

Secrets revealed in this session:

To explore the principles of quantum machine learning models, their parameterisation and optimisation



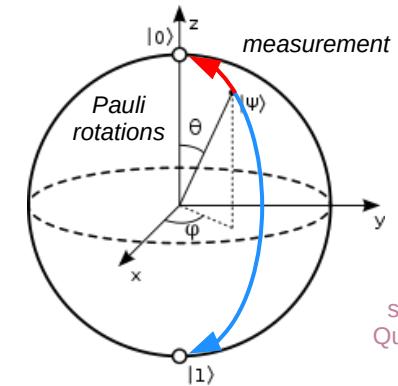
QML workshop
QML team
QML and aims
Parameterised circuits
Data encoding
 Angle encoding
 The good, the bad and the ugly
State measurement
Quantum model training
Parameters optimisation
Model geometry and gradients
QML readings
PennyLane demo
Summary

Quantum Machine Learning

Introduction

Jacob L. Cybulski

Enquantum, Melbourne, Australia



We will assume some knowledge of Quantum Computing ML and Python

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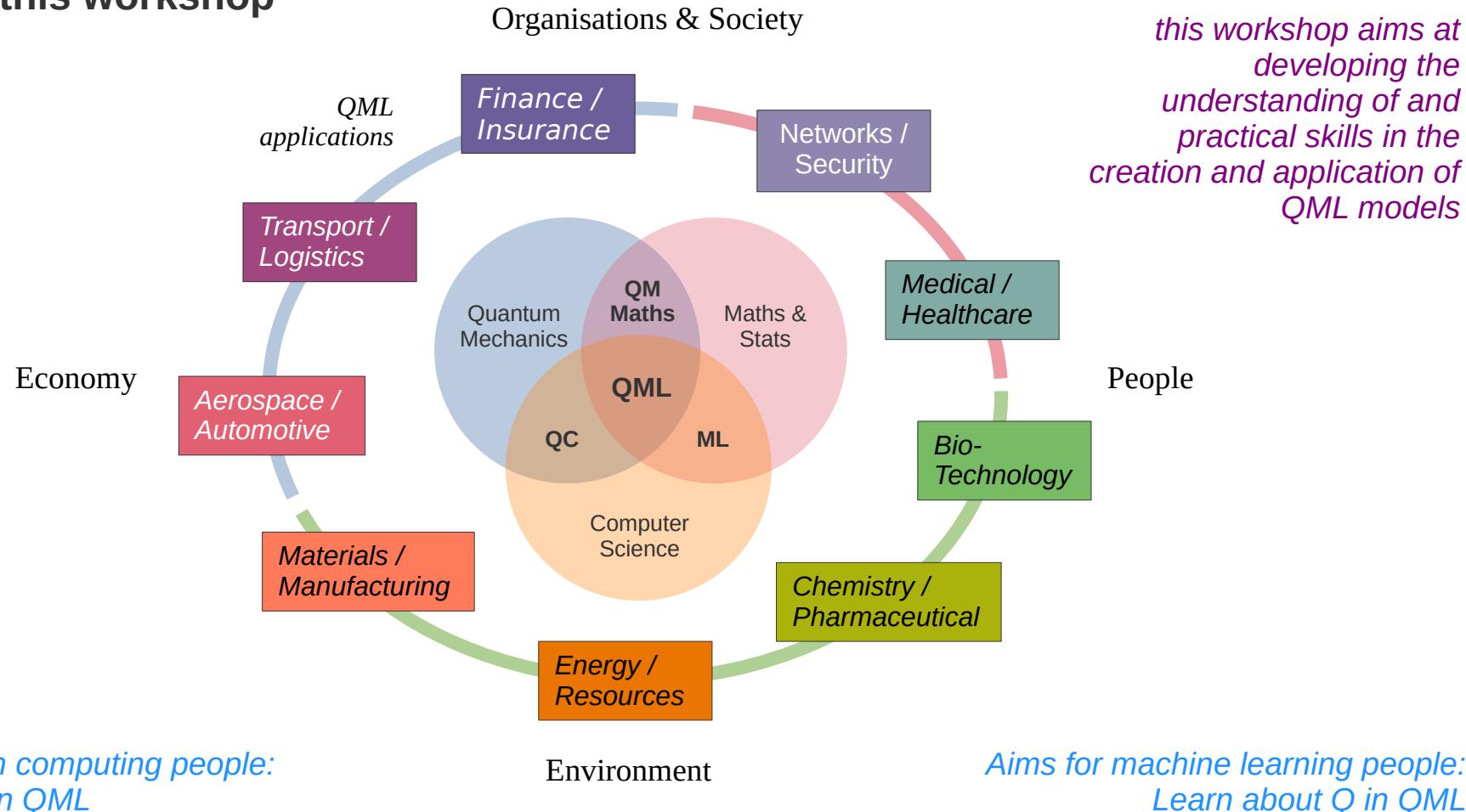
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Quantum ML

