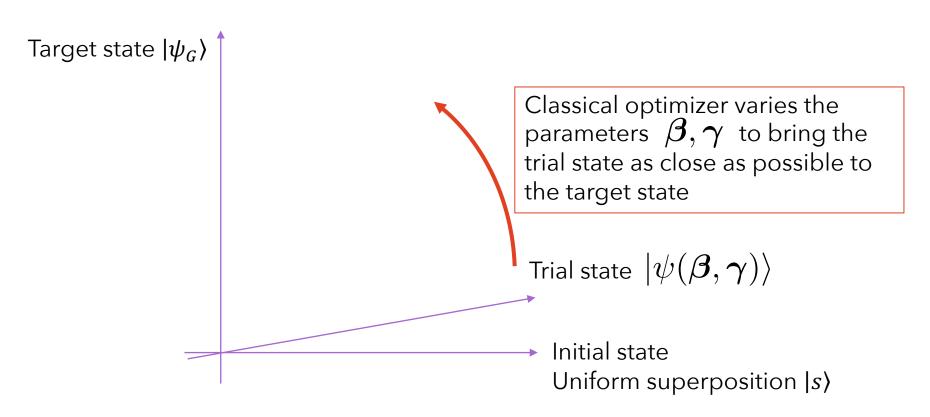
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Quantum Approximate Optimization Algorithm (QAOA)

• QAOA prepares a parameterized "trial" (ansatz) state of the form:

$$|\psi(\boldsymbol{\theta})\rangle = |\psi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma})\rangle$$

$$= e^{-i\beta_p \hat{H}_M} e^{-i\gamma_p \hat{H}_C} \cdots e^{-i\beta_1 \hat{H}_M} e^{-i\gamma_1 \hat{H}_C} |+\rangle^{\otimes n}.$$

 Crucially, the quality of QAOA solution heavily depends on the quality of the parameters found by the classical optimizer

Adiabatic Quantum Computation (AQC)

- A way to find the ground / highest energy state of the problem Hamiltonian, inspired by adiabatic approximation theorems
- Adiabatic approximation states, roughly, that a system prepared in an eigenstate (e.g. a ground state) of some time-dependent Hamiltonian H(t) will remain in the corresponding eigenstate provided that H(t) is varied "slowly enough".
- **Idea:** prepare a system in an eigenstate of a simple Hamiltonian and adiabatically interpolate it into the corresponding eigenstate of problem Hamiltonian
- Interpolation is given by a time-dependent Hamiltonian:

$$H(t) = (1 - s(t))H_D + s(t)H_P$$

• s(t) is a smooth function s.t. s(t = 0) = 0 and s(t = T) = 1

Adiabatic Quantum Computation for MAXCUT

 Note minus because by convention AQC goes from ground state to ground state

$$H(t) = (1 - s(t))H_D + s(t)H_P$$

$$H_P = -C = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j)$$

$$H_D = -\sum_j X_j$$

$$s = |+\rangle^{\otimes n} = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle$$

• s is the ground state of driver Hamiltonian H_D and is the initial state

Simulation of AQC

 How can we simulate this time-dependent Hamiltonian on a quantum computer?

$$H(t) = (1 - s(t))H_D + s(t)H_P$$

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$$s = |+\rangle^{\otimes n} = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle$$

To answer this, let's go to the basics

Simulation of AQC

Consider a general quantum evolution, defined by a unitary U:

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = U(t) |\psi(0)\rangle$$

• Evolution is related to system Hamiltonian by:

$$i\frac{dU(t)}{dt} = H(t)U(t)$$

• For a time-dependent Hamiltonian such that $[H(t_1),H(t_2)]=0, \qquad \forall t_1,t_2$ the solution of this equation is:

$$U(t) = e^{-i\int_0^t H(t)dt}$$

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For a time-independent Hamiltonian solution this simplifies to:

$$U(t) = e^{-iHt}$$

Approximating Non-Commuting Hamiltonians

• (Trotter formula) For Hermitian A and B and any real t:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (e^{iAt/n} e^{iBt/n})^n = e^{i(A+B)t}$$

Approximating Non-Commuting Hamiltonians

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$$e^{i(A+B)t} = \lim_{n \to \infty} (e^{iAt/n}e^{iBt/n})^n$$

