

**The aims of this session:**

**To explore and understand  
encoding strategies for  
credit risk data**



**Klasyczne sieci neuronowe  
Obliczenia kwantowe  
Quantum Neural Networks  
Kodowanie klasycznych danych  
Pomiar i jego interpretacja  
Trenowanie QNN  
QNN vs klasyczne NN  
Wykrywanie anomalii w ryzyku kredytowym  
Podsumowanie**

# Kwantowe sieci neuronowe jako modele ryzyka kredytowego

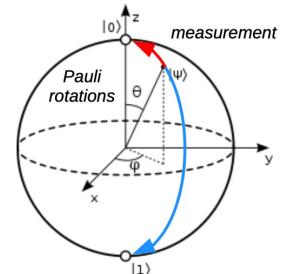
Teoretyczne i praktyczne aspekty kwantowych sieci neuronowych

**Sebastian Zając**

*SGH Szkoła Główna Handlowa w Warszawie*

**Jacob L. Cybulski**

*Enquanted, Melbourne, Australia*



# Neural Networks

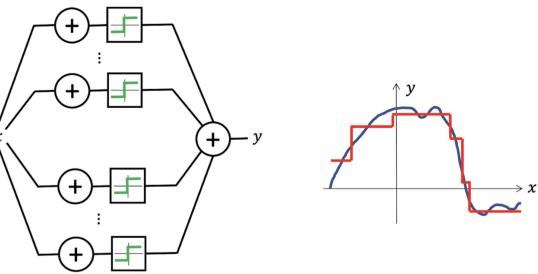
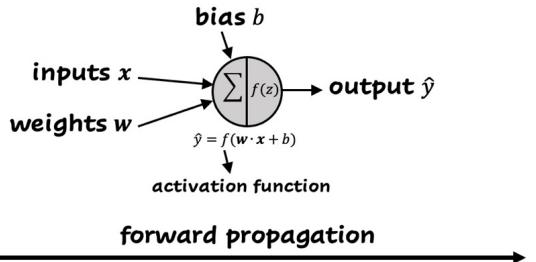
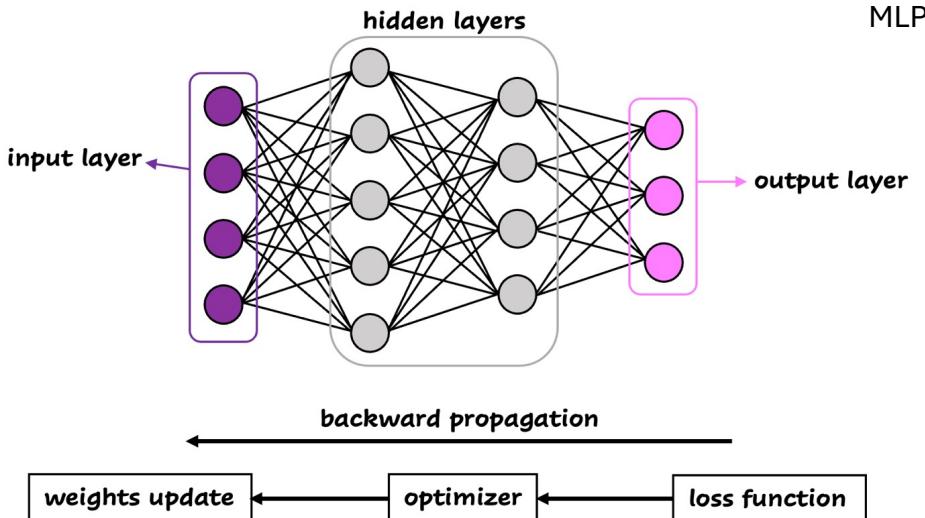


Figure 1: Multilayer Perceptrons (Rosenblatt, 1958), the simplest feed-forward neural networks, are universal approximators: with just one hidden layer, they can represent combinations of step functions, allowing to approximate any continuous function with arbitrary precision.



