

# Applied Quantum Algorithms - Lecture 8 - Quantum Neural Networks

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Apr 26, 2023

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- ① Quantum machine learning (QML) concepts
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  - ② Review of classical neural networks (NNs)
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  - ⑤ Embedding classical data into quantum states
  - ⑥ Practical matters
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# Supervised learning

Aim: Given some data and their **labels**, predict the function<sup>1</sup> that assigns **unseen** data to the correct label.

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# Supervised learning

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Given	$D = \{(x_i, y_i) \mid x_i \in S; y_i = f(x_i)\},$
where	$S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n,$
predict	$f: S \rightarrow \text{labels}$

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- *Classification*: discrete labels
- *Regression*: continuous labels

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# Supervised learning

## function family and training

Instead of searching among all possible  $f: S \rightarrow \text{labels}$ , we choose a *function family* or *ansatz*, characterized by *free parameters*.

$$\{f_\theta \mid f_\theta : S, \Theta \rightarrow \text{labels}\}$$

$$\Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$$

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Find  $\theta$  s.t.  $f_\theta$  best approximates  $f$  w.r.t. a metric of error or *loss*.

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Mean squared error	$\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - f_\theta(x_i))^2$	Regression
Hinge loss	$\sum_{i=1}^N \max(0, 1 - y_i f(x_i))$	Classification



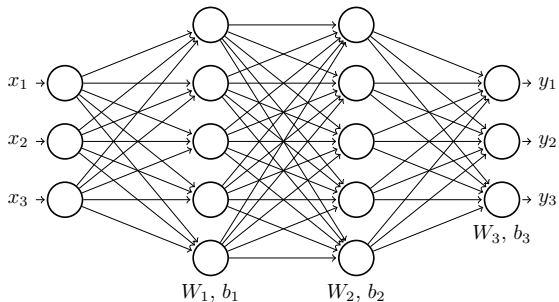
# Supervised learning algorithms

- Neural networks (this lecture)
- Support vector machines (next lecture)

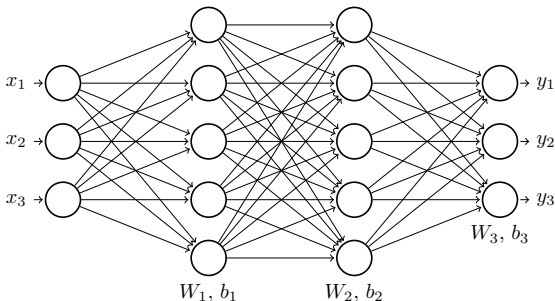
# Supervised learning algorithms

- Neural networks (this lecture)
- Support vector machines (next lecture)
- Naive Bayes
- Linear regression
- Logistic regression
- $k$ -nearest neighbours
- Random forest
- ...

# Classical neural networks



# Classical neural networks

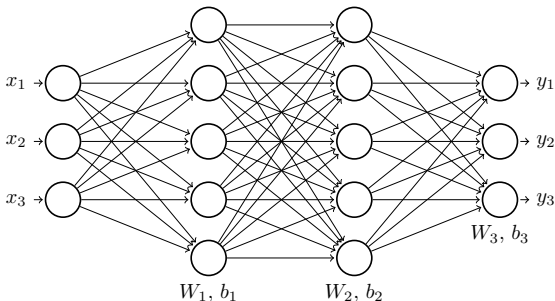


- $f_{\theta} = f(\mathbf{x}, W^{(1)}, \mathbf{b}^{(1)}, W^{(2)}, \mathbf{b}^{(2)}, \dots, W^{(l)}, \mathbf{b}^{(l)})$
- Layered structure:  $\mathbf{x}^{(l+1)} = \sigma(W^{(l)}\mathbf{x}^{(l)} + \mathbf{b}^{(l)})$

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Furthermore, NNs are universal function approximators<sup>2</sup>.

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# Classical neural networks

## Training - backpropagation

Training neural networks uses gradient-based algorithms

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Once we define

- ① free parameters
- ② model
- ③ loss function

we can build the so-called *computation graph*.