aims of this workshop

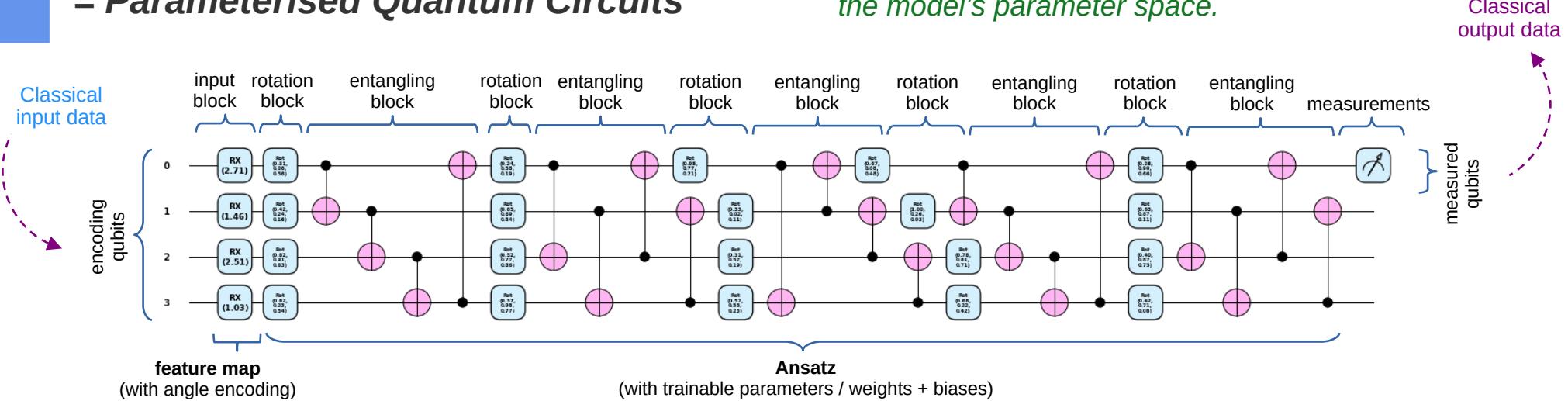
Jacob L. Cybulski, Quantum Business Series (Deakin, RMIT, ACS, Warsaw School of Economics)
Jacob L. Cybulski, Quantum Computing Intro Series (SheQuantum, Assoc of Polish Profs in Australia)
2021-2025



Variational Quantum Models

= Parameterised Quantum Circuits

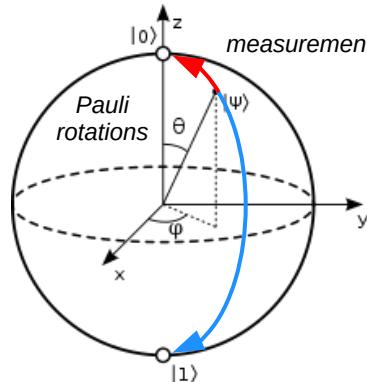
*Ansatz parameters are trainable.
Each parameter defines a dimension in
the model's parameter space.*



We can create a “variational” model = a circuit template with parameterised gates, e.g. **P(a)**, **Ry(a)** or **Rz(a)**, each allowing rotation of a qubit state in x, y or z axis (as per Bloch sphere).

Typically, but now always, the circuit consists of three blocks:

- a **feature map (input)**
- an **ansatz (processing)**
- **measurements (output)**



Classical input data is encoded into the feature map's parameters, setting the model's initial quantum state.

The quantum state is then altered by an ansatz, which consists of parameterised gates (operations), which alter the initial quantum state.

The quantum state of the circuit is then measured and interpreted as the model's output in classical data form, e.g. as binary values, integer or real value, a single event's probability or the probability distribution.

Data encoding strategies

Data encoding

There are many methods of data embedding, such as:
the *basis*, *angle*, *amplitude*, *QRAM*, ... encoding,

In this workshop we will rely on *angle encoding* realised as qubit state rotation by the angle defined by the data.

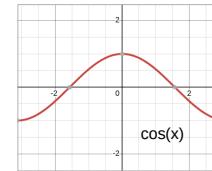
The rotation operators are always available in a quantum platform API (e.g. *Rx*, *Ry*, *Rz* or *Rxyz*).

Typically, the encoding rotation is performed around x or y axis, or both (allowing two values per qubit).