MLP = Universal Approximation Theorem

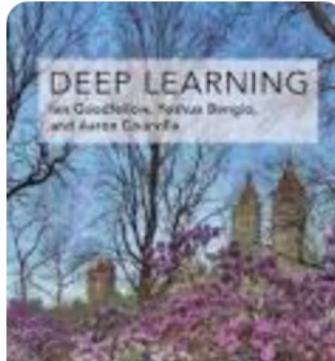
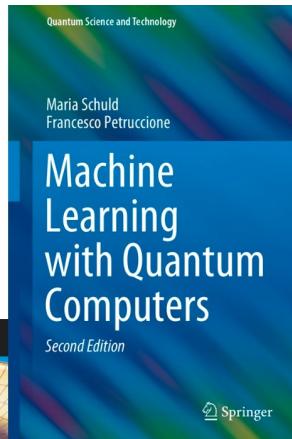
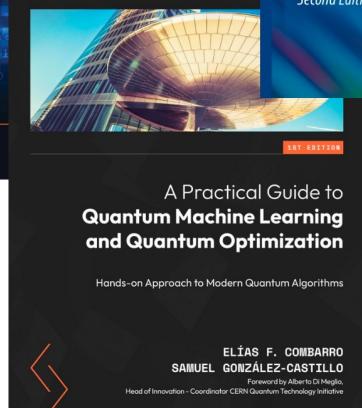
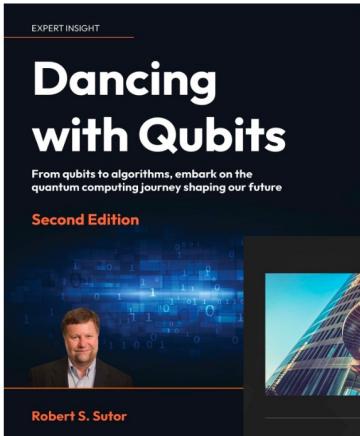
$$y = \kappa(z) = \kappa\left(\sum_i w_i x_i + b\right)$$

CPUs, GPUs TPUs

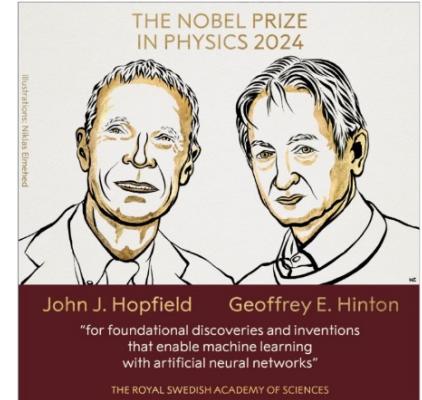
- Inne sieci neuronowe: CNN, AE, GAN, LSTM + QNNs

Name	Plot	Function, $g(x)$
Identity		$x$
Binary step		$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$
Logistic, sigmoid, or soft step		$\sigma(x) \doteq \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$
Hyperbolic tangent (tanh)		$\tanh(x) \doteq \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$
Soboleva modified hyperbolic tangent (smht)		$\text{smht}(x) \doteq \frac{e^{ax} - e^{-bx}}{e^{cx} + e^{-dx}}$
Rectified linear unit (ReLU) <sup>[13]</sup>		$(x)^+ \doteq \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x & \text{if } x > 0 \\ = \max(0, x) = x \mathbf{1}_{x>0} \end{cases}$
Gaussian Error Linear Unit (GELU) <sup>[5]</sup>		$\frac{1}{2} x \left(1 + \text{erf}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\right)$ where erf is the gaussian error function.
Softplus <sup>[14]</sup>		$\ln(1 + e^x)$
Exponential linear unit (ELU) <sup>[15]</sup>	 with parameter $\alpha$	$\begin{cases} \alpha(e^x - 1) & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$
Scaled exponential linear unit (SELU) <sup>[16]</sup>	 with parameters $\lambda = 1.0507$ and $\alpha = 1.67326$	$\lambda \begin{cases} \alpha(e^x - 1) & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$
Leaky rectified linear unit (Leaky ReLU) <sup>[17]</sup>		$\begin{cases} 0.01x & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$
Parametric rectified linear unit (PReLU) <sup>[18]</sup>		$\begin{cases} \alpha x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$ with parameter $\alpha$