Corollary (Lie-Trotter-Suzuki decompositions):

$$e^{i(A+B)t} = e^{iAt}e^{iBt} + O(t^2)$$

$$e^{i(A+B)t} = e^{iBt/2}e^{iAt}e^{iBt/2} + O(t^3)$$

• Let's now consider our time-dependent Hamiltonian H(t) and evolution operator:

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$$U(T,0) = U(T,T-\Delta t)U(T-\Delta t,T-2\Delta t)\cdots U(\Delta t,0)$$

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• Now, choose time step Δt to be small enough so that H(t) is approximately constant over the interval:

$$U(j\Delta t, (j-1)\Delta t) = e^{-i\int_{(j-1)\Delta t}^{j\Delta t} H(t)dt} \approx e^{-iH(j\Delta t)\Delta t}$$

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$$U(j\Delta t, (j-1)\Delta t) \approx e^{-iH(j\Delta t)\Delta t}$$

• Combining both, we get: $U(T,0) \approx \prod_{i=1}^p e^{-iH(j\Delta t)\Delta t}$

$$U(T,0) \approx \prod_{j=1}^{p} e^{-iH(j\Delta t)\Delta t}$$

Now we can apply Lie-Trotter-Suzuki decomposition:

$$e^{i(A+B)t} = e^{iAt}e^{iBt} + O(t^2)$$

$$U(T,0) \approx \prod_{j=1}^{p} e^{-iH(j\Delta t)\Delta t} = \prod_{j=1}^{p} e^{i((1-s(j\Delta t))H_D + s(j\Delta t)H_P)\Delta t}$$

$$= \left[\text{applying Lie-Trotter-Suzuki decomposition: } e^{i(A+B)t} = e^{iAt}e^{iBt} + O(t^2) \right]$$

$$\approx \prod_{j=1}^{p} e^{i(1-s(j\Delta t))\Delta t H_D} e^{i s(j\Delta t)\Delta t H_P}$$

Understanding QAOA

$$|\gamma, \beta\rangle \equiv U_{\text{QAOA}_p}(\gamma, \beta) |s\rangle$$

$$U_{\text{QAOA}_p}(\gamma, \beta) \equiv \prod_{j=1}^p e^{-i\beta_j B} e^{-i\gamma_i C}$$

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j)$$

$$B = \sum_j X_j$$

$$s = |+\rangle^{\otimes n}$$

OAOA

$$\beta \rangle \equiv U_{\text{QAOA}_{p}}(\gamma, \beta) | s \rangle \qquad | \psi \rangle = U_{\text{AQC}} | s \rangle$$

$$\beta \rangle \equiv \prod_{j=1}^{p} e^{-i\beta_{j}B} e^{-i\gamma_{i}C} \qquad U_{\text{AQC}} = \prod_{j=1}^{p} e^{i(1-s(j\Delta t))\Delta t H_{D}} e^{is(j\Delta t)\Delta t H_{P}}$$

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_{i}Z_{j}) \qquad H_{P} = -C = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_{i}Z_{j})$$

$$B = \sum_{j} X_{j} \qquad H_{D} = -B = -\sum_{j} X_{j}$$

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Simulated AQC

Understanding QAOA

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Simulated AQC

QAOA is equivalent to simulated adiabatic computation if we set

$$\gamma_j = -s(j\Delta t)\Delta t, \qquad \beta_j = -1[1 - s(j\Delta t)]\Delta t$$

Understanding QAOA

$$|\gamma, \beta\rangle \equiv U_{\text{QAOA}_p}(\gamma, \beta) |s\rangle$$

$$U_{\text{QAOA}_p}(\gamma, \beta) \equiv \prod_{j=1}^p e^{-i\beta_j B} e^{-i\gamma_i C}$$

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_i Z_j)$$

$$B = \sum_j X_j$$

$$s = |+\rangle^{\otimes n}$$

$$|\psi\rangle = U_{AQC} |s\rangle$$

$$U_{AQC} = \prod_{j=1}^{p} e^{i(1-s(j\Delta t))\Delta t H_{D}} e^{i s(j\Delta t)\Delta t H_{P}}$$

$$H_{P} = -C = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij \in E} (I - Z_{i}Z_{j})$$

$$H_{D} = -B = -\sum_{j} X_{j}$$

$$s = |+\rangle^{\otimes n}$$

Simulated AQC

However, the non-adiabatic mechanism of QAOA is quite different!

See e.g. Jiang, Zhang, Eleanor G. Rieffel, and Zhihui Wang. "Near-optimal quantum circuit for Grover's unstructured search using a transverse field." Physical Review A 95.6 (2017): 062317.

