

# Quantum Machine Learning

Mathematical Notes

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# 1 Introduction to Quantum Machine Learning

## 1.1 What is Quantum Machine Learning?

**Definition 1.1** (Quantum Machine Learning). *Quantum Machine Learning (QML) is an interdisciplinary field that combines quantum computing with machine learning algorithms to potentially achieve computational advantages in certain learning tasks.*

QML leverages quantum mechanical phenomena such as:

- **Superposition** - Quantum states can exist in multiple states simultaneously
- **Entanglement** - Quantum states can be correlated in ways impossible classically
- **Interference** - Quantum amplitudes can constructively or destructively interfere
- **Measurement** - Quantum states collapse to classical outcomes upon measurement

## 1.2 Motivation for Quantum Machine Learning

1. **Exponential Speedup** - Some quantum algorithms offer exponential speedup over classical counterparts
2. **Quantum Data** - Natural quantum systems generate quantum data that classical computers cannot efficiently process
3. **Quantum Feature Spaces** - Quantum systems can explore exponentially large feature spaces
4. **Quantum Optimization** - Quantum algorithms may solve optimization problems more efficiently

## 1.3 Challenges and Limitations

- **Noise** - Current quantum computers are noisy and error-prone
- **Coherence Time** - Quantum states decohere quickly
- **Measurement** - Quantum measurements destroy quantum information
- **Classical Data** - Most real-world data is classical
- **Barren Plateaus** - Quantum neural networks may suffer from vanishing gradients

# 2 Quantum Computing Fundamentals

## 2.1 Quantum States and Operations

**Definition 2.1** (Quantum State). *A quantum state  $|\psi\rangle$  is a vector in a complex Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  with unit norm:  $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 1$ .*

**Example 2.1** (Single Qubit States).

$$|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2)$$

$$|-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3)$$

## 2.2 Quantum Gates

**Definition 2.2** (Quantum Gate). *A quantum gate is a unitary operator  $U$  acting on quantum states:  $U^\dagger U = I$ .*

**Example 2.2** (Common Quantum Gates).

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{Pauli-}X) \quad (4)$$

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{Pauli-}Y) \quad (5)$$

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{Pauli-}Z) \quad (6)$$

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{Hadamard}) \quad (7)$$

$$CNOT = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{Controlled-NOT}) \quad (8)$$

## 2.3 Quantum Measurement

**Definition 2.3** (Quantum Measurement). *A quantum measurement is described by a set of measurement operators  $\{M_m\}$  satisfying  $\sum_m M_m^\dagger M_m = I$ .*

The probability of outcome  $m$  when measuring state  $|\psi\rangle$  is:

$$p(m) = \langle \psi | M_m^\dagger M_m | \psi \rangle \quad (9)$$

## 3 Quantum Data and Encoding

### 3.1 Classical Data Encoding

**Definition 3.1** (Data Encoding). *Data encoding maps classical data  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  to quantum states  $|\phi(x)\rangle$  in a quantum feature space.*

**Example 3.1** (Amplitude Encoding). *For a normalized vector  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  with  $\|x\|_2 = 1$ :*

$$|\phi(x)\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i |i\rangle \quad (10)$$

where  $\{|i\rangle\}$  is the computational basis.

**Example 3.2** (Angle Encoding). For a single feature  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$|\phi(x)\rangle = \cos(x) |0\rangle + \sin(x) |1\rangle \quad (11)$$

### 3.2 Quantum Feature Maps

**Definition 3.2** (Quantum Feature Map). A quantum feature map  $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  maps classical data to a quantum Hilbert space.

**Example 3.3** (Pauli Feature Map). For  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$U_{\phi(x)} = \prod_{i=1}^d \exp(-ix_i P_i) \quad (12)$$

where  $P_i \in \{X, Y, Z\}$  are Pauli matrices.

## 4 Quantum Machine Learning Algorithms

### 4.1 Quantum Support Vector Machine

**Definition 4.1** (Quantum SVM). A quantum SVM uses quantum algorithms to solve the quadratic optimization problem:

$$\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(x_i, x_j) - \sum_i \alpha_i \quad (13)$$

subject to  $\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$  and  $0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C$ .

