## Symmetries, graph properties, and quantum speedups

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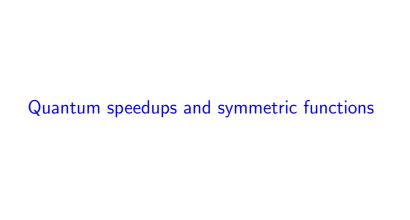
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## Classical and quantum query complexity

Let  $f: \mathcal{D} \subseteq \Sigma^n \to \{0,1\}$  be a known function.

- ▶ How many positions of input  $x \in \mathcal{D}$  are necessary and sufficient to query to compute f(x) with high probability in the worst case? Answer denoted R(f) and Q(f) in the classical and quantum cases respectively. Quantumly, we can query x in superposition:  $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i |i\rangle |0\rangle \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i |i\rangle |x_i\rangle$ . Fact:  $R(f) \leq Q(f)$  because can always simulate a classical (possibly randomized) algorithm quantumly.
- Examples:
  - 1.  $f: \{0,1\}^3 \to \{0,1\}; x \mapsto (x_1 \land x_3) \lor (x_2 \land \neg x_3).$
  - 2. OR:  $\{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ ; f(x) = 1 iff at least one bit of x is 1.
  - 3. PARITY:  $\{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ ;  $x \mapsto x_1 \oplus x_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus x_n$ .
- ►  $R(OR) = \Theta(n)$  and  $R(PARITY) = \Theta(n)$ . (Think of  $\alpha = O(\beta)$ ,  $\alpha = \Theta(\beta)$ ,  $\alpha = \Omega(\beta)$  as  $\alpha \leq \beta$ ,  $\alpha = \beta$ ,  $\alpha \geq \beta$ , respectively.)

## Quantum speedups in query complexity

Given a family of  $f: \mathcal{D} \subseteq \Sigma^n \to \{0,1\}$ .

When is R(f) super-polynomially larger than Q(f) (large quantum speedup) and when is R(f) only polynomially larger than Q(f) (small quantum speedup)?

#### Examples:

- 1. Small quantum speedups: 1. f = OR with  $\mathcal{D} := \{0,1\}^n$  has  $R(f) = \Theta(n)$  and  $Q(f) = \Theta(\sqrt{n})$ . 2. f = ED (element distinctness) with  $\mathcal{D} = \Sigma^n = [n]^n$  has  $R(f) = \Theta(n)$  and  $Q(f) = \Theta(n^{2/3})$ . Note  $[n] := \{1, \ldots, n\}$ .
- 2. Large quantum speedup: f = "Simon's function" has  $R(f) = \Theta(\sqrt{n})$  and  $Q(f) = \Theta(\log(n))$ . f has  $\Sigma = [n]$ , where  $n = 2^k$ . View the n positions of input  $x \in \mathcal{D}$  as labelled by  $\{0,1\}^k$ . Promised that either the  $x_i$ 's are distinct for all  $i \in [n]$  (f = 0) or there exists an  $a \neq 0^k$  such that  $x_i = x_{i \oplus a}$  for all  $i \in [n]$  (f = 1).

## Symmetric functions

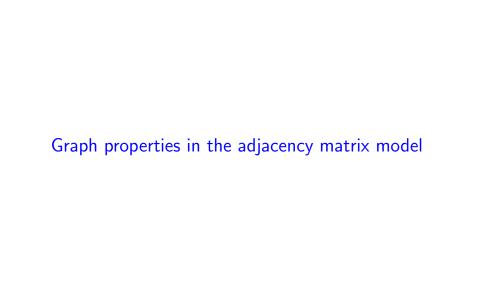
#### Definition

Let  $f: \mathcal{D} \subseteq \Sigma^n \to \{0,1\}$  be a function. f is symmetric under a permutation group G on [n] iff, for all  $\pi \in G$ ,

- 1.  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathcal{D} \implies x \circ \pi := (x_{\pi(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi(n)}) \in \mathcal{D}$  and
- 2.  $f(x) = f(x \circ \pi)$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{D}$ .

#### Examples:

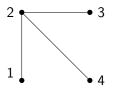
- ▶  $f = OR : \{0^n, 10^{n-1}, 010^{n-2}, \dots, 0^{n-1}1\} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  and  $f = ED : [n]^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  are both symmetric under  $G = S_n$ , which consists of all permutations on [n]. Aaronson and Ambainis (2009) and Chailloux (2018) showed that such functions only admit small quantum speedups.
- **Our main example.** f = a graph property in the adjacency matrix model is symmetric under G = graph symmetries.