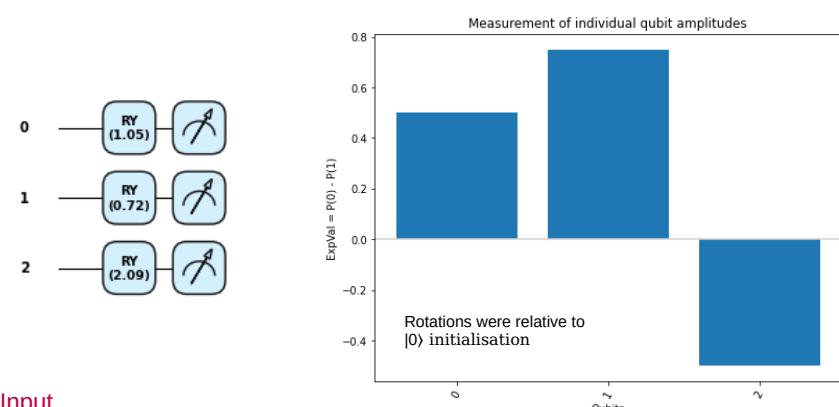
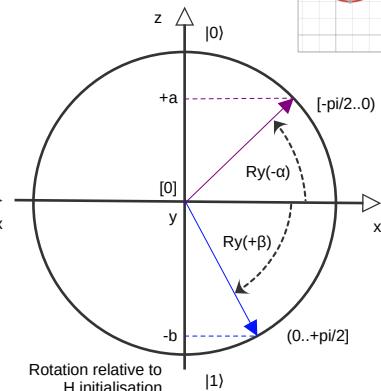
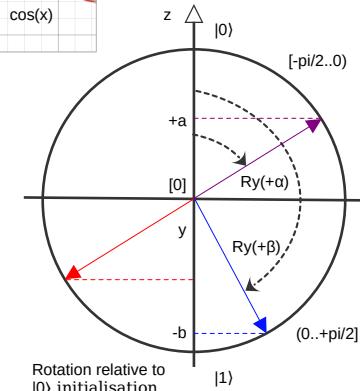
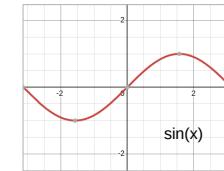
Rotations are *relative to a specific qubit state*, commonly starting at $|0\rangle$ state, or $(|0\rangle+|1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$, which require qubits to be initialised in these states.

The encoded value could be represented either by the *angular rotation*, or the *amplitude* of the qubit projective measurement (Z).

In some cases, input data is repeatedly encoded and interspersed with ansatz layers, called *data reuploading*, which improves the model performance.



Note that training will place qubit states in areas $x < 0$ and arbitrarily around the z axis. Measurements of such states cannot distinguish them from "pure" $x > 0$ and $z = 0$.



Input

Values entered:
Ry angles used:

[np.arccos(0.5), np.arccos(0.75), np.pi-np.arccos(0.5)]
[1.047, 0.723, 2.094]

Measurements

Probabilities:
Amplitudes:

[[0.25, 0.75], [0.562, 0.438], [0.25, 0.75]]
[0.5, 0.75, -0.5]

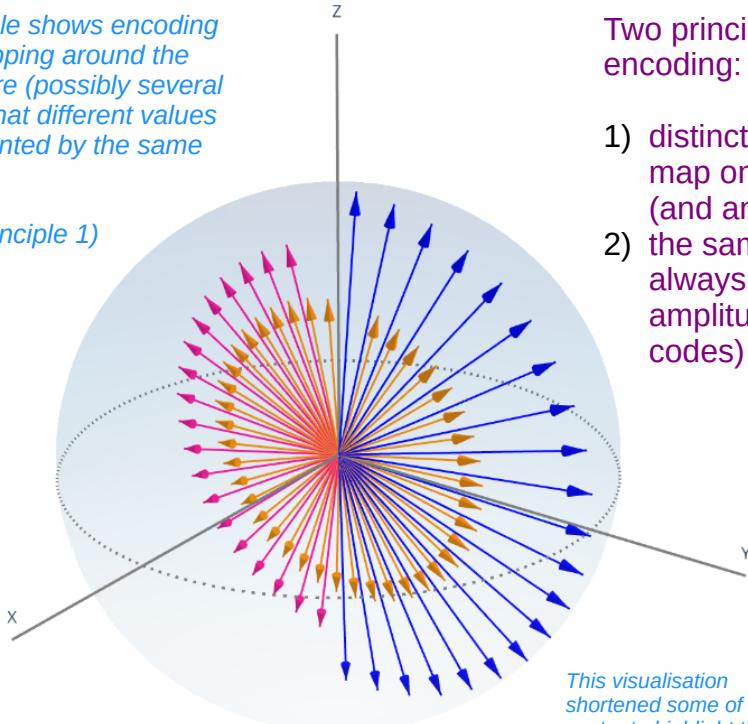
Angle encoding

The Good, the Bad and the Ugly

Angle Range: -6 to 6
 $0..\pi$ = "blue" (long) | $>\pi$ = "deeppink" (medium) | $-\pi..0$ = "darkorange" (short)

This example shows encoding values wrapping around the Bloch sphere (possibly several times), so that different values are represented by the same amplitude.