**Theorem 4.1** (Quantum Kernel Estimation). The quantum kernel  $K(x_i, x_j) = |\langle \phi(x_i) | \phi(x_j) \rangle|^2$  can be estimated using quantum circuits with complexity  $O(\log n)$  for  $n$ -dimensional data.

### 4.2 Quantum Principal Component Analysis

**Definition 4.2** (Quantum PCA). Quantum PCA finds the principal components of a data matrix using quantum phase estimation and density matrix exponentiation.

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#### Algorithm 1 Quantum PCA Algorithm

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- 1: Prepare the density matrix  $\rho = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |x_i\rangle \langle x_i|$
  - 2: Apply quantum phase estimation to find eigenvalues  $\lambda_j$
  - 3: Extract eigenvectors  $|v_j\rangle$  corresponding to largest eigenvalues
  - 4: Project data onto principal components
- 

### 4.3 Quantum Neural Networks

**Definition 4.3** (Quantum Neural Network). A quantum neural network consists of parameterized quantum circuits with trainable parameters  $\theta$ .

**Example 4.1** (Variational Quantum Eigensolver (VQE)).

$$E(\theta) = \langle \psi(\theta) | H | \psi(\theta) \rangle \quad (14)$$

where  $H$  is the Hamiltonian and  $|\psi(\theta)\rangle$  is the variational ansatz.

## 4.4 Quantum Approximate Optimization Algorithm (QAOA)

**Definition 4.4** (QAOA). *QAOA is a quantum algorithm for solving combinatorial optimization problems using alternating layers of cost and mixer Hamiltonians.*

**Example 4.2** (QAOA Circuit).

$$|\psi(\beta, \gamma)\rangle = U_B(\beta_p)U_C(\gamma_p) \cdots U_B(\beta_1)U_C(\gamma_1) |+\rangle^{\otimes n} \quad (15)$$

where:

$$U_C(\gamma) = e^{-i\gamma H_C} \quad (16)$$

$$U_B(\beta) = e^{-i\beta H_B} \quad (17)$$

## 5 Quantum Optimization

### 5.1 Quantum Gradient Descent

**Definition 5.1** (Parameter Shift Rule). *For a parameterized quantum circuit  $U(\theta)$  with generator  $G$ :*

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \langle \psi(\theta) | O | \psi(\theta) \rangle = \frac{1}{2} [\langle \psi(\theta^+) | O | \psi(\theta^+) \rangle - \langle \psi(\theta^-) | O | \psi(\theta^-) \rangle] \quad (18)$$

where  $\theta^\pm = \theta \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

### 5.2 Quantum Natural Gradient

**Definition 5.2** (Quantum Fisher Information Matrix). *The quantum Fisher information matrix is:*

$$F_{ij} = \text{Re}[\langle \partial_i \psi | \partial_j \psi \rangle - \langle \partial_i \psi | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | \partial_j \psi \rangle] \quad (19)$$

**Theorem 5.1** (Quantum Natural Gradient). *The quantum natural gradient update is:*

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta F^{-1}(\theta_t) \nabla_\theta L(\theta_t) \quad (20)$$

## 6 Quantum Sampling and Monte Carlo

### 6.1 Quantum Monte Carlo

**Definition 6.1** (Quantum Monte Carlo). *Quantum Monte Carlo uses quantum algorithms to sample from probability distributions more efficiently than classical methods.*

**Example 6.1** (Quantum Sampling Algorithm). 1. Prepare superposition state  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i \sqrt{p_i} |i\rangle$

2. Apply quantum amplitude amplification

3. Measure to sample from distribution  $\{p_i\}$

## 6.2 Quantum Boltzmann Machines

**Definition 6.2** (Quantum Boltzmann Machine). *A quantum Boltzmann machine uses quantum annealing to sample from the Boltzmann distribution:*

$$p(x) = \frac{e^{-E(x)/T}}{Z} \quad (21)$$

where  $Z = \sum_x e^{-E(x)/T}$  is the partition function.