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• Then a classical optimizer is used to vary the parameters $oldsymbol{eta}, oldsymbol{\gamma}$ to maximize:

$$f(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \langle \psi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) | C | \psi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \rangle.$$

• If we can evaluate $f(\beta, \gamma)$ efficiently classically, we can train QAOA without access to a quantum computer!

• Let $U(B,\beta)=e^{-i\beta B}, U(C,\gamma)=e^{-i\gamma C}$

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- Then QAOA energy for p=1:

$$f(\beta_{1}, \gamma_{1}) = \langle s | U^{\dagger}(C, \gamma_{1}) U^{\dagger}(B, \beta_{1}) \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(j,k) \in E} (I - Z_{j} Z_{k}) U(B, \beta_{1}) U(C, \gamma_{1}) | s \rangle$$

$$= \frac{|E|}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(j,k) \in E} \langle s | U^{\dagger}(C, \gamma_{1}) U^{\dagger}(B, \beta_{1}) Z_{j} Z_{k} U(B, \beta_{1}) U(C, \gamma_{1}) | s \rangle$$

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$$= \frac{|E|}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(j,k) \in E} \langle s | U^{\dagger}(C, \gamma_{1}) U^{\dagger}(B, \beta_{1}) Z_{j} Z_{k} U(B, \beta_{1}) U(C, \gamma_{1}) | s \rangle$$

$$= \frac{|E|}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(j,k) \in E} f_{(j,k)}(\beta_{1}, \gamma_{1})$$

• Let's look more closely at the contribution of one edge:

$$f_{(j,k)}(\beta_1, \gamma_1) = \langle s | U^{\dagger}(C, \gamma_1) U^{\dagger}(B, \beta_1) Z_j Z_k U(B, \beta_1) U(C, \gamma_1) | s \rangle$$

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$$f_{(j,k)}(\beta_1, \gamma_1) = \langle s | U^{\dagger}(C, \gamma_1) U^{\dagger}(B, \beta_1) Z_j Z_k U(B, \beta_1) U(C, \gamma_1) | s \rangle$$

• Let's go through it step-by-step, from the middle out:

$$U^{\dagger}(B,\beta_1)Z_jZ_kU(B,\beta_1) = (e^{i\beta_1\sum_m X_m})Z_jZ_k(e^{-i\beta_1\sum_m X_m})$$

= $(\prod_m e^{i\beta_1I\otimes...\otimes X_m\otimes...I})(I\otimes...\otimes Z_jZ_k\otimes...\otimes I)(\prod_m e^{-i\beta_1I\otimes...\otimes X_m\otimes...I})$

• Let's look more closely at the contribution of one edge:

$$f_{(j,k)}(\beta_1, \gamma_1) = \langle s | U^{\dagger}(C, \gamma_1) U^{\dagger}(B, \beta_1) Z_j Z_k U(B, \beta_1) U(C, \gamma_1) | s \rangle$$

• Let's go through it step-by-step, from the middle out:

$$U^{\dagger}(B,\beta_{1})Z_{j}Z_{k}U(B,\beta_{1}) = (e^{i\beta_{1}\sum_{m}X_{m}})Z_{j}Z_{k}(e^{-i\beta_{1}\sum_{m}X_{m}})$$
$$= (\prod_{m}e^{i\beta_{1}I\otimes...\otimes X_{m}\otimes...I})(I\otimes...\otimes Z_{j}Z_{k}\otimes...\otimes I)(\prod_{m}e^{-i\beta_{1}I\otimes...\otimes X_{m}\otimes...I})$$

• Note that whenever $m \notin \{j,k\}$ we can commute the term $e^{i\beta_1 X_m} = e^{i\beta_1 I \otimes ... \otimes X_m \otimes ...I}$ though $Z_j Z_k$:

$$e^{i\beta_1 I \otimes \dots \otimes X_m \otimes \dots I} (I \otimes \dots \otimes Z_j Z_k \otimes \dots \otimes I) (e^{-i\beta_1 I \otimes \dots \otimes X_m \otimes \dots I}) = Z_j Z_k e^{i\beta_1 I \otimes \dots \otimes X_m \otimes \dots I} (e^{-i\beta_1 I \otimes \dots \otimes X_m \otimes \dots I})$$
$$= Z_j Z_k$$

