

Experimenting with machine learning algorithms on quantum computers

Nagy Dániel¹

¹Institute for Physics, Eötvös Loránd University, H-1117, Pázmány Péter sétány 1/A.
Budapest, Hungary

Created on December 1, 2019

Last update: March 6, 2021

Abstract

A modern számítástechnika jelentős eredményei közé tartozik a gépi tanulás és mesterséges intelligencia alapvető algoritmusainak kifejlesztése és ezek hasznosságának tesztelése különböző feladatokon. Ugyanakkor az elmúlt években a kvantumszámítás is jelentős fejlődésen ment keresztül, olyannyira, hogy 2019-ben a Google kísérleti csapatának sikerült demonstrálnia a kvantumfölényt. A munka során megvizsgáljuk a két terület átfedéséből származó lehetőségeket: klasszikus adatok kvantumos feldolgozását illetve a klasszikus gépi tanulás segítségével történő kvantumos hibajavítást.

Gépi tanulási algoritmusok vizsgálata kvantumszámítógépeken

Nagy Dániel¹

¹Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetem, Fizika Intézet, H-1117, Pázmány Péter sétány 1/A.
Budapest, Magyarország

Elkezdve: December 1, 2019

Utolsó frissítés: 2021. március 6.

Kivonat

A modern számítástechnika jelentős eredményei közé tartozik a gépi tanulás és mesterséges intelligencia alapvető algoritmusainak kifejlesztése és ezek hasznosságának tesztelése különböző feladatokon. Ugyanakkor az elmúlt években a kvantumszámítás is jelentős fejlődésen ment keresztül, olyannyira, hogy 2019-ben a Google kísérleti csapatának sikerült demonstrálnia a kvantumfölényt. A munka során megvizsgáljuk a két terület átfedéséből származó lehetőségeket: klasszikus adatok kvantumozását illetve a klasszikus gépi tanulás segítségével történő kvantumozás hibajavítást.

Contents

1	Introduction	7
2	Quantum computing	7
3	Machine learning	7
3.1	Reinforcement learning	7
3.1.1	Proximal Policy optimization	7
4	Quantum Machine Learning	8
4.1	Parametric quantum circuits	8
4.2	Calculating the gradients of the parameters	8
A	Mathematical preliminaries	8
A.1	Hilbert spaces	8
A.2	Linear operators on Hilbert spaces	9
A.3	Hermitian Operators, Unitary Operators, Spectral theorem, Hadamard-lemma	10
A.4	Pure and mixed quantum states	11

List of Figures

1 Introduction

2 Quantum computing

3 Machine learning

3.1 Reinforcement learning

3.1.1 Proximal Policy optimization

$$r_t(\theta) = \frac{\pi_\theta(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t|s_t)} = \log \pi_\theta(a_t|s_t) - \log \pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t|s_t) \quad (1)$$

$$\delta_t = r_t + \gamma V^\pi(s_{t+1}) - V^\pi(s_t) \quad (2)$$

$$\hat{A}_t = \sum_{l=0}^{T-t-1} (\gamma\lambda)^l \delta_{t+l} = (\gamma\lambda)^0 \delta_t + (\gamma\lambda) \delta_{t+1} + \dots + (\gamma\lambda)^{T-t-1} \delta_{T-1} \quad (3)$$

$$L^{CLIP}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_t \left[\min \left(r_t(\theta) \hat{A}_t, \text{clip}(r_t(\theta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) \hat{A}_t \right) \right] = \mathbb{E}_t \left[\min \left(r_t(\theta) \hat{A}_t, g(\epsilon, \hat{A}_t) \right) \right] \quad (4)$$

$$g(\epsilon, \hat{A}_t) = \begin{cases} (1 + \epsilon) \hat{A}_t, & \hat{A}_t \geq 0 \\ (1 - \epsilon) \hat{A}_t, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