## Adjacency matrix model of graphs

In the adjacency matrix model, a (simple) graph on n vertices is modelled by a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix.

Example with n = 4:

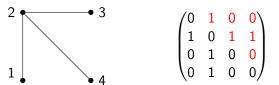


$$\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}$$

## Adjacency matrix model of graphs

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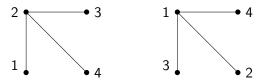
Equivalently, a graph is modelled by a  $\binom{n}{2}$ -bit string by collapsing the matrix. For example, the graph above is modelled by 100110.

## Graph properties in the adjacency matrix model

A graph property in the adjacency matrix model is a function f from a set of graphs specified in the adjacency matrix model to  $\{0,1\}$  that is symmetric under graph symmetries, i.e., isomorphisms.

#### Examples:

- 1. Having a triangle or not is a graph property.
- 2. *f* must evaluate to the same value on the following two isomorphic graphs. Note that the graphs are not the *same*: the left one is 100110, but the right one is 111000.



## **Graph symmetries**

The set of graph symmetries of a graph with n vertices is denoted  $S_n^2$ .  $S_n^2$  is a permutation group on  $\binom{n}{2}$  of size n! that is "naturally induced" by  $S_n$ .

Identify  $\binom{n}{2}$  with  $\{\{i,j\}\}_{i,j\in[n]}$ , the set of possible edges on n vertices. Then,  $S_n^2$  consists of permutations

$$\{i,j\} \mapsto \{\sigma(i),\sigma(j)\},\$$

where  $\sigma \in S_n$ . For example, when n=4,  $\sigma=\left(\begin{smallmatrix}1&2&3&4\\2&3&4&1\end{smallmatrix}\right) \in S_4$  gives

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \{1,2\} \ \{1,3\} \ \{1,4\} \ \{2,3\} \ \{2,4\} \ \{3,4\} \\ \{2,3\} \ \{2,4\} \ \{1,2\} \ \{3,4\} \ \{1,3\} \ \{1,4\} \end{array}\right).$$

**Remarks.** 1.  $S_n^2$  is *much* smaller than the set of all permutations on  $\binom{n}{2}$ . 2. For integer  $p \ge 1$ , the set of *p*-uniform hypergraph symmetries of a hypergraph with n vertices is denoted  $S_n^p$ .

## Chailloux's proof (2018)

Suppose  $f: \mathcal{D} \subseteq \Sigma^n \to \{0,1\}$  is symmetric under  $S_n$ .

Given an algorithm for computing f, if we replace the input  $x \in \mathcal{D}$  by  $x \circ \pi := (x_{\pi(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi(n)})$  for a random  $\pi \in S_n$ , then the algorithm still correctly computes f.

**Main idea.** Replace  $\pi$  by a random range-r function,  $\alpha: [n] \to [n]$  with  $|\alpha([n])| = r$ .

If a quantum algorithm distinguishes  $x\circ\pi$  from  $x\circ\alpha$ , then it distinguishes  $\pi$  from  $\alpha$ . (If it cannot distinguish  $\pi$  from  $\alpha$  then it cannot distinguish  $x\circ\pi$  from  $x\circ\alpha$ .)

Theorem [Zhandry (2015)]. Distinguishing a random range-r function from a random permutation in  $S_n$  needs  $\Omega(r^{1/3})$  quantum queries.

Taking  $r = Q(f)^3$  implies a Q(f)-query quantum algorithm cannot distinguish  $x \circ \pi$  from  $x \circ \alpha$ . But a quantum algorithm on  $x \circ \alpha$  can be simulated with r classical queries. So  $R(f) = O(Q(f)^3)$ .

## Graph symmetries and quantum speedups

Let G be a permutation group on [n]. Suppose we need  $\Omega(r^{1/c})$  quantum queries to distinguish a random range-r function from a random  $\pi \in G$ . (We say such a G is well-shuffling with exponent c.) Chailloux  $\Longrightarrow R(f) = O(Q(f)^c)$  for all f symmetric under G.

For graph symmetries, first consider  $G = S_n^{(2)}$  on  $[n^2]$ , which consists of permutations  $(i,j) \in [n^2] \mapsto (\pi(i),\pi(j))$  for  $\pi \in S_n$ .

If we can distinguish a random  $\pi \in S_n^{(2)}$  from a random range- $r^2$  function on  $[n^2]$  using q quantum queries, then we can distinguish a random  $\tau \in S_n$  from a random range-r function on [n] using 2q quantum queries. So  $2q = \Omega(r^{1/3}) = \Omega((r^2)^{1/6})$ , so  $S_n^{(2)}$  is well-shuffling with exponent c = 6.