(violates principle 1)



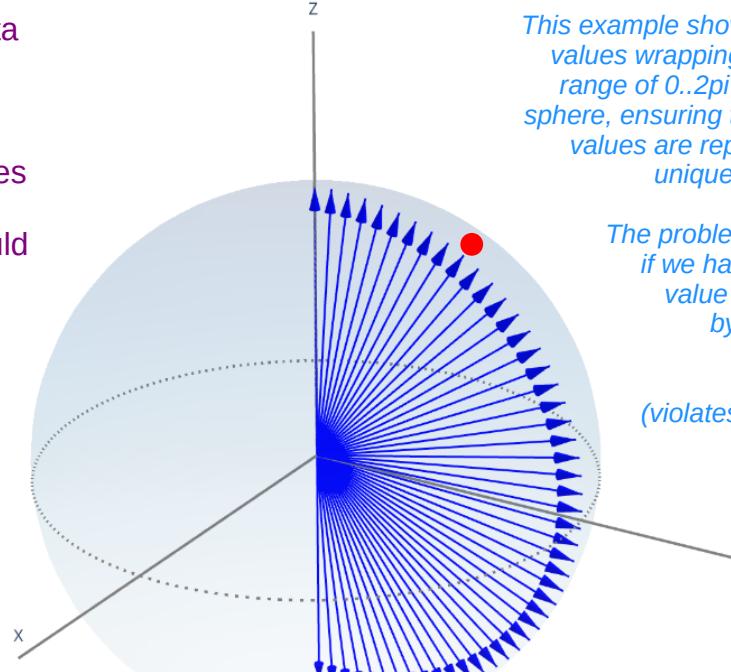
Two principles of quantum data encoding:

- 1) distinct data values should map onto distinct amplitudes (and angular codes)
- 2) the same data values should always map into identical amplitudes (and angular codes)

Angle Range: 0 to 3.141592653589793
 $0..\pi$ = "blue" (long) | $>\pi$ = "deeppink" (medium) | $-\pi..0$ = "darkorange" (short)

This example shows encoding values wrapping around the range of 0.2π of the Bloch sphere, ensuring that different values are represented by unique amplitudes.

The problem may arise if we have the same value represented by two distinct amplitudes



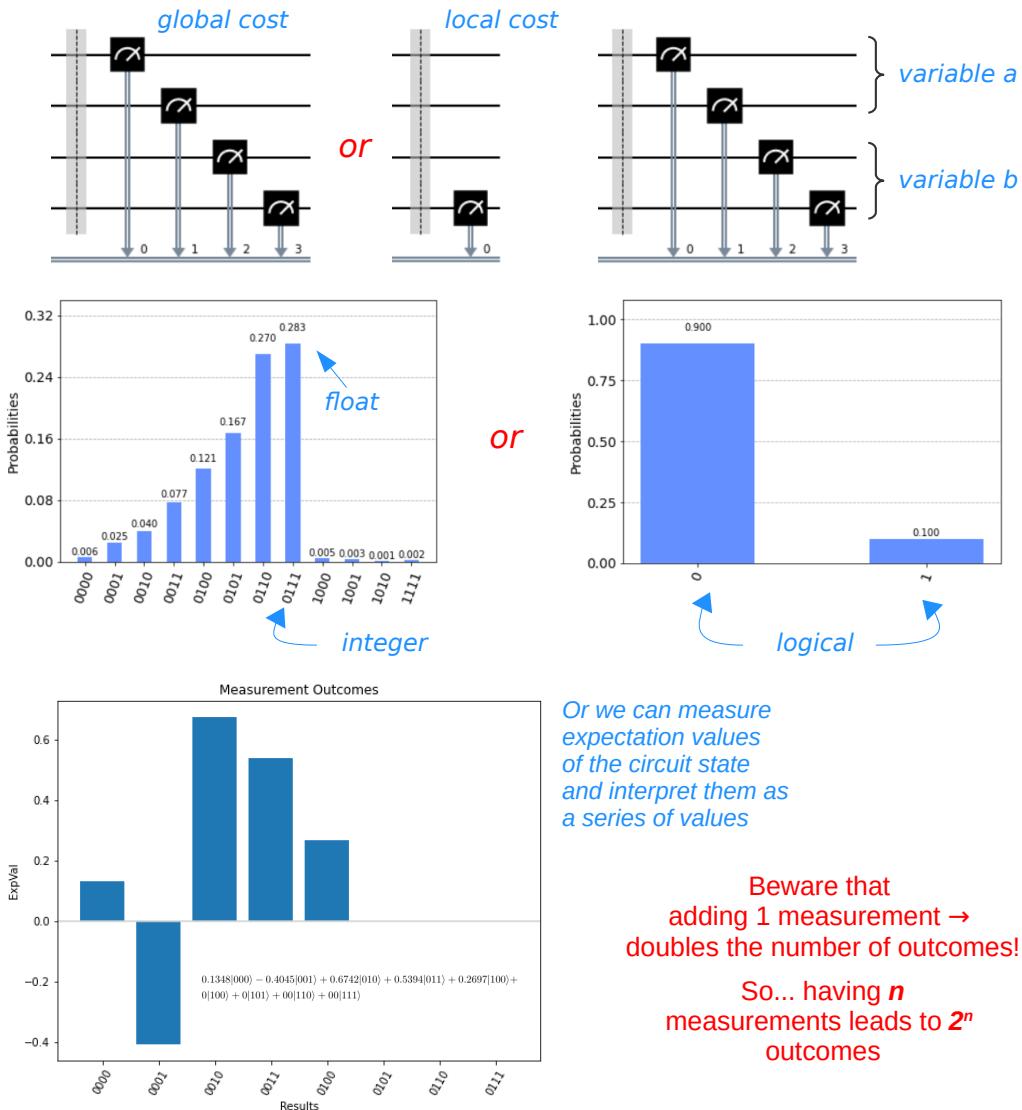
Commonly used measurements and interpretation

There are many ways of obtaining the outcome of a circuit execution, e.g. we can measure:

- all qubits (global cost / measurement)
- a few selected qubits (local cost / measurement)
- groups of qubits (each as a variable value)
- as counts of outcomes (repeated measurements)
- as probabilities of outcomes (e.g. $P(|0111\rangle)$)
- as Pauli expectation values (i.e. of eigenvalues)
- as expectation of interpreted values (e.g. 0 to 15)
- as variance, etc.

