# Ciência de Dados Quântica 2021/22 Data Encoding

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#### Material de Consulta

► [Schuld2021] - Sec 3.4 (3.4.1; 3.4.2) Chap. 4 (4.1; 4.2)

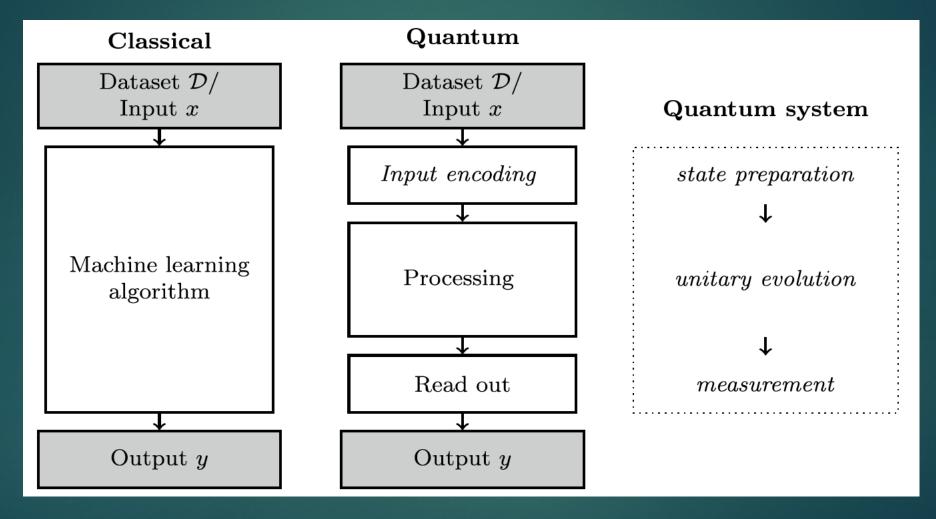
#### Data Encoding

Consider a dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  with M data points, each a vector of N features

$$\mathcal{D}=\{x^1,\cdots,x^M\}$$
, with  $x^m\in\mathbb{R}^N$ , i.e.  $x^m=\{x_1^m,\cdots,x_N^m\}^T$ 

**Data encoding** (or state preparation) is the process of **representing** either a **single data point** or the **entire dataset** as a **quantum state**.

#### Data Encoding



[Schuld2021]

# Data encoding and algorithm complexity

- ▶ In classical ML an efficient algorithm is  $O(M^s N^t)$ ,  $s,t \ge 1$
- In quantum computing an efficient algorithm is O(n), n the nbr qubits
- State preparation is often the bottleneck of the quantum algorithm
- Theoretical frameworks, software and hardware that address the interface between the classical memory and the quantum device are central for runtime evaluations.

Encoding	# qubits
Basis	N au
Amplitude	$\log N$
Angle	N

#### Basis encoding

- Basis encoding associates a computational basis state of an n-qubit system with a classical n-bit string
- $\blacktriangleright$  Exemplo:  $|3\rangle = |0011\rangle$
- ▶ Encoding a single data point with  $\tau$  qubits per feature and N features:

$$\begin{vmatrix} |3\rangle = |0011\rangle \\ b_0 & |0\rangle & \times & |1\rangle \\ b_1 & |0\rangle & \times & |1\rangle \\ b_2 & |0\rangle & - & |0\rangle \\ b_3 & |0\rangle & - & |0\rangle \end{vmatrix}$$

# Binary: signal + fixed point amplitude

$$b = b_{s}b_{\tau_{l-1}} \cdots b_{1} \ b_{0} \cdot b_{-1}b_{-2} \ \cdots b_{-\tau_{r}}$$

$$x = (-1)^{b_s} (b_{\tau_{l-1}} * 2^{\tau_{l-1}} + \cdots + b_1 * 2^1 + b_0 * 2^0 + b_{-1} * 2^{-1} + \cdots + b_{-\tau_r} * 2^{-\tau_r})$$

#### Basis encoding in superposition

 $\mathcal{D} = \{x^1, \dots, x^M\}$ , where  $x^m \in \mathcal{D}$  is given by  $x^m = b^m = \{b_1^m, \dots, b_n^m\}^T$ then a superposition of basis states can be prepared:

$$|\mathcal{D}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{m=1}^{M} |x^m\rangle$$