# Classical neural networks

## Training - backpropagation

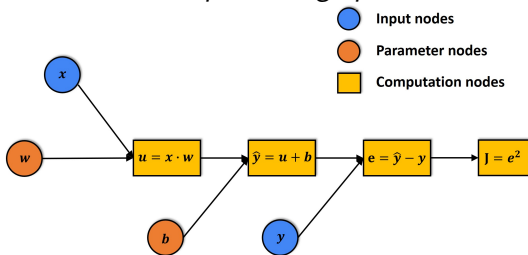
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# Classical neural networks

## Training - backpropagation

To build the gradient at time (epoch)  $t$ , we need 2 steps

- 1 *forward* direction - get the loss value and evaluate local gradients
- 2 *backward* direction: multiplications (chain rule)

# Classical neural networks

## Training - backpropagation

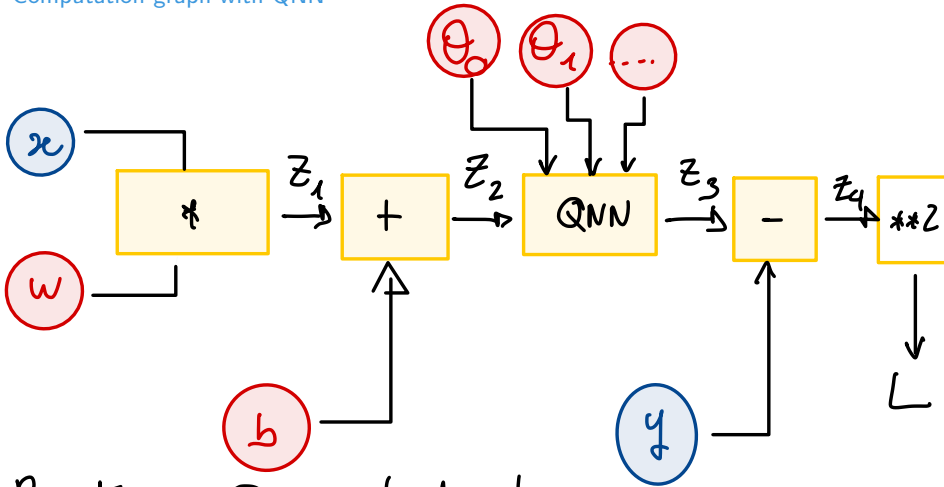
To build the gradient at time (epoch)  $t$ , we need 2 steps

- ① *forward* direction - get the loss value and evaluate local gradients
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It works differently in QNNs, since *we cannot store intermediate gradients*, due to the no-cloning theorem. More later...

# Intermezzo

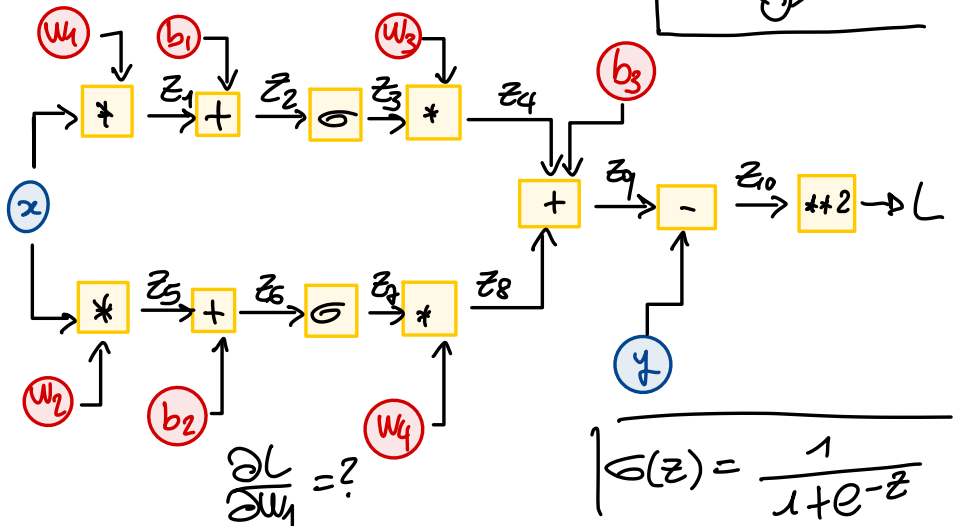
## Computation graph with QNN



- Back prop @ graph level
- No backprop for  $\theta_i$

# Classical neural networks

## Backpropagation example



# Quantum machine learning

## Some informal definitions

### Quantum-enhanced machine learning

Quantum computation to speed-up classical machine learning operations.