# Recommended reading on QNN + Deep Learning



Neural Networks  
Fathers



Search... All fields  Help | Advanced Search

arXiv > cs > arXiv:2104.13478

Computer Science > Machine Learning

[Submitted on 27 Apr 2021 (v1), last revised 2 May 2021 (this version, v2)]

## Geometric Deep Learning: Grids, Groups, Graphs, Geodesics, and Gauges

Michael M. Bronstein, Joan Bruna, Taco Cohen, Petar Veličković

The last decade has witnessed an experimental revolution in data science and machine learning, epitomised by deep learning methods. Indeed, many high-dimensional learning tasks previously thought to be beyond reach -- such as computer vision, playing Go, or protein folding -- are in fact feasible with appropriate computational scale. Remarkably, the essence of deep learning is built from two simple algorithmic principles: first, the notion of representation or feature learning, whereby adapted, often hierarchical, features capture the appropriate notion of regularity for each task, and second, learning by local gradient-descent type methods, typically implemented as backpropagation.

While learning generic functions in high dimensions is a cursed estimation problem, most tasks of interest are not generic, and come with essential pre-defined regularities arising from the underlying low-dimensionality and structure of the physical world. This text is concerned with exposing these regularities through unified geometric principles that can be applied throughout a wide spectrum of applications.

Such a ‘geometric unification’ endeavour, in the spirit of Felix Klein’s Erlangen Program, serves a dual purpose: on one hand, it provides a common mathematical framework to study the most successful neural network architectures, such as CNNs, RNNs, GNNs, and Transformers. On the other hand, it gives a constructive procedure to incorporate prior physical knowledge into neural architectures and provide principled way to build future architectures yet to be invented.

Comments: 156 pages. Work in progress --- comments welcome!

Subjects: Machine Learning (cs.LG); Artificial Intelligence (cs.AI); Computational Geometry (cs.CG); Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (cs.CV); Machine Learning (stat.ML)

Cite as: arXiv:2104.13478 [cs.LG]

(or arXiv:2104.13478v2 [cs.LG] for this version)

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Michael M. Bronstein  
Joan Bruna  
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Petar Veličković

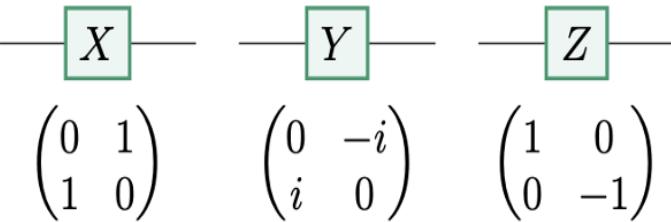
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# What is Quantum Technology

## Quantum computing and Quantum information science

study of the information processing tasks that can be accomplished using quantum mechanical systems  
(Nielsen and Chuang, 2010)

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

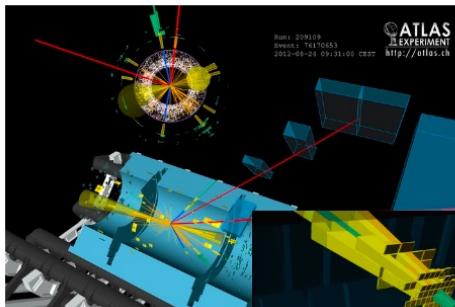


Quantum finance  
Quantum chemistry  
Quantum optimisation  
Quantum machine learning  
problem-solving with quantum technology

Cybulski & Nguyen  
Barren Plateaus  
in QNNs and VQAs

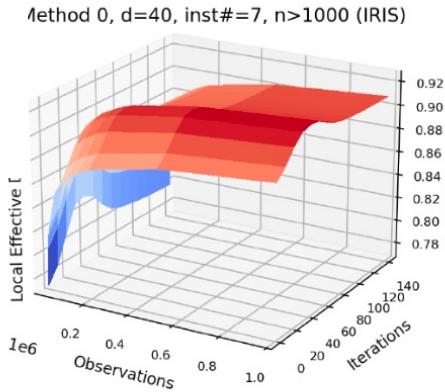
What is a Quantum Computer?