• From this it is clear that out of all mixer terms only the terms acting on the qubits j,k contribute to $f_{(j,k)}$:

$$U^{\dagger}(B,\beta_1)Z_jZ_kU(B,\beta_1) = (e^{i\beta_1(X_j + X_k)})Z_jZ_k(e^{-i\beta_1(X_j + X_k)})$$

• From this it is clear that out of all mixer terms only the terms acting on the qubits j,k contribute to $f_{(i,k)}$:

$$U^{\dagger}(B,\beta_1)Z_jZ_kU(B,\beta_1) = (e^{i\beta_1(X_j + X_k)})Z_jZ_k(e^{-i\beta_1(X_j + X_k)})$$

 Now, let's add the phase separation operator. It's easy to see that similarly all terms that do not have either j or k in them will commute through and cancel out:

$$U^{\dagger}(C, \gamma_{1})U^{\dagger}(B, \beta_{1})Z_{j}Z_{k}U(B, \beta_{1})U(C, \gamma_{1}) = U^{\dagger}(C, \gamma_{1})(e^{i\beta_{1}(X_{j}+X_{k})})Z_{j}Z_{k}(e^{-i\beta_{1}(X_{j}+X_{k})})U(C, \gamma_{1}) = (e^{i\gamma_{1}\sum_{(u,v)\in \text{nbhd}((j,k))}Z_{u}Z_{v}})(e^{i\beta_{1}(X_{j}+X_{k})})Z_{j}Z_{k}(e^{-i\beta_{1}(X_{j}+X_{k})})(e^{-i\gamma_{1}\sum_{(u,v)\in \text{nbhd}((j,k))}Z_{u}Z_{v}})$$

• Full term:

```
f_{(j,k)}(\beta_1, \gamma_1) = \langle RCC | (e^{i\gamma_1 \sum_{(u,v) \in \text{nbhd}((j,k))} Z_u Z_v}) (e^{i\beta_1(X_j + X_k)}) Z_j Z_k (e^{-i\beta_1(X_j + X_k)}) (e^{-i\gamma_1 \sum_{(u,v) \in \text{nbhd}((j,k))} Z_u Z_v}) | RCC \rangle
= \langle RCC_{tree}(\beta_1, \gamma_1) | Z_j Z_k | RCC_{tree}(\beta_1, \gamma_1) \rangle
```

- Here we denote a uniform superposition over states on the qubits in reverse causal cone of Z_iZ_k by $|RCC\rangle = \otimes_{m\in \mathrm{nbhd}((j,k))}|+\rangle$
- Now, this can be easily extended to larger neighborhoods in BFS fashion by adding more QAOA operators, since the k-th operator will only "bring into play" terms Z_uZ_v corresponding to the edges from k-neighborhood of (j,k) (the other terms will commute through and cancel out like shown above). In other words, only the terms in the *light cone* of Z_jZ_k affect the energy.

Summary

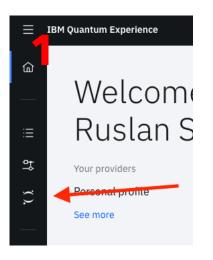
- QAOA will not solve NP-complete problems in polynomial time
- QAOA is a promising heuristic for the NISQ era
- For any Boolean function on n bits we can construct a unique n-qubit Hamiltonian representing it
- QAOA is deeply connected to Adiabatic Quantum Optimization Algorithm
- QAOA energy can often be evaluated purely classically

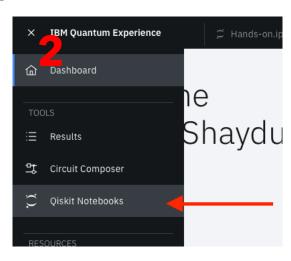
Summary

- QAOA will not solve NP-complete problems in polynomial time
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- For any Boolean function on n bits we can construct a unique n-qubit Hamiltonian representing it
- QAOA is deeply connected to Adiabatic Quantum Optimization Algorithm
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- Coming up next: hands-on, decomposition and advanced simulation

PART 3: HANDS-ON

- Get the latest version of the notebook from https://github.com/rsln-s/IEEE QW_2020 or http://bit.ly/qw2020tut
- Go to quantum-computing.ibm.com and login (you might need to create an IBM ID if you haven't already!)
- Go to quantum-computing.ibm.com/jupyter
 If you don't like typing, there's a button on home page that takes you there:





- Import the notebook Hands-on.ipynb:
- Note that you can also run the notebook locally on your machine, but you'll have to set up your own environment