*Example:* SVM with quantum linear systems solver algorithm

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#### *Limitations*

- Input/output problem (QRAM?)
- De-quantization argument: for a fair comparison, *both classical and quantum* algorithm must have access to a QRAM  $\rightarrow$  classical algorithm also runs in  $O(\log(N))$

# Quantum machine learning

## Some informal definitions

### Machine learning in quantum feature spaces

Information is *encoded* into quantum states and classical algorithms find the optimal model.

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<sup>3</sup>J. Biamonte, P. Wittek, N. Pancotti, P. Rebentrost, N. Wiebe, and S. Lloyd (Sept. 2017). "Quantum machine learning". In: *Nature* 549.7671, pp. 195–202. DOI: [10.1038/nature23474](https://doi.org/10.1038/nature23474)

# Quantum machine learning

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Information is *encoded* into quantum states and classical algorithms find the optimal model.

*Note:* From here on, we will be focusing on ML in quantum feature spaces. For a review of quantum-enhanced ML, see <sup>3</sup>

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# Why QML?

## The advantage POV

As with all quantum algorithms, we ask ourselves: *how is QML better than ML?*

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Quantum advantage can be proved by

- Mapping data to certain states
- These states are hard to produce classically, but easy to produce (BQP) via a quantum algorithm
  - e.g. by solving the discrete log problem <sup>4</sup>
- We can compute inner products efficiently<sup>5</sup>

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However...

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## The advantage POV

However...

- Are there any *practically interesting* dataset in which QML can achieve advantage?
- Is advantage even the right thing to look for?

# Why QML?

Is quantum advantage the right goal for quantum machine learning? <sup>6</sup>

Advantage is just one of the possible points of view and maybe not the most useful one.

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- 1 What is(are) the fundamental building block(s) of QML models?
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- ② Can classical learning theory give us guarantees on the learning performance of QML models?
  - Yes, and the link is kernel theory.
- ③ Can we automate the learning process of (certain) QML models?
  - In particular, automatic differentiation.

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# The quantum neural network model

## 3 ingredients

- A data encoding unitary:  $U(\mathbf{x})$
- A variational unitary (ansatz):  $W(\theta)$
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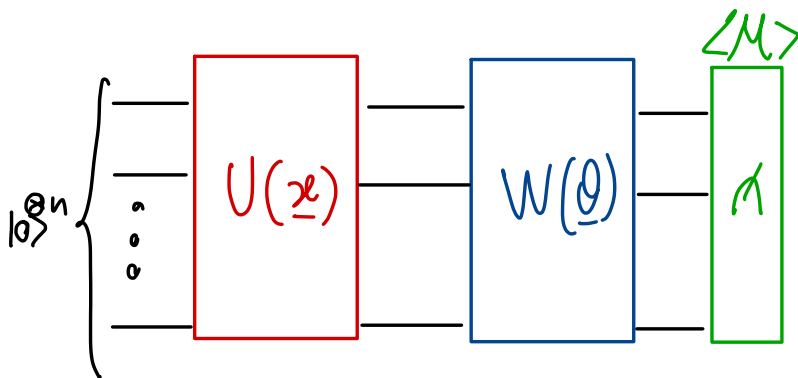
where

$$|\psi(\mathbf{x}, \theta)\rangle = W(\theta) U(\mathbf{x}) |0\rangle$$

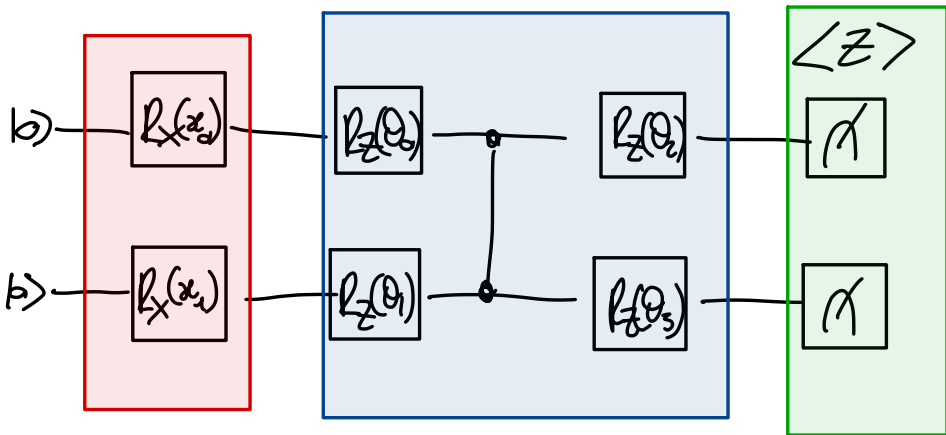
and

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \theta \in \mathbb{R}^p$$

# The quantum neural network model



## A simple QNN example



# QNN model evaluation

The model  $f = \langle \mathcal{M} \rangle_{\mathbf{x}, \theta}$  is the expectation value of the observable  $\mathcal{M}$  of the state  $\psi(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$

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- See previous slide where we measured in the  $X$  basis.