*It is a device which directly applies the principles of quantum mechanics to perform computational tasks*

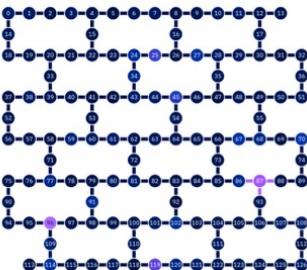


CERN  
Atlas particle detector  
Large Hadron Collider

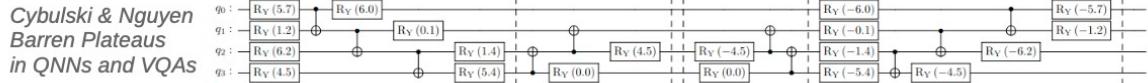
There are other quantum technologies e.g. quantum sensing



IBM superconducting quantum machine (127 qubits on cloud)



Quantum engineering  
building quantum devices



Recently in the news ...

(2024)

# Quantum Machines

Univ of Sci and Tech of China with Shanghai Inst of Microsystem and Info Tech (Jiuzhang 3 - Photonic)

Again achieved quantum supremacy



Gaussian Boson Sampling

SpinQ  
(N. Magnetic Resonance)



D-Wave  
(Quantum Annealing)



PASQAL  
(Neutral Atoms)

Quantum Brilliance  
(Diamond)



Google  
(Superconducting)



IQM / VTT  
(Superconducting)



They all use:

**Qubits**  
the fundamental models of quantum information and its processing  
**Quantum circuits**  
models of computation, involving qubits and operations on them

Xanadu (Photonic)



IBM (Superconducting)

Microsoft Azure Quantum

AWS Braket  
(Platforms)

Providers

- Quantinuum
- IonQ
- QCI
- Rigetti
- Pasqal
- 1QBit
- Microsoft QIO
- Toshiba ...

Providers

- IonQ
- Rigetti
- OQC
- Xanadu
- D-Wave
- QuEra ...

# Qubits

in scientific terms

In practice qubits involve *elementary particles*, such as *ions*, *photons*, single *atoms*, *electrons*, even *defects in diamonds*; and, their behaviour is governed by Physics (Nature / Universe)

A qubit *represents a state* of such a particle, e.g. an electron spin, which can be up or down, (written formally as  $|\uparrow\rangle$  and  $|\downarrow\rangle$  or  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ ), which are called the *basis states*

It is possible to change the state of a qubit with certain predetermined *operations*, such as rotation or reversing the position of the qubit state

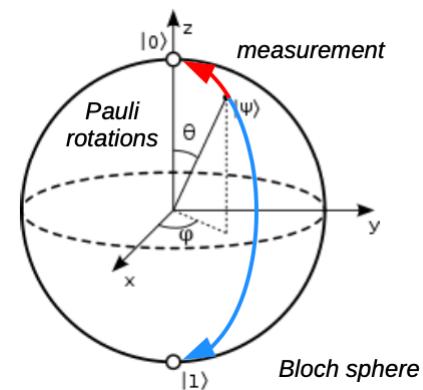
Afterwards, the qubit is in a state of *superposition*, or a combination, of its basis states up and down

The superposition state is the actual state of elementary particles, not its math description

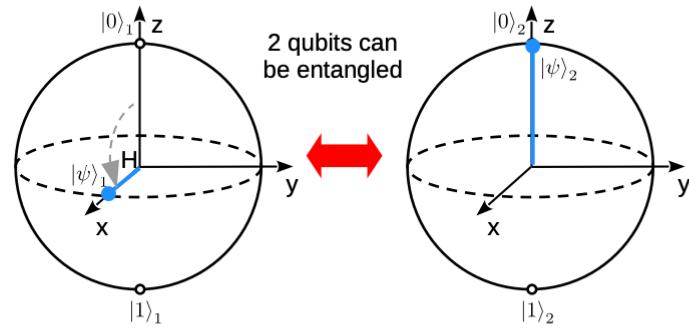
It is impossible to determine the qubit's state without its *measurement*

Qubit measurement returns only the basis state that is “likely” to be closest to its superposition state, which also destroys the qubit state