Repeated circuit measurement can be interpreted as outcomes of different types, e.g.

- as a probability distribution (as is)
- as a series of values (via expvals)
- as a binary outcome:
single qubit measurement or parity of kets
- as an integer:
most probable ket in multi-qubit measurement
- as a continuous variable:
probability of the selected ket (e.g. $|0^n\rangle$)

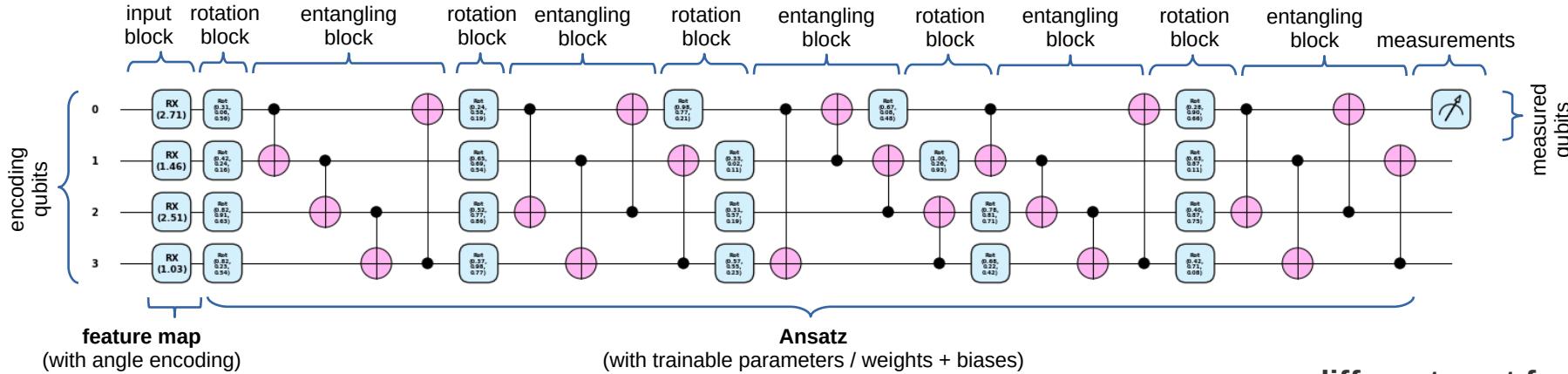


Ansatz design and training

A simple quantum classifier ...

Beware that
adding qubits adds
parameters and entanglements!

The number of states represented by the
circuit grows exponentially with the
number of qubits!

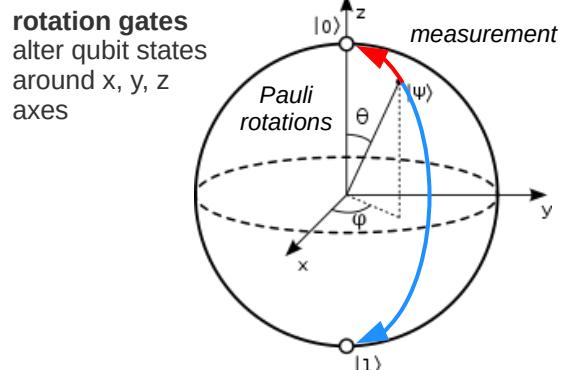


feature maps vary in:
structure and function

ansatze vary in:

- width (qubits #)
- depth (layers #)
- dimensions (param #)
- structure (e.g. funnelling)
- entangling (circular, linear, sca)

ansatz layers consist of:
rotation blocks and entangling blocks
of $R(x, y, z)$ and CNOT gates
(rotation) (entanglement)