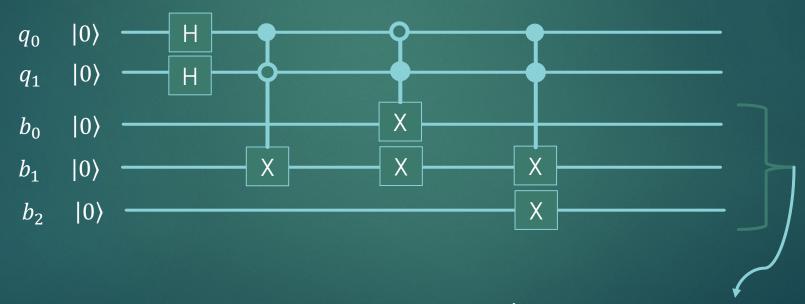
**Example:**  $\mathcal{D} = \{(1,2), (0,3), (2,3)\} \iff \mathcal{D} = \{(01,10), (00,11), (10,11)\}$ 

$$|\mathcal{D}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0110\rangle + |0011\rangle + |1011\rangle)$$

$$|\mathcal{D}\rangle = \left(0, 0, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, 0, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, 0, 0, 0, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, 0, 0, 0, 0\right)$$

#### Basis encoding in superposition

▶ **Example:**  $\mathcal{D} = \{3,6,2\}$   $\mathcal{D} = \{0,2,3,6\}$ 



$$\frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |011\rangle + |110\rangle)$$

#### Basis encoding: conclusion

- ls expensive in terms of qubits:  $NM\tau$
- The complexity of the state preparation circuit depends on the superposition, but in general can be  $\mathcal{O}(2^n)$
- Simplest case: uniform superposition

$$|\mathcal{D}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{i=0}^{2^n - 1} |i\rangle \qquad |\mathcal{D}\rangle = H^{\otimes n} |0\rangle^{\otimes n}$$

#### QRAM

Theoretical device that loads data patterns from memory to a quantum state:

given an address  $|m\rangle$  in a quantum register loads the corresponding data bit pattern to a second register :

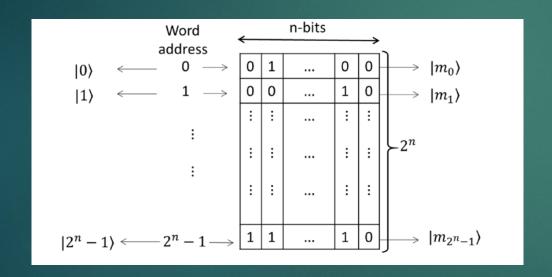
$$|m\rangle|0\cdots0\rangle \longrightarrow |m\rangle|x^m\rangle$$

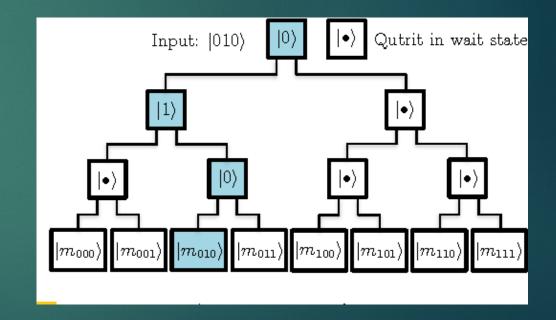
More importantly, given a superposition of the address register, loads the corresponding data patterns to the superposition:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} |m\rangle |0\cdots 0\rangle \longrightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} |m\rangle |x^m\rangle$$

#### QRAM

Architectures have been proposed to realize this query in  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  time, but its physical realisation remains an open challenge





Quantum Random Access Memory Vittorio Giovannetti, Seth Lloyd, and Lorenzo Maccone Phys. Rev. Lett. **100**, 160501 – Published 21 April 2008

# Angle Encoding

▶ Each feature of a data point is encoded as a rotation of a qubit. For  $x = \{x_1, \dots x_N\}$  and angle encoding N qubits and N rotation gates are required

$$|x\rangle = \bigotimes_{i=1}^{N} R_{\mathcal{Y}}(x_i)|0\rangle_i$$

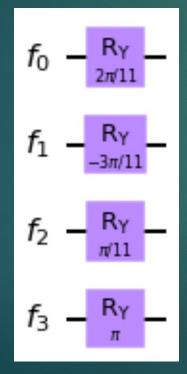
$$|q_i\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{x_i}{2}\right)|0\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{x_i}{2}\right)|1\rangle$$