The outcome of measurement is precise but probabilistic



Qubits can be *entangled*, then they start behaving as a unit with a common complex state, until they are measured or until some external factor (*noise*) destroys their entanglement



**What makes quantum computers special?**

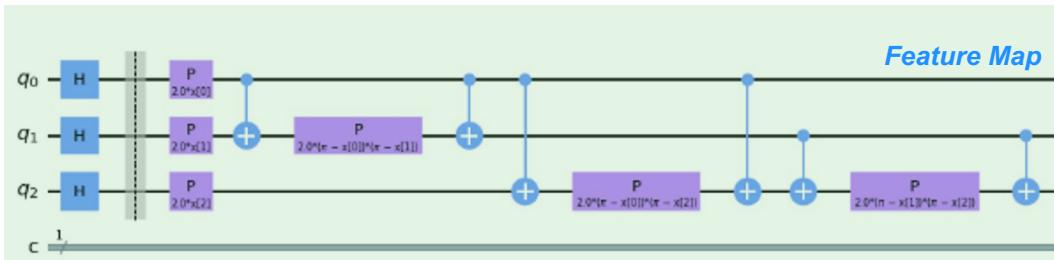
Qubit *superposition* (parallel choices) and *entanglement* (exponential combination of choices and their filtering), as well as *measurement* (collapse of choices and randomness), is what gives quantum computers their immense computational power allowing some problems to be solved in minutes rather than 1000s of years!

# Quantum Neural Networks

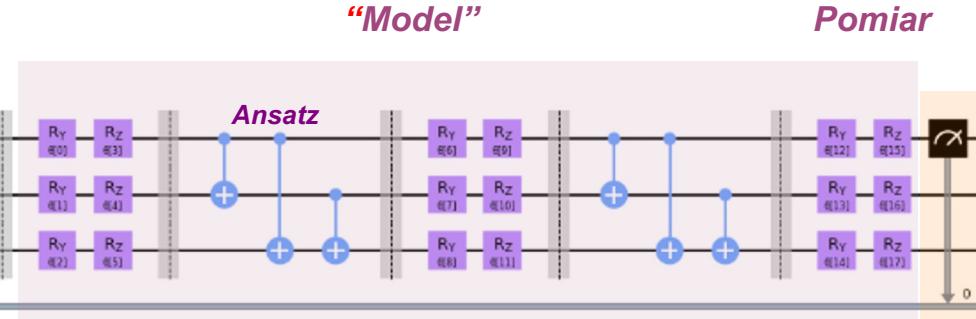
- QNN są realizowane jako parametryczne obwody kwantowe składające się z:
  - *The feature map* warstwa kodująca klasyczne dane
  - *The ansatz* consists of several layers and, similarly to a classical NN, is responsible for inter-linking the layers - this is accomplished by trainable Pauli rotation gates and entanglement blocks
  - *Pomiar* stanu kubitów. Interpretacja otrzymanych wyników.

		Type of Algorithm	
		classical	quantum
Type of Data	classical	CC	CQ
	quantum	QC	QQ

## Kodowanie danych



## “Model”



## Pomiar

“Model”

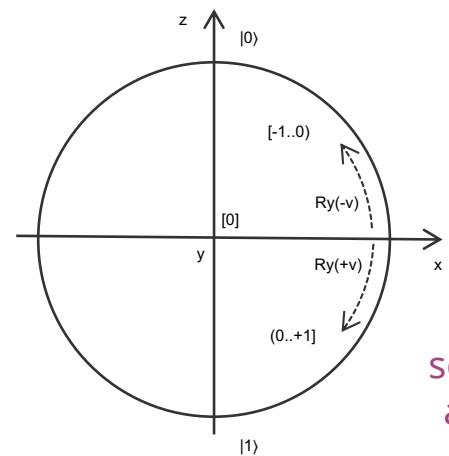
Pomiar

# Input encoding / embedding for QNN processing

Generally, QAE input and output are an unrestricted collection of real values (floats), guiding our selection of data encoding methods.

We rejected the following encoding methods:

*Basis encoding*, with qubits acting as bits in the encoded number (**logical / int**) to be processed later in the circuit.