To execute a circuit we just apply it to input data
and the optimum parameters

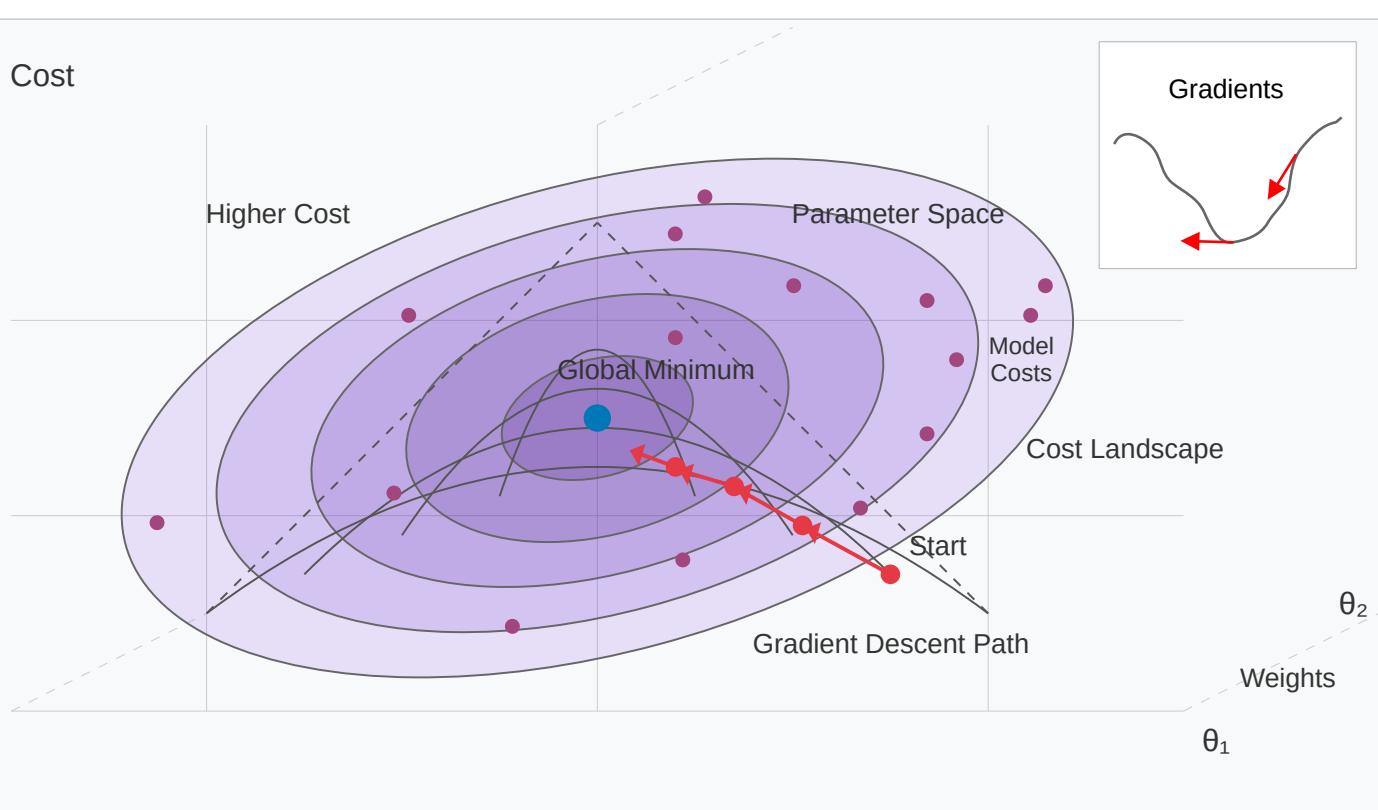
different cost functions:
R2, MAE, MSE, Huber, Poisson, cross-entropy,
hinge-embedding, Kullback-Leibner divergence

different optimisers:
gradient based (Adam, NAdam and SPSA)
linear approximation methods (COBYLA)
non-linear approximation methods (BFGS)
quantum natural gradient optimiser (QNG)

circuit execution on:
simulators (CPUs), accelerators (GPUs) and
real quantum machines (QPUs)

Problem-solving with DL models

Classical model optimisation



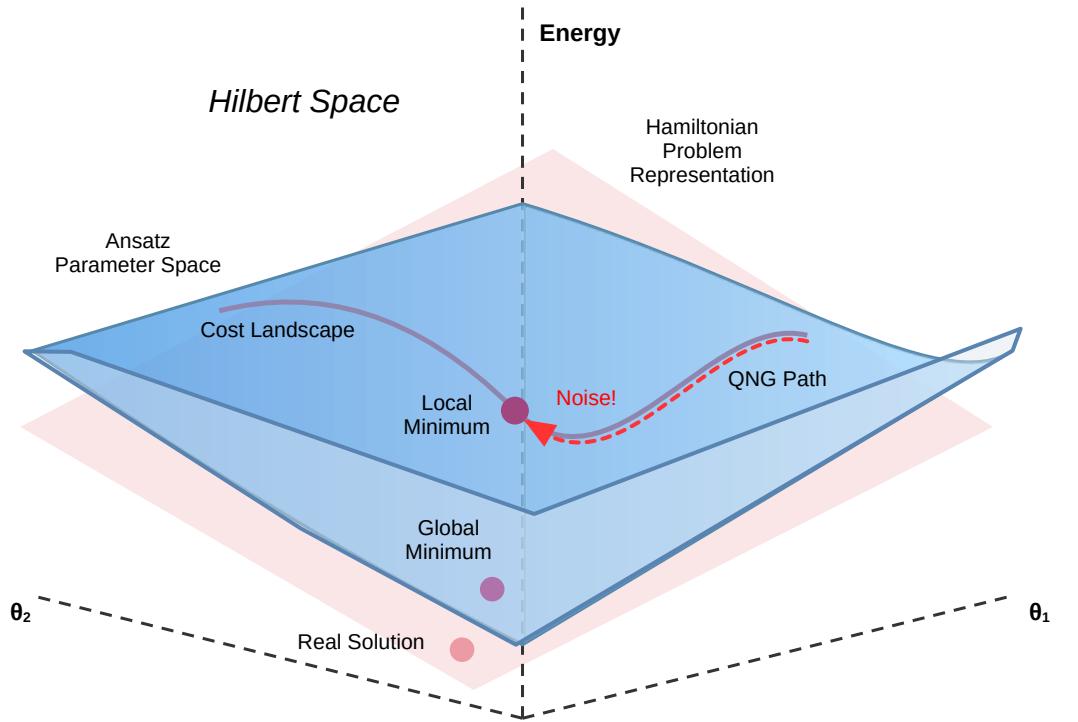
Gradients are local, i.e. their changes influence only their immediate neighbourhood