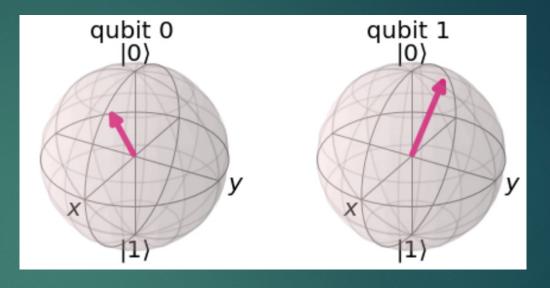
▶ Each feature has to be normalized in the interval  $[-\pi,\pi]$ 

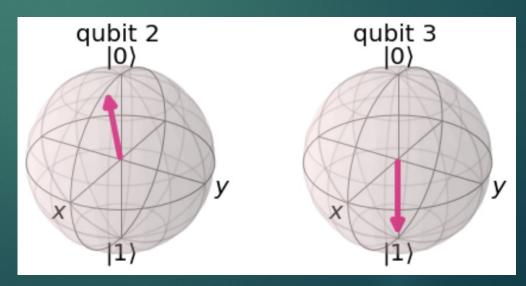
$$\widetilde{x_i} = \frac{x_i}{\max_{x_j}(abs(x_j))} * \pi$$

# Angle Encoding: example

- $\rightarrow x = (2, -3, 1, 11)$
- $\tilde{x} = \left(\frac{2}{11}\pi, -\frac{3}{11}\pi, \frac{1}{11}\pi, \pi\right)$







#### Amplitude Encoding

A real or complex valued vector  $x \in \mathbb{C}^N$  is encoded into the amplitudes of a quantum state:

$$|\psi_x\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i |i\rangle$$

- ▶ x has to be normalised such that  $\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |x_i|^2 = 1$  and padded with zeros such that N is a power of 2
- An entire dataset can be encoded

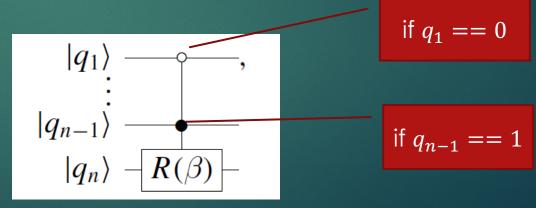
$$\left|\psi_{\mathcal{D}}\right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i \left|i\right\rangle \left|m\right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \left|\psi_{\chi^m}\right\rangle \left|m\right\rangle$$

#### Amplitude Encoding: example

- $\rightarrow x = (0.1, -0.6, 1.0)$
- $\blacktriangleright$  norm =  $\sum |x_i|$
- $\tilde{x} = \frac{x}{norm} = (0.073, -0.438, 0.730, 0.000)$
- $|\psi_x\rangle = 0.073|00\rangle 0.438|01\rangle + 0.730|10\rangle + 0.000|11\rangle$
- ightharpoonup Amplitude encoding requires only log(MN) qubits
- The theoretical lower bound of the depth of an arbitrary state preparation circuit is known to be  $\frac{1}{n}2^n$  but currently known algorithms perform slightly worse

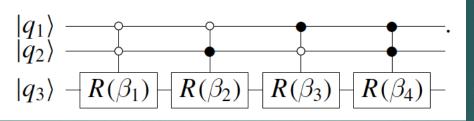
#### Amplitude Encoding: Mottonen et al.

- The inverse circuit is designed by considering the reverse problem of mapping the arbitrary state  $|\psi\rangle$  to the ground state  $|0\cdots 0\rangle$
- The basic idea is to control a rotation on qubit  $q_s$  by all possible states of the previous qubits  $q_1 \cdots q_{s-1}$ , using sequences of so-called multi-controlled rotations.
- ► A controlled rotation is depicted by:

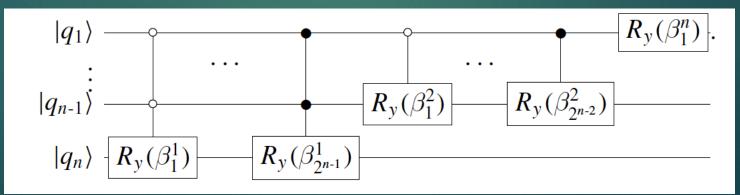


# Amplitude Encoding: Mottonen et al.

Representing conditional rotations on all possible states of the previous qubits:



The final cascade:



[Schuld2021]

#### Amplitude Encoding: Mottonen et al.

 $\blacktriangleright$  The rotation angles  $\beta$  are given by

$$\beta_j^s = 2 \arcsin \left( \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{l=1}^{2^{s-1}} |\alpha_{(2j-1)2^{s-1}+l}|^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{l=1}^{2^s} |\alpha_{(j-1)2^s+l}|^2}} \right).$$

- ▶ This algorithm is still  $\mathcal{O}(2^n)$
- ▶ It is the algorithm used by Qiskit initialize():

```
qc = QuantumCircuit (1)
state = [1/sqrt(2), 1j/sqrt(2)]
qc.initialize(state, 0)
```

#### Amplitude Encoding: example

 $|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{0.2}|000\rangle + \sqrt{0.5}|010\rangle + \sqrt{0.2}|110\rangle + \sqrt{0.1}|111\rangle$ 

$$c_{q_{1}=0}c_{q_{2}=0} R_{y}^{q_{3}}(\beta_{1}^{1}), \qquad \beta_{1}^{1}=0,$$

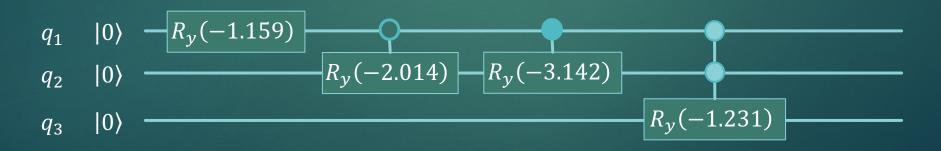
$$c_{q_{1}=0}c_{q_{2}=1} R_{y}^{q_{3}}(\beta_{2}^{1}), \qquad \beta_{2}^{1}=0,$$

$$c_{q_{1}=1}c_{q_{2}=0} R_{y}^{q_{3}}(\beta_{3}^{1}), \qquad \beta_{3}^{1}=0,$$

$$c_{q_{1}=1}c_{q_{2}=1} R_{y}^{q_{3}}(\beta_{4}^{1}), \qquad \beta_{4}^{1}=1.231...,$$

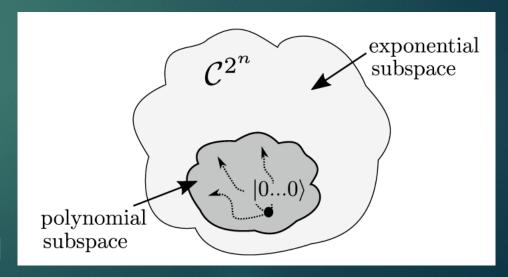
$$c_{q_1=0} R_y^{q_2}(\beta_1^2), \qquad \beta_1^2 = 2.014...,$$
  
 $c_{q_1=1} R_y^{q_2}(\beta_2^2), \qquad \beta_2^2 = 3.142...,$   
 $R_y^{q_1}(\beta_1^3), \qquad \beta_1^3 = 1.159....$ 

Invertendo o circuito:



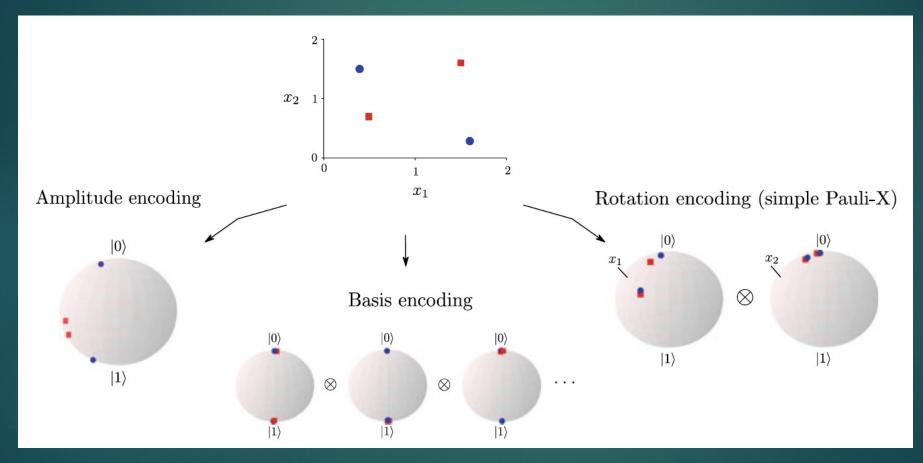
#### Amplitude encoding: conclusions

- It is an exponentially compact representation: requires only n = log N qubits to encode an input of N features, and n = log(NM) qubits for an M points dataset
- But is there an algorithm that only uses log(NM) gates to prepare amplitude-encoded states?
  - it is a strange concept since loading the N features from the memory hardware takes time that is linear in N
- ► It is possible only when the dataset exhibits structure:
  - uniform superposition,
  - very sparse data sets



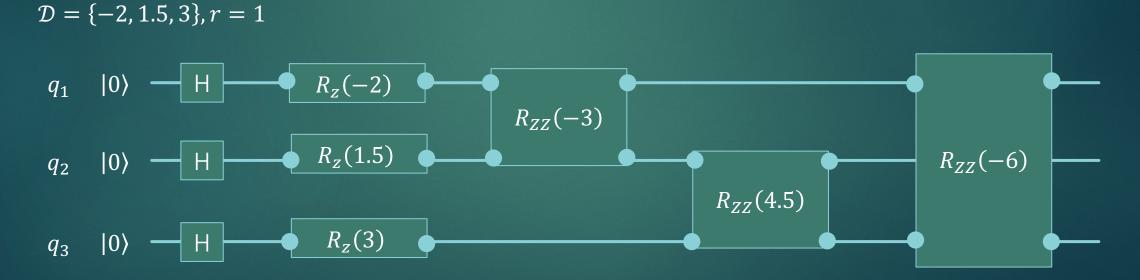
[Schuld2021]

#### Data encoding: Bloch visualization



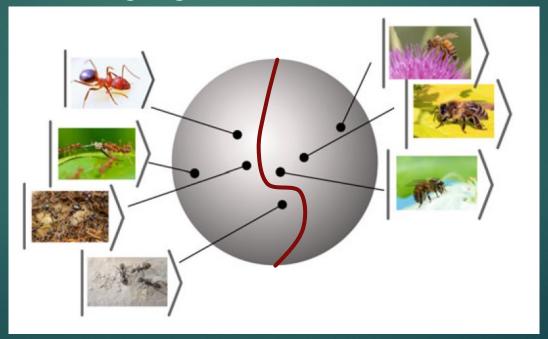
#### Instantaneous quantum polynomial: IQP

$$|x\rangle = \left(U_Z(x)H^{\otimes n}\right)^r |0\rangle^{\otimes n} \qquad \qquad U_Z(x) = \prod_{(i,j)\in S} R_{Z_iZ_j} \left(x_i * x_j\right) \underset{k=1...n}{\otimes} R_Z\left(x_k\right)$$



#### Data encoding as a feature map

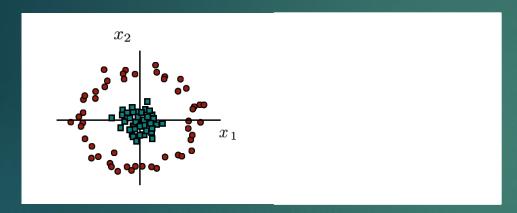
- $\blacktriangleright$  Data encoding **maps** data points from the input space  $\mathcal X$  into the quantum Hilbert space  $\mathbb C^{2^n}$
- The data encoding feature map can change the structure of the data in non-trivial (and non linear) manners eventually determining the success of the learning algorithm



[Schuld2021]

#### Data encoding as a feature map

Feature maps, more often than not, increase the dimensionality of the data



$$\emptyset((x_1, x_2)) = (x_1, x_2, 0.5 (x_1^2 + x_2^2))$$

- "Hilbert space is a big space" [Carlton Caves]
- $\blacktriangleright$  Quantum computation accesses an exponential Hilbert state space:  $2^n$  basis states for n qubits
- Data encoding allows mapping classical data (eventually non-linearly) into this hyperdimensional state space



 $2^{275}$  > #atoms in the observable Universe