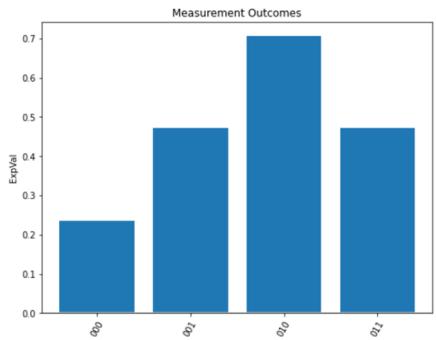
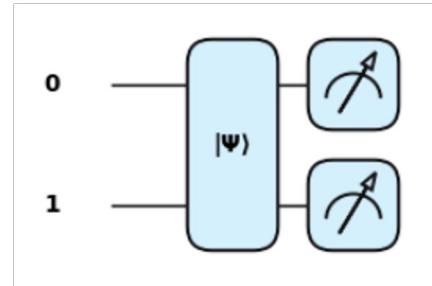


*Angle encoding* suits QAE design, with input values represented as Qubit state rotations (**float**).

In our experiments, we used angle encoding relative to  $|+\rangle$  state, with values  $\in [-1, 1]$  scaled to a range  $[0, \pi]$ , and coded as rotations up ( $<0$ ) or down ( $\geq 0$ ).

*Amplitude encoding* is probably the least understood, however, it is one of the most useful encoding schemes.

It embeds input as a circuit state normally measured on output, i.e., each data point is encoded as the expectation value of a multi-qubit measurement (**int/float**).

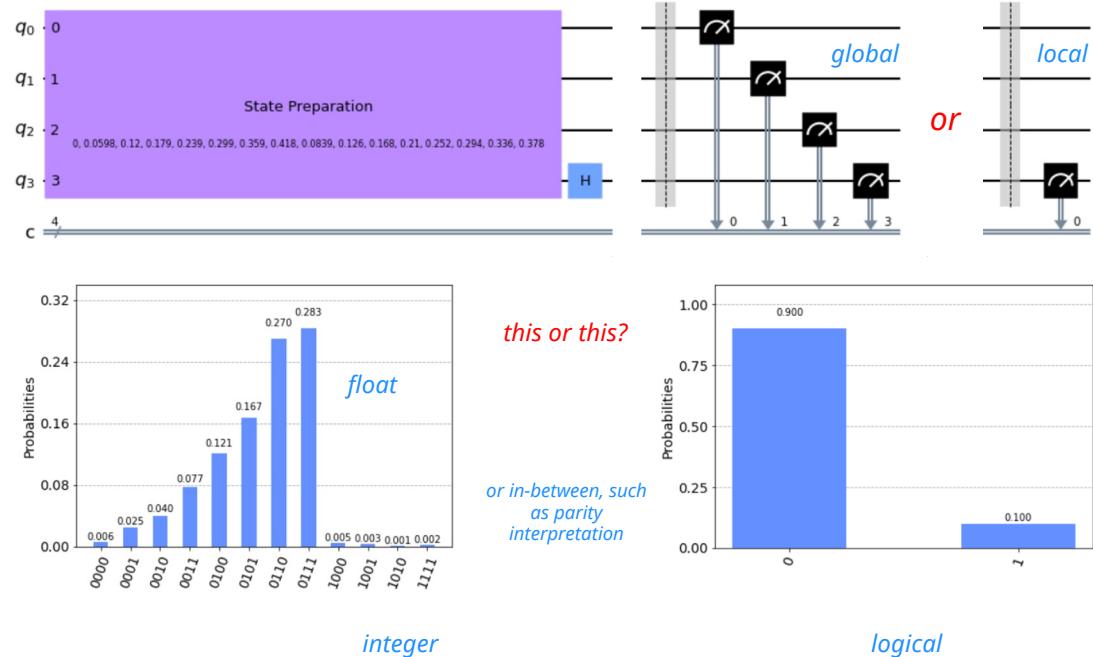
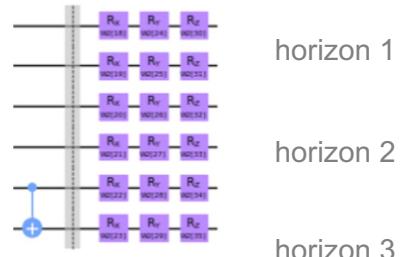
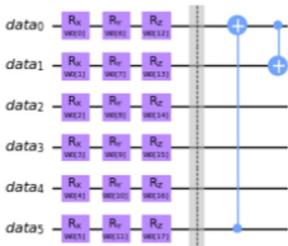


Example: data encoded as  $\psi$  was normalised vector  $[1/8, 2/8, 3/8, 2/8]$ . The measurement reflects the input data proportions.