## 7 Quantum Generative Models

### 7.1 Quantum Generative Adversarial Networks

**Definition 7.1** (Quantum GAN). *A quantum GAN consists of a quantum generator  $G_\theta$  and a quantum discriminator  $D_\phi$  trained adversarially.*

**Example 7.1** (Quantum GAN Loss).

$$L_G(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} [\log(1 - D_\phi(G_\theta(z)))] \quad (22)$$

$$L_D(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} [\log D_\phi(x)] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} [\log(1 - D_\phi(G_\theta(z)))] \quad (23)$$

### 7.2 Quantum Variational Autoencoders

**Definition 7.2** (Quantum VAE). *A quantum VAE uses quantum circuits to encode and decode data in a quantum latent space.*

**Example 7.2** (Quantum VAE Loss).

$$L(\theta, \phi) = \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z|x)} [\log p_\theta(x|z)] - D_{KL}(q_\phi(z|x) || p(z)) \quad (24)$$

## 8 Quantum Reinforcement Learning

### 8.1 Quantum Policy Gradient

**Definition 8.1** (Quantum Policy). *A quantum policy  $\pi_\theta(a|s)$  is parameterized by quantum circuits that output action probabilities.*

**Example 8.1** (Quantum Policy Gradient).

$$\nabla_\theta J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_\theta} \left[ \sum_{t=0}^T \nabla_\theta \log \pi_\theta(a_t | s_t) A_t \right] \quad (25)$$

where  $A_t$  is the advantage function.

### 8.2 Quantum Q-Learning

**Definition 8.2** (Quantum Q-Function). *A quantum Q-function  $Q_\theta(s, a)$  is approximated using quantum neural networks.*

**Example 8.2** (Quantum Q-Learning Update).

$$Q_\theta(s, a) \leftarrow Q_\theta(s, a) + \alpha [r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q_\theta(s', a') - Q_\theta(s, a)] \quad (26)$$

## 9 Quantum Error Mitigation

### 9.1 Error Mitigation Techniques

**Definition 9.1** (Zero-Noise Extrapolation). *ZNE extrapolates to the zero-noise limit by running circuits at different noise levels.*

**Example 9.1** (Linear Extrapolation).

$$\langle O \rangle_0 = 2\langle O \rangle_1 - \langle O \rangle_2 \quad (27)$$

where subscripts indicate noise levels.

### 9.2 Probabilistic Error Cancellation

**Definition 9.2** (PEC). *PEC cancels errors by probabilistically applying inverse operations.*

**Example 9.2** (PEC Implementation).

$$\langle O \rangle = \sum_i \eta_i \langle O_i \rangle \quad (28)$$

where  $\eta_i$  are signed probabilities and  $O_i$  are modified observables.

## 10 Quantum Machine Learning Applications

### 10.1 Quantum Chemistry

**Example 10.1** (Molecular Property Prediction).

$$E_{mol} = \langle \psi_{mol} | H_{mol} | \psi_{mol} \rangle \quad (29)$$

where  $H_{mol}$  is the molecular Hamiltonian.

### 10.2 Quantum Finance

**Example 10.2** (Portfolio Optimization).

$$\max_w \mu^T w - \frac{\gamma}{2} w^T \Sigma w \quad (30)$$

subject to  $\sum_i w_i = 1$  and  $w_i \geq 0$ .

### 10.3 Quantum Cryptography

**Example 10.3** (Quantum Key Distribution).

$$I(A : B) - I(A : E) \geq 0 \quad (31)$$

where  $I(A : B)$  is mutual information between Alice and Bob, and  $I(A : E)$  is mutual information between Alice and Eve.



## 11 Quantum Machine Learning Hardware

### 11.1 Quantum Processors

**Definition 11.1** (NISQ Devices). *Noisy Intermediate-Scale Quantum devices have 50-1000 qubits with limited coherence times.*

**Example 11.1** (Gate-Based Quantum Computers). • *IBM Quantum Systems*

- *Google Quantum AI*
- *Rigetti Computing*
- *IonQ*

### 11.2 Quantum Annealers

**Definition 11.2** (Quantum Annealing). *Quantum annealing finds the ground state of an Ising model Hamiltonian.*

**Example 11.2** (D-Wave Systems).

$$H(s) = A(s)H_0 + B(s)H_P \quad (32)$$

where  $H_0$  is the driver Hamiltonian and  $H_P$  is the problem Hamiltonian.