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- Alternatively, we use Hadamard<sup>7</sup> or SWAP<sup>8</sup> tests
- Finite sampling:  $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$  measurement to estimate  $\langle M \rangle$  up to precision  $\varepsilon$ 
  - Due to Chebyshev's inequality
  - In practice, a convergence study is necessary

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## QNN model training

Training is hybrid, as for all variational algorithms. At each epoch

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Training is hybrid, as for all variational algorithms. At each epoch

- ① (Quantum step) *Evaluate* the model  $f = \langle \mathcal{M} \rangle_{\mathbf{x}, \theta^{(t)}}$  and maybe  $\nabla_{\theta} f$ .
  - More on gradients later on...
- ② (Classical step 1) *Forward step* in the computation graph.
  - i.e. we evaluate a loss function  $L(\theta^{(t)})$  and the local gradients.
- ③ (Classical step 2) *Backward step* in the computational graph.
- ④ (Classical step 3) *Parameter update*.

$$\text{GD :} \quad \theta^{(t+1)} = \theta^{(t)} - \eta \nabla_{\theta^{(t)}} L$$

## QNN model training

Do you think it is a good idea to evaluate  $\nabla_{\theta} f$  with finite differences?  
Why? Why not?

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

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<sup>9</sup>even better, with high *margin*

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

A good choice of data embedding can make the difference in terms of

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# Encoding classical data in quantum states

- Runtime of the QML routine
  - how does the number of operations scale in the number of features  $N$  and dataset dimension  $M$

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# Encoding classical data in quantum states

- Runtime of the QML routine
  - how does the number of operations scale in the number of features  $N$  and dataset dimension  $M$
- Learning performance
  - Encoding data means to *map them to a high-dimensional Hilbert space*
  - E.g., in classification, we can linearly separate the data of different classes<sup>9</sup>, but also completely shuffle them!

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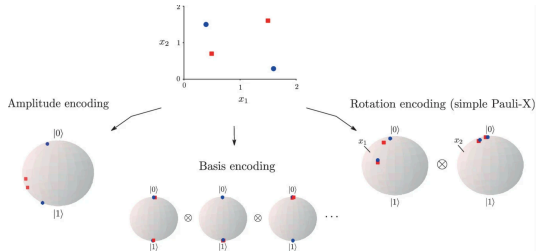
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# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Data encoding as a feature map

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{H}^{2^n}$$



# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Amplitude encoding

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Amplitude encoding

We have  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ . To make it a valid quantum state:

- 1 Normalize:  $\frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2}$
- 2 Pad until the closest power of 2:  $x_N, \dots, x_{2^n-1} = 0$

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Amplitude encoding (AE) is the identity transformation of this preprocessed state

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = |x\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i |i\rangle$$

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- AE is a linear transformation: if data is not linearly separable in the (normalized and padded) original space, then it won't be in the mapped space.
- num. qubits:  $\log(N)$
- runtime:  $O(N)^{10}$  in general

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# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Amplitude encoding

By adding an additional  $\log(M)$  qubits, we can also encode data in superposition

$$|\psi_{\mathbf{x}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i |i\rangle |m\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} |\psi_{\mathbf{x}_m}\rangle |m\rangle$$

- num. qubits:  $\log(NM)$
- runtime:  $O(NM)$

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Basis encoding

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## Basis encoding

For basis encoding, we first need to choose a binary representation of the features  $x_j$ . E.g., in floating point

$$b_j = b_{i,s} b_{i,n_e-1} \dots b_{i,0} b_{i,n_m-1} \dots b_{i,0}$$



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With  $\tau = 1 + n_e + n_m$  we can encode *each feature of each datapoint* into a different basis state. If we concatenate the features:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = |b_0 \dots b_{N-1}\rangle$$

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

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Of course, we can also create superpositions

$$|\psi_{\mathbf{x}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=1}^M |\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\rangle$$