$$V_{\text{targ}}^\pi(s_t) = \sum_{l=0}^{T-t} \gamma^l r_{t+l} \quad (6)$$

$$L^{VF} = \mathbb{E}_t \left[\left(V^\pi(s_t) - V_{\text{targ}}^\pi(s_t) \right)^2 \right] \quad (7)$$

$$H[\pi] = \mathbb{E}_t \left[- \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi_\theta(a|s_t) \log \pi_\theta(a|s_t) \right] \quad (8)$$

$$L = L^{CLIP} + c_1 L^{VF} + c_2 H[\pi] \quad (9)$$

How to measure the entropy term for a quantum state ρ ? How to measure the KL-divergence of two quantum states ρ_1, ρ_2 ?

Algorithm 1 PPO-Clip

```

1: procedure PPOCLIP( $\epsilon, E, N, T, K$ )
2:   for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, E\}$  do
3:     for all  $n \in \{1, \dots, N\}$  do
4:       Run the old policy  $\pi_{\text{old}}$  in the environment for  $T$  timesteps.
5:       for all  $t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$  do
6:         Calculate the advantage estimate  $\hat{A}_t$ 
7:       end for
8:     end for
9:     for all  $k \in \{1, \dots, K\}$  do
10:      Sample a batch of size  $M \leq NT$  and optimize the surrogate loss  $L$ .
11:    end for
12:  end for
13: end procedure

```

4 Quantum Machine Learning

4.1 Parametric quantum circuits

4.2 Calculating the gradients of the parameters

A Mathematical preliminaries

A.1 Hilbert spaces

Definition 1. *Hilbert-space*

Given a field T (real or complex), a vector space \mathcal{H} endowed with an inner product, is called a Hilbert-space, if it is a complete metric space with respect to the distance function induced by the inner product. The inner product is a map $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow T$, for which $\forall x, y, z \in \mathcal{H}$:

- $\langle x | x \rangle \geq 0$
- $\langle x | x \rangle = 0 \iff x = \mathbf{0} \in \mathcal{H}$
- $\langle x | y \rangle = \langle y | x \rangle^*$, where $*$ denotes complex conjugation.
- $\langle x | \alpha y + \beta z \rangle = \alpha \langle x | y \rangle + \beta \langle x | z \rangle$, where $\alpha, \beta \in T$

The norm induced by this inner product is a map $\| \cdot \| : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow T$ defined as

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x | x \rangle},$$

And the metric induced by this norm is defined as

$$d(x, y) = \|x - y\| = \sqrt{\langle x - y | x - y \rangle}.$$

The space \mathcal{H} is said to be complete if every Cauchy-sequence is convergent with respect to the norm, and the limit is in \mathcal{H} . That is, each sequence x_1, x_2, \dots , for which

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N(\epsilon) \text{ so, that } n > m > N(\epsilon) \implies \|x_n - x_m\| < \epsilon.$$

Definition 2. Linear functional

Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert-space over the field T . Then, the map $\varphi : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow T$ is called a linear functional, if

$$\varphi(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha \varphi(x) + \beta \varphi(y), \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in T, x, y \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Definition 3. Dual space

Given a Hilbert-space \mathcal{H} , its dual space, \mathcal{H}^* is the space of all continuous linear functionals from the space H into the base field. The norm of an element in \mathcal{H}^* is

$$\|\varphi\|_{\mathcal{H}^*} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sup_{\|x\|=1, x \in \mathcal{H}} |\varphi(x)|.$$

Theorem 1. Riesz representation theorem

For every element $y \in \mathcal{H}$, there exists a unique element $\varphi_y \in \mathcal{H}^*$, defined by

$$\varphi_y(x) = \langle y|x \rangle, \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{H}.$$

The mapping $y \mapsto \varphi_y$ is an antilinear mapping i.e. $\alpha y_1 + \beta y_2 \mapsto \alpha^* \varphi_{y_1} + \beta^* \varphi_{y_2}$, and the Riesz-representation theorem states that this mapping is an antilinear isomorphism. The inner product in \mathcal{H}^* satisfies

$$\langle \varphi_x | \varphi_y \rangle = \langle x | y \rangle^* = \langle y | x \rangle.$$

Moreover, $\|y\|_{\mathcal{H}} = \|\varphi_y\|_{\mathcal{H}^*}$.