- A Deep Learning model aims to *represent the problem*.
- It is parameterised with *weights* and *biases*.
- The model quality is linked to the *cost function*, where the lower the cost, the better is the model.
- The costs of all possible model parameterisations, form a multi-dim surface, or the *cost landscape*.
- The *optimisation process* relies on the shape of the landscape, which in turn is reflected in the *gradient* of points on the cost surface.
- *Gradient descent* algorithms can assist in the identification of the model with the *minimum cost*.
- *Backpropagation* can also be used to very efficiently re-calculate NN weights.

Problem-solving with QML

Quantum model optimisation

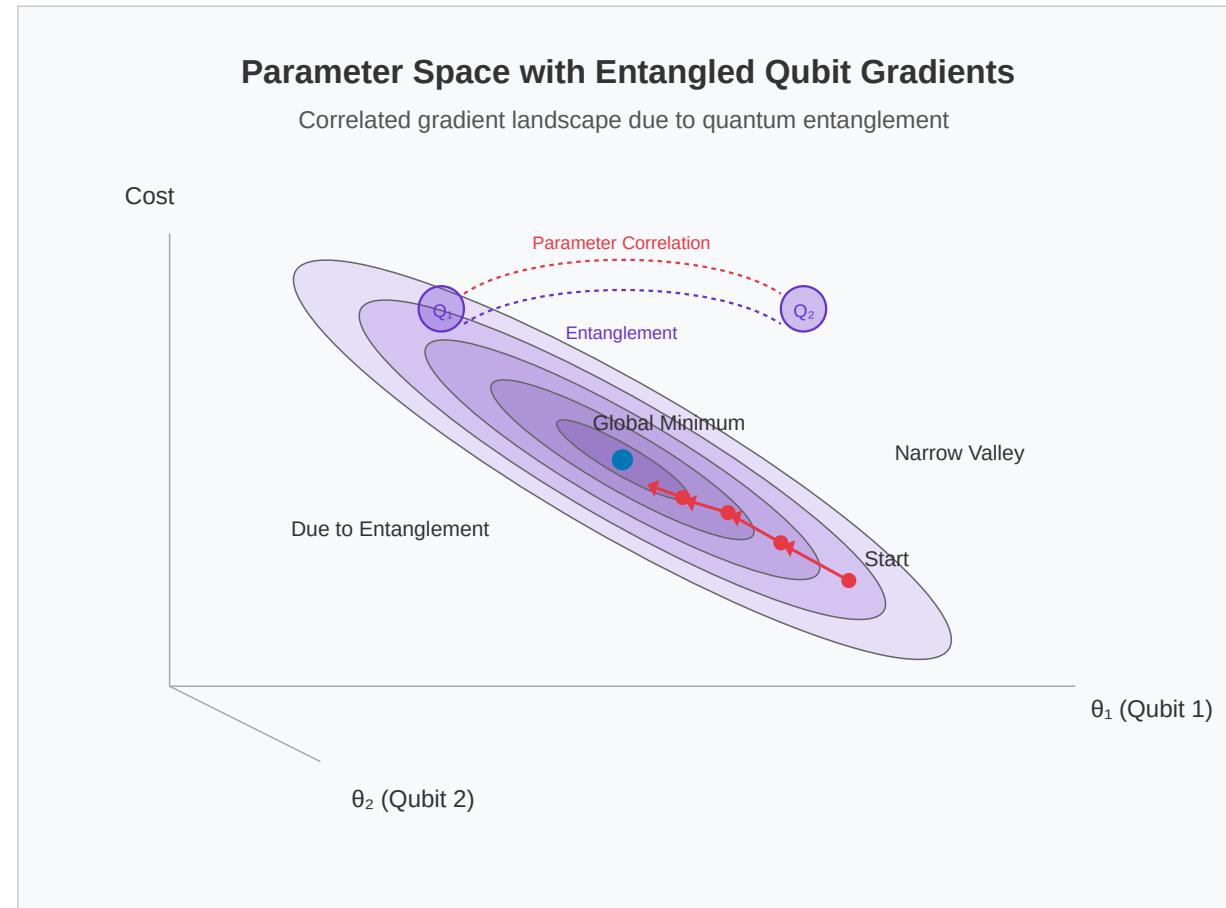
- The abstract mathematical model represents the problem to be solved, e.g. in the form of a *Hamiltonian*
- The Hamiltonian defines some geometry in *Hilbert space* with the optimum solution associated with the optimum energy
- The *ansatz* of a quantum circuit approximates the Hamiltonian and therefore the problem
- The parameters of the ansatz define a *parameter space* that overlaps and intersects the Hamiltonian problem space
- Our search for the problem solution is hence restricted to the ansatz parameter space
- Ideally, the selected *optimiser* and the *cost function* should understand the principles and processes of quantum models, e.g. Quantum Natural Gradient (QNG) optimiser
- The QNG method defines gradients, which are then calculated for the *cost landscape* (or the manifold), which spans the ansatz geometry
- The QNG optimiser can then identify a *local optimum* solution for this ansatz
- Noise can prevent finding the local optimum