Can similarly argue that  $S_n^2$  on  $[\binom{n}{2}]$  is well-shuffling with exponent c=6. In fact, argument generalizes to show  $S_n^p$  on  $[\binom{n}{p}]$  is well-shuffling with exponent c=3p. (Recall  $S_n^p$  denotes the set of p-uniform hypergraph symmetries.)

groups

Functions symmetric under primitive permutation

## Primitive permutation groups

#### Definition

A permutation group G on [n] is *transitive* iff for all  $x, y \in [n]$ , there exists  $\sigma \in G$  such that  $\sigma(x) = y$ .

#### Definition

A permutation group G on [n] is *primitive* iff G is transitive and the only partitions  $\mathcal{B} \coloneqq \{B_1, \ldots, B_k\}$  of [n] preserved by G, i.e.,  $\pi(\mathcal{B}) \coloneqq \{\pi(B_i)\}_{i=1}^k = \mathcal{B}$  for all  $\pi \in G$ , are  $\{G\}$  and the partition into singletons, i.e.,  $\{\{g\} \mid g \in G\}$ .

Example of a G that is transitive but imprimitive:

Let n=4, consider the permutation group  $G=\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$  of [4]. G is transitive, but preserves

$$\mathcal{B}=\{B_1=\{1,3\},\,B_2=\{2,4\}\},$$

so is imprimitive.

## Base of permutation groups

#### Definition

A base of a permutation group G on [n] is a set  $S \subseteq [n]$  such that if  $h \in G$  and h(x) = x for all  $x \in S$  then h is the identity element in G. The base size b(G) of G is the minimal size of a base.

#### Examples:

- 1.  $S_3$  on [3] has base size 2; a base is  $\{1,2\}$ ;  $S_n$  of [n] has base size n-1; a base is  $\{1,2,\ldots,n-1\}$ .
- 2.  $GL_n(\mathbb{F}_2)$ , invertible  $n \times n$  matrices over  $\mathbb{F}_2$ , on  $\mathbb{F}_2^n$  has base size n; a base is  $\{(1,0,\ldots,0),\ldots,(0,0,\ldots,1)\}$  (standard basis of  $\mathbb{F}_2^n$ ). Note that the base size is very small in the sense that it equals  $\log_2(|\mathbb{F}_2^n|=2^n)$ .
- 3. **Important.** If  $h, k \in G$  agree on a base, then  $hk^{-1}$  fixes that base, so h = k by definition. So if you know how h behaves on a base, you can identify h.

## Base of permutation groups and quantum speedups (1/2)

#### **Theorem**

Let G be a permutation group on [n], and let  $f: \mathcal{D} \subseteq \Sigma^n \to \{0,1\}$ . Then, there exists  $h: \widetilde{\mathcal{D}} \subseteq \widetilde{\Sigma}^n \to \{0,1\}$  that is symmetric under G such that  $Q(h) \leq Q(f) + b(G)$  and  $R(h) \geq R(f)$ .

### Corollary

If G has  $b(G) = n^{o(1)}$ , then there exists a function, symmetric under G, that admits a super-polynomial quantum speedup.

#### Proof of corollary.

In the theorem take f to be Simon's function, then  $Q(f) = O(\log n)$ , but  $R(f) = \Omega(\sqrt{n})$ . Therefore

$$Q(h) \le Q(f) + b(G) = O(\log n) + n^{o(1)} = n^{o(1)},$$
  
 $R(h) \ge R(f) = \Omega(\sqrt{n}).$ 

Hence a super-polynomial quantum speedup for computing h.

## Base of permutation groups and quantum speedups (2/2)

#### **Theorem**

Let G be a permutation group on [n], and let  $f: \mathcal{D} \subseteq \Sigma^n \to \{0,1\}$ . Then, there exists  $h: \widetilde{\mathcal{D}} \subseteq \widetilde{\Sigma}^n \to \{0,1\}$  that is symmetric under G such that  $Q(h) \leq Q(f) + b(G)$  and  $R(h) \geq R(f)$ .