## 12 Quantum Machine Learning Software

### 12.1 Quantum Machine Learning Frameworks

**Example 12.1** (Popular QML Frameworks). • *PennyLane* - Cross-platform quantum machine learning

- *Qiskit Machine Learning* - IBM's quantum ML library
- *Cirq* - Google's quantum computing framework
- *Forest* - Rigetti's quantum development environment

### 12.2 Hybrid Classical-Quantum Algorithms

**Definition 12.1** (Hybrid Algorithm). *A hybrid algorithm combines classical and quantum computations to solve problems.*

**Example 12.2** (Variational Quantum Algorithms). 1. *Classical optimizer updates parameters*

2. *Quantum circuit evaluates cost function*

3. *Iterate until convergence*

## 13 Quantum Machine Learning Theory

### 13.1 Quantum Speedup Conditions

**Theorem 13.1** (Quantum Speedup). *A quantum algorithm achieves speedup if:*

1. *The problem has quantum structure*
2. *Quantum resources are efficiently accessible*
3. *Classical algorithms cannot exploit the same structure*

### 13.2 No-Go Theorems

**Theorem 13.2** (No-Free-Lunch for QML). *For classical data without quantum structure, quantum machine learning cannot provide exponential speedup over classical methods.*

### 13.3 Barren Plateau Problem

**Definition 13.1** (Barren Plateau). *A barren plateau occurs when the gradient of the cost function vanishes exponentially with system size.*

**Theorem 13.3** (Barren Plateau Theorem). *For random parameterized quantum circuits, the gradient variance decreases exponentially with the number of qubits.*

## 14 Quantum Machine Learning Benchmarks

### 14.1 Standard Benchmarks

**Example 14.1** (QML Benchmarks). • **Quantum Classification** - Iris, Wine, Breast Cancer datasets

- **Quantum Regression** - Boston Housing, Diabetes datasets
- **Quantum Clustering** - Quantum K-means, Quantum DBSCAN
- **Quantum Generative Modeling** - Quantum GANs, Quantum VAEs

### 14.2 Performance Metrics

**Definition 14.1** (Quantum Advantage). *Quantum advantage is achieved when a quantum algorithm outperforms the best classical algorithm for a specific problem.*

**Example 14.2** (QML Metrics). • **Accuracy** - Classification/regression accuracy

- **Speedup** - Computational time reduction
- **Sample Complexity** - Number of training samples needed
- **Generalization** - Performance on unseen data

## 15 Future Directions

### 15.1 Quantum Machine Learning Research Areas

1. **Fault-Tolerant QML** - Error-corrected quantum machine learning
2. **Quantum Neural Architecture Search** - Automated quantum circuit design
3. **Quantum Transfer Learning** - Knowledge transfer between quantum tasks
4. **Quantum Meta-Learning** - Learning to learn with quantum algorithms
5. **Quantum Federated Learning** - Distributed quantum machine learning

### 15.2 Challenges and Opportunities

- **Hardware Limitations** - Current quantum computers are noisy and limited
- **Algorithm Development** - Need for more efficient quantum ML algorithms
- **Theory** - Understanding when quantum advantage is possible
- **Applications** - Finding real-world problems where QML excels
- **Education** - Training quantum machine learning practitioners

## 16 Conclusion

Quantum Machine Learning represents a promising intersection of quantum computing and machine learning. While significant challenges remain, particularly around noise and scalability, the field offers potential advantages for certain types of problems.

Key takeaways:

- **Potential** - QML may offer speedups for specific problems with quantum structure
- **Reality** - Current quantum computers are limited by noise and decoherence
- **Hybrid Approach** - Most practical QML algorithms combine classical and quantum components
- **Research** - Active area of research with many open questions
- **Applications** - Promising applications in chemistry, finance, and optimization

The field continues to evolve rapidly, with new algorithms, hardware improvements, and theoretical insights emerging regularly. As quantum computers become more powerful and reliable, quantum machine learning may become a practical tool for solving complex problems that are intractable for classical computers.