It is more complex than problem-solving with classical models

- Optimisation of quantum model needs unique approaches due to the emergence of *non-local gradients*
- *Entangled qubits* result in *correlated parameters and gradients*, so the changes to one are reflected in the distant others
- The cost landscape of highly entangled circuits commonly features *narrow valleys*
- Also, *backpropagation* cannot be used directly in training quantum circuits, as their state is not directly accessible and the measurement collapses the state
- *Gradient descend* can still be used with *global gradients*, i.e. those derived from the geometry of the cost landscape
- *Stochastic optimisation techniques* are highly effective when the cost landscape is smooth (no quantum noise)
- Other techniques are also available, such as *particle swarm optimisers*, these however are applicable to smaller models

Quantum model optimisation



Recommended reading on QML

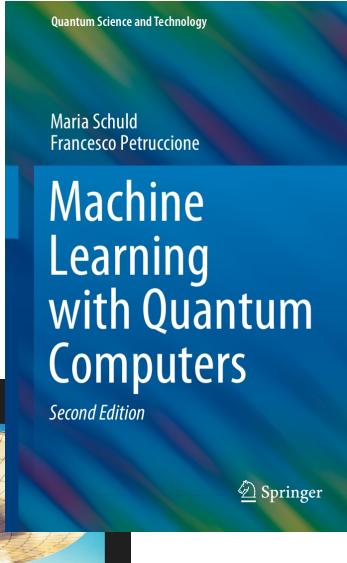
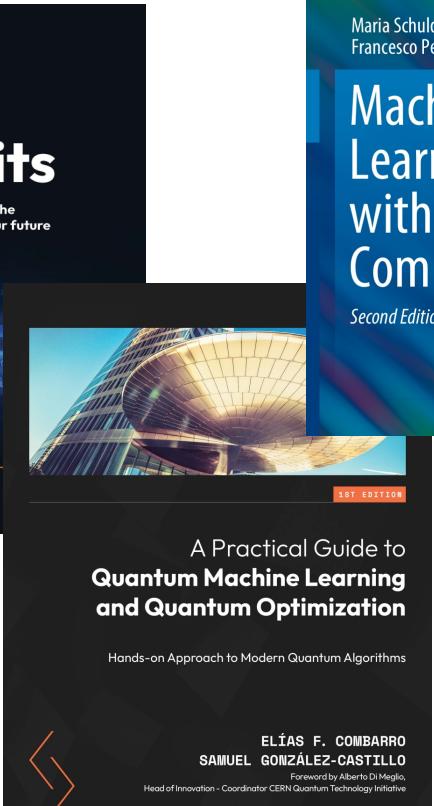
EXPERT INSIGHT

Dancing with Qubits

From qubits to algorithms, embark on the quantum computing journey shaping our future

Second Edition

Robert S. Sutor



PennyLane: Automatic differentiation of hybrid quantum-classical computations

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14 Feb 2020

The framework for optimization and machine learning of quantum and hybrid quantum provides a unified architecture for near-term quantum computing devices, supporting the paradigm. PennyLane's core feature is the ability to compute gradients of variational compatible with classical techniques such as backpropagation. PennyLane thus extends optimizers common in optimization and machine learning to include quantum and hybrid tasks the framework compatible with any gate-based quantum simulator or hardware. We fields, Rigetti Forest, Qiskit, Cirq, and ProjectQ, allowing PennyLane optimizations to be used by devices provided by Rigetti and IBM Q. On the classical front, PennyLane interfaces with libraries such as TensorFlow, PyTorch, and autograd. PennyLane can be used for the eigenvalues, quantum approximate optimization, quantum machine learning models,

Modern applications of machine learning in quantum sciences

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June 23, 2022

Abstract

In these Lecture Notes, we provide a comprehensive introduction to the most recent advances in the application of machine learning methods in quantum sciences. We cover the use of deep learning and kernel methods in supervised, unsupervised, and reinforcement learning algorithms for phase classification, representation of many-body quantum states, quantum feedback control, and quantum circuits optimization. Moreover, we introduce and discuss more specialized topics such as differentiable programming, generative models, statistical approach to machine learning, and quantum machine learning.

Thank you!

Any questions?



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