# Measurement & Interpretation

There are many ways of decoding the circuit state to form classical output data, e.g. we can:

- *measure all qubits*  
(as related to the global cost function)
- *measure a selection of qubits*  
(as related to the local cost function)
- *measure the circuit state in different ways*  
(e.g. as counts, expvals or probabilities)
- *reinterpret circuit measurements*  
into different combinations of outcomes, e.g. , to predict larger TS horizons (future)



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

- *binary outcome*  
(e.g. a single qubit measurement),
- *bitwise representation of an integer number* (e.g. most frequent combination of multi-qubit measurements), or
- *value of a continuous variable*  
(e.g. expectation value of a specific outcome).

# Variational Quantum Algorithm

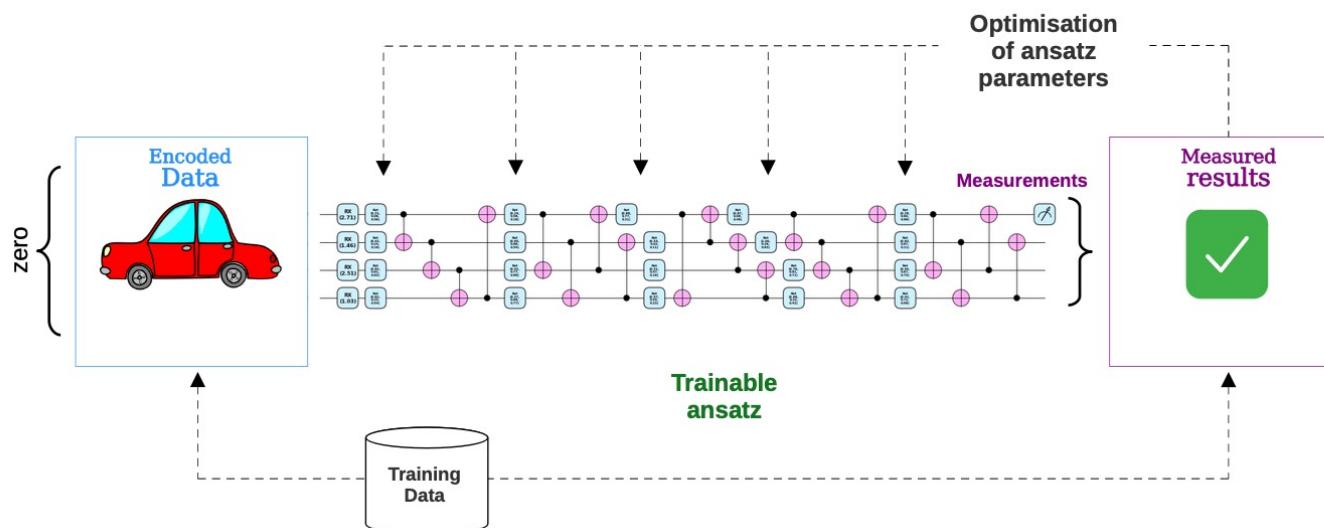
A typical VQA process

VQA is an **iterative process**

VQA uses **cost/loss function** and **optimiser**

VQA has **difficulties**:

- The problem at hand
- Large circuits with many parameters
- Complex measurement strategy
- Unsupervised learning
- Emergence of barren plateaus



The ansatz parameters are initialised to some values, e.g. zero or random

The feature map parameters are bound to the new input data

The parameter values are used to create a new circuit

The circuit is executed

The circuit quantum state is then measured

Cost function is applied to measurement results and expected values

The cost of difference is calculated