Definition 4. Dirac-notation

From now on, the elements in \mathcal{H} will be denoted by $|x\rangle$ and their corresponding element in \mathcal{H}^* as $\langle x|$.

A.2 Linear operators on Hilbert spaces

Definition 5. Linear operators

A map $\hat{A} : \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$ is a linear operator, if

$$\hat{A}(\alpha |x\rangle + \beta |y\rangle) = \alpha(\hat{A}|x\rangle) + \beta(\hat{A}|y\rangle).$$

Remark 1. If not stated otherwise, we will assume that $\mathcal{H}_1 = \mathcal{H}_2 = \mathcal{H}$.

Remark 2. Operators will be denoted with a hat ($\hat{\cdot}$).

Definition 6. Bounded linear operators

A linear operator $\hat{A} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ is bounded, if

$$\exists m \in \mathbb{R} : |\langle v | \hat{A} | v \rangle| \leq m \langle v | v \rangle, \quad \forall |v\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$$

Remark 3. The set of all bounded operators on \mathcal{H} is denoted $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$.

Definition 7. Commutators and anticommutators

Since operators usually do not commute, its useful to define their commutator and anticommutator:

$$\begin{aligned} [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] &= \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A} \\ \{\hat{A}, \hat{B}\} &= \hat{A}\hat{B} + \hat{B}\hat{A} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 8. Operator norm

The operator norm of an operator \hat{A} is defined as

$$\|\hat{A}\| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \inf\{c \geq 0 : \|\hat{A}|v\rangle\| \leq c\| |v\rangle \|, \quad \forall |v\rangle \in \mathcal{H}\}$$

Definition 9. Trace-class operators

An operator \hat{A} is called trace-class if it admits a well defined and finite trace $\text{Tr} [\hat{A}] = \sum_j \langle j | \hat{A} | j \rangle$

Definition 10. Positive operators

An operator \hat{A} is called positive if $\langle v | \hat{A} | v \rangle \geq 0, \forall |v\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$. If $\hat{A} = \sum_j \lambda_j |j\rangle \langle j|$ then \hat{A} is positive if $\lambda_j \geq 0$.

Definition 11. Projections An operator $\Pi : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ is a projection if $\Pi^2 = \Pi$.

A.3 Hermitian Operators, Unitary Operators, Spectral theorem, Hadamard-lemma

Definition 12. Hermitian adjoint

Consider a **bounded** linear operator $\hat{A} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$. The hermitian adjoint of \hat{A} is a bounded linear operator $\hat{A}^\dagger : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ which satisfies

$$\langle y | \hat{A} | x \rangle = \left(\langle x | \hat{A}^\dagger | y \rangle \right)^*, \quad \forall |x\rangle, |y\rangle \in \mathcal{H}. \quad (10)$$

Definition 13. Hermitian operators

A bounded linear operator $\hat{H} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ is Hermitian if

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}^\dagger, \text{ i.e. } \hat{H} |x\rangle = \hat{H}^\dagger |x\rangle, \quad \forall |x\rangle \in \mathcal{H}. \quad (11)$$

Definition 14. Unitary operator

A bounded linear operator $\hat{U} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ is unitary if

$$\hat{U}\hat{U}^\dagger = \hat{U}^\dagger\hat{U} = 1, \text{ in other words, } \hat{U}^\dagger = \hat{U}^{-1}. \quad (12)$$

Definition 15. Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

Consider bounded linear operator \hat{A} . If exist a vectors $|k\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ such that

$$\hat{A} |k\rangle = \lambda_k |k\rangle, \quad (13)$$

then $|k\rangle$ is called an eigenvector of \hat{A} and λ_k is the corresponding eigenvalue.