#### Proof sketch.

Example with n=2:  $\mathcal{D}=\{(a,a),(b,a)\}\subseteq \Sigma^n=\{a,b\}^2$  and  $G=S_2$ . Construct the set  $\widehat{\mathcal{D}}$  of "G-permutations of  $\mathcal{D}$ ":

$$\widetilde{\mathcal{D}} := \{ [(a,1),(a,2)], [(a,2),(a,1)], [(b,1),(a,2)], [(a,2),(b,1)] \}$$

$$\subseteq (\Sigma \times [n])^n = \{ (a,1), (a,2), (b,1), (b,2) \}^2.$$

Let h be "the same as" f. Then  $h: \widetilde{\mathcal{D}} \subseteq (\Sigma \times [n])^n \to \{0,1\}$  is symmetric under G.  $Q(h) \leq Q(f) + b(G)$ : classically query the indices in the base to identify the G-permutation, then reverse this permutation, and use algorithm for computing f to compute h.  $R(h) \geq R(f)$ : clear as h is harder to compute than f.

## Primitive permutation groups and quantum speedups

#### Theorem (Liebeck, 1984)

Let G be a primitive permutation group on [n]. Then one of the following cases hold:

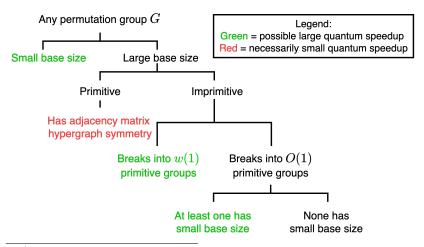
- 1.  $n = {m \choose p}^{\ell}$  and G contains permutations on  $[n] = [{m \choose p}]^{\ell}$  that permutes each of the  $\ell$ -entries according to  $A_m^p \subseteq S_m^p$ , i.e., essentially p-uniform hypergraph symmetries.
- 2.  $b(G) < 9 \log_2(n)$ .

**Consequence.** Complete characterization of quantum speedups for functions symmetric under primitive permutation groups:

- 1. Case 1: at most a  $3\ell p$ -power polynomial quantum speedup.
- 2. Case 2: super-polynomial quantum speedup.

## General permutation groups and quantum speedups

Prior art<sup>1</sup>: small quantum speedup for f symmetric under  $G = S_n$ . This work: general permutation groups are "built from" primitive permutation groups  $\implies$  near-complete characterization theorem.



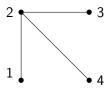
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Aaronson and Ambainis (2009); Chailloux (2018).



## Adjacency list model of graphs

In the adjacency list model, a (simple) graph on n vertices of degree bounded by d is modelled by a list of length  $n \times d$ .

Example with n = 4 and d = 3:

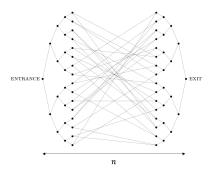


 $\begin{array}{ccccc}
2 & \bot & \bot \\
1 & 3 & 4 \\
2 & \bot & \bot \\
2 & \bot & \bot
\end{array}$ 

# Super-polynomial quantum speedup for graph property testing in the adjacency list model (1/2)

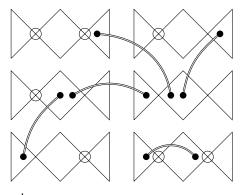
Graph property testing: given a graph promised to either have a property or is far from having it, decide which is the case.

**Main idea.** Upgrade the glued-trees problem<sup>2</sup>, which has a super-polynomial quantum speedup in the adjacency list model, to a graph property testing problem.

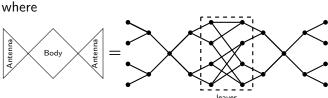


<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Childs, Cleve, Deotto, Farhi, Gutmann, and Spielman (2003).

# Super-polynomial quantum speedup for graph property testing in the adjacency list model (2/2)



Six "candy" subgraphs and five of the many double-edges that connect each body vertex to a distinct antenna vertex. The circles in the figure represent self-loops at the roots of the candy graphs, which provide advice about whether a body vertex is a leaf or non-leaf. Even parity of circles indicates non-leaf, odd parity indicates leaf.



Open problems

## Open problems

Thank you for your attention! Here are some of our open problems:

- 1. We showed that  $R(f) = O(Q(f)^{3p})$  for computing p-uniform hypergraph properties f in the adjacency matrix model, but what is the largest possible separation? That is, what is the largest k for which there exists such an f with  $R(f) = \Omega(Q(f)^k)$ ? Know  $k \ge p$ . Open even for p = 1.
- Can we get a complete characterization theorem regarding which permutation groups allow super-polynomial quantum speedups and which do not? Close already.
- 3. Does there exist a graph property testing problem *of practical interest* in the adjacency list model that admits a super-polynomial quantum speedup? We also conjecture that deciding a *monotone* graph property cannot admit a super-polynomial quantum speedup.