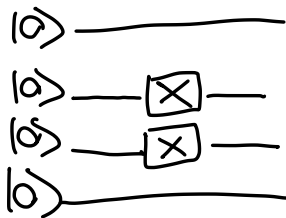
# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Basis encoding

	Single sample	Dataset
num. qubits	$N_T$	$N_T$
runtime	$O(N_T)$	$O(Mn_T)^{11}$

$$x = [01, 10]_b \xrightarrow{\phi} |0110\rangle$$

$$N=2, \\ L=2$$



<sup>11</sup>D. Ventura and T. Martinez (1998). *Quantum Associative Memory*. arXiv: [quant-ph/9807053](https://arxiv.org/abs/quant-ph/9807053) [quant-ph]

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Basis encoding

If basis encoding achieves perfect orthogonality between datapoints, why shouldn't we always use it for classification?

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Time-evolution encoding

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Time-evolution encoding

We're not constrained to *exactly* representing features. For instance, each feature can be the *evolution time of a certain Hamiltonian*

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = e^{-iH\mathbf{x}} |0\rangle$$

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Typically, we do *angle encoding*, i.e. each feature is encoded as a Pauli rotation.

*Example:* one feature, per rotation, per qubit, using Pauli  $X$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = e^{-iX_{N-1}x_{N-1}} \otimes e^{-iX_{N-2}x_{N-2}} \otimes \dots \otimes e^{-iX_0x_0} |0\rangle$$



# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Time-evolution encoding

For angle encoding:

	Single sample	Dataset
num. qubits	$N$	$N\lceil\log(M)\rceil$
runtime	$O(N)$	$O(MN)$

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Time-evolution encoding

For angle encoding:

	Single sample	Dataset
num. qubits	$N$	$N\lceil\log(M)\rceil$
runtime	$O(N)$	$O(MN)$

$$|0\rangle \xrightarrow{R_x(x_1)} \xrightarrow{R_x(x_2)} \dots$$

$$|0\rangle \xrightarrow{R_x(x_2)} \dots$$

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Hamiltonian encoding of a dataset

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# Encoding classical data in quantum states

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If we keep the original data matrix  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$  and we can rewrite it as an Hermitian matrix  $H_{\mathbf{X}}$ , then we can encode the entire dataset as a Hamiltonian simulation

$$\phi : |0\rangle \rightarrow e^{-iH_{\mathbf{X}}t}$$

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- More efficient algorithms exist for *sparse* Hamiltonians, but they require an *oracle*
  - Row  $i$ ,  $j$ th non-zero element

$$|i, j, 0\rangle \rightarrow |i, j, H_{ij}\rangle$$

- Likely need to hard-code it and full of multi-controlled gates

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# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Hamiltonian encoding of a dataset

- Num. qubits:  $\log(N)$
- Runtime:  $O(MN)$  or  $O(\log(MN))$ 
  - $O(\log(MN))$  only for sparse **X** and a few other cases.

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

Quantum models as sums of periodic functions

# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Quantum models as sums of periodic functions

- 1 time-evolution embedding:  $S(x_i) = e^{iHx_i}$  for feature  $i$ .
- 2 *layered* model circuit

$$U(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = W_{N-1}(\theta_{N-1}) \prod_{i=N-2}^0 S_i(x_i) W_i(\theta_i)$$

- 3  $H = \text{diag}(\lambda_0^i, \dots, \lambda_{d-1}^i)$

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Then, the quantum model  $f(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = \langle \psi(\mathbf{x}, \theta) | \mathcal{M} | \psi(\mathbf{x}, \theta) \rangle$  can be expressed as a multidimensional series of periodic functions<sup>13</sup>

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = \sum_{\omega_0 \in \Omega_0} \dots \sum_{\omega_{N-1} \in \Omega_{N-1}} c_{\omega_0 \dots \omega_{N-1}}(\theta) e^{i\omega_0 x_0} \dots e^{i\omega_{N-1} x_{N-1}},$$

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where **the frequencies are completely determined by the eigenvalues of the data-encoding Hamiltonian**

$$\Omega_i = \{ \lambda_s^i - \lambda_t^i | s, t \in \{1, \dots, d\} \}$$

---

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# Encoding classical data in quantum states

## Quantum models as sums of periodic functions

Furthermore, if  $\lambda_s^i, \lambda_t^i$  are integer (s.a. for Pauli gates),  $f(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$  becomes a *Fourier series*

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In particular, by repeating the encoding of a feature, we can obtain multiple of the period.

For instance, if two of the features are the same, then  $x_i = x_j = x$

$$e^{in_i x_i} e^{in_j x_j} = e^{i(n_i + n_j)x}$$

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From this observation and the universality of Fourier series follows the *universality of quantum models with time evolution encoding*.



# Practical matters

Access to Fourier coefficients in time evolution encoding

What about the coefficients  $c_{n_0, \dots, n_{N-1}}(\theta)$ ?

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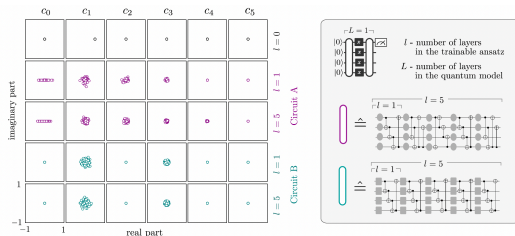
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- All the elements of the circuit model determine them (data encoding, ansatz, measurement).
- No matter the frequency that we encode for  $x_i$ , if some  $c_{n_i} = 0$ , then we cannot access those frequencies.
- How each element affects each coefficient is a matter of active research.



# Practical matters

## Gradients

Computing gradients is done with the *parameter shift rule* (PSR). E.g. for Pauli gates:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_i} = \frac{f(\theta_i + s) - f(\theta_i - s)}{2}$$

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How many *model evaluations* we need to compute the *full gradient*?

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How many *model evaluations* we need to compute the *full gradient*?

backpropagation	2
PSR	$2n_{\text{params}}n_{\text{shots}}$

# Practical matters

## Gradients

Is this a fair comparison?



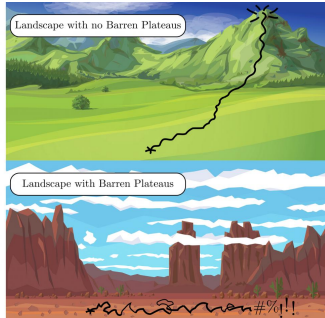
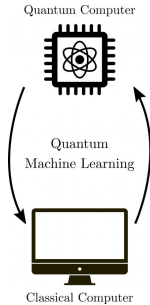
Is this a fair comparison?

Not really...

	n. steps	$O(N)$ linear algebra	parallelization	optimized libraries
Classical	+	-	++	++
Quantum	-	+	+	+

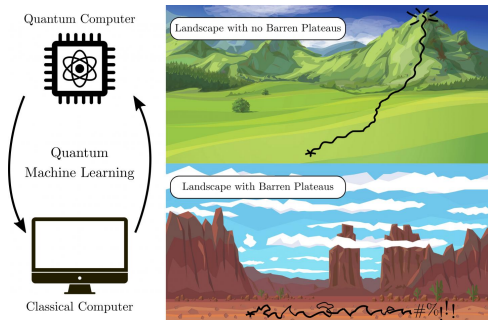
# Practical matters

## Barren plateaus



# Practical matters

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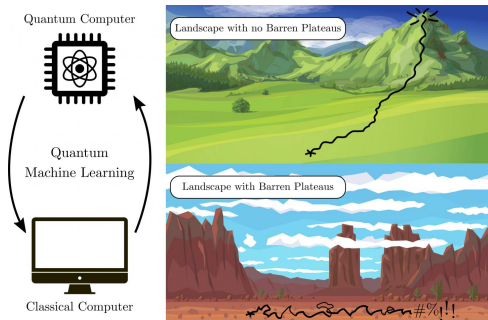
$$\text{Var} [\partial_{\theta_i} C(\theta)] \leq F(n),$$

$$F(n) \in O\left(\frac{1}{b^n}\right), \quad b > 1$$

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## Barren plateaus



$$\text{Var} [\partial_{\theta_i} C(\theta)] \leq F(n),$$

$$F(n) \in O\left(\frac{1}{b^n}\right), \quad b > 1$$

- Different reasons, the main one is the ansatz  $W(\theta)$
- Problem-agnostic ansatzes suffer from BPs with high  $n$  and high depths<sup>14</sup>

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## Links for demos

```
https://colab.research.google.com/github/  
debrevitatevitae/LabSessionQML/blob/main/  
variational-classifier-parity.ipynb
```



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