An important property of Hermitian operators is that they can be diagonalized with real eigenvalues. This is formally stated by the spectral theorem:

Theorem 2. The Spectral theorem

Let \hat{A} be a bounded Hermitian operator on some Hilbert-space \mathcal{H} . Then there exists an orthonormal basis in \mathcal{H} which consists of the eigenvectors of \hat{A} and each eigenvalue of \hat{A} is real.

This means that any bounded Hermitian operator \hat{H} can be decomposed as

$$\hat{H} = \sum_k \lambda_k \hat{P}_k = \sum_k \lambda_k |k\rangle \langle k| \quad (14)$$

where λ_k and $|k\rangle$ are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of \hat{H} .

Definition 16. Exponential of operators If X is a linear operator, we can define the exponential of X :

$$e^X = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{X^n}{n!}$$

Important: The product of exponentials of operators generally isn't equal to the exponential of their sum:

$$e^X e^Y = e^{Z(X,Y)} \neq e^{X+Y},$$

where $Z(X, Y)$ is given by the Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula:

$$\begin{aligned} Z(X, Y) = & X + Y + \frac{1}{2}[X, Y] + \frac{1}{12}[X, [X, Y]] - \frac{1}{12}[Y, [X, Y]] - \frac{1}{24}[Y, [X, [X, Y]]] \\ & - \frac{1}{720}([[[[X, Y], Y], Y], Y] + [[[Y, X], X], X], X) + \dots \end{aligned}$$

It is however equal if $[X, Y] = 0$:

$$\text{if } [X, Y] = 0 \implies e^X e^Y = e^{X+Y}$$

There are 2 important special cases:

Theorem 3. The Hadamard-lemma

$$e^X Y e^{-X} = Y + [X, Y] + \frac{1}{2!}[X, [X, Y]] + \frac{1}{3!}[X, [X, [X, Y]]] + \dots$$

Theorem 4. If X and Y commute with their commutator, i.e. $[X, [X, Y]] = [Y, [X, Y]] = 0$, then:

$$e^X e^Y = e^{X+Y+\frac{1}{2}[X,Y]}$$

Theorem 5. If $[X, Y] = sY$ with $s \in \mathbb{C}, s \neq 2i\pi n, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ then:

$$e^X e^Y = \exp\left(X + \frac{s}{1 - e^{-s}} Y\right)$$

A.4 Pure and mixed quantum states

Definition 17. Quantum states

A quantum state of a quantum system is a mathematical entity that provides a probability distribution for the outcomes of each possible measurement on the system.

Definition 18. Pure quantum states

Pure quantum states are quantum states that can be described by a vector $|\psi\rangle$ of norm 1.

If one multiplies a pure quantum state by a complex scalar $e^{i\alpha}$, then the new state is physically equivalent to the former, thus $|\psi\rangle$ and $e^{i\alpha}|\psi\rangle$ are the same pure state. The transformation $|\psi\rangle \rightarrow e^{i\alpha}|\psi\rangle$ does not change the outcomes of measurements on the state, however the phase α is important in quantum algorithms.

Example. For example, the states $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + e^{i\pi}|1\rangle)$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}|1\rangle)$ are not the same quantum state, but in both states there is 50-50 percent probability of measuring $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$.

Definition 19. Density Matrix

A quantum state $\hat{\rho}$ is a trace-1, self-adjoint, positive semidefinite operator. The set of quantum states is

$$\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H}) = \{\hat{\rho} : \hat{\rho} \geq 0, \hat{\rho} = \hat{\rho}^\dagger, \text{Tr}[\hat{\rho}] = 1\}$$

A quantum state is pure if and only if $\hat{\rho}^2 = \hat{\rho}$. Also, if ρ is a pure state, then it can be written as $\hat{\rho} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$. The operator ρ is called the density operator or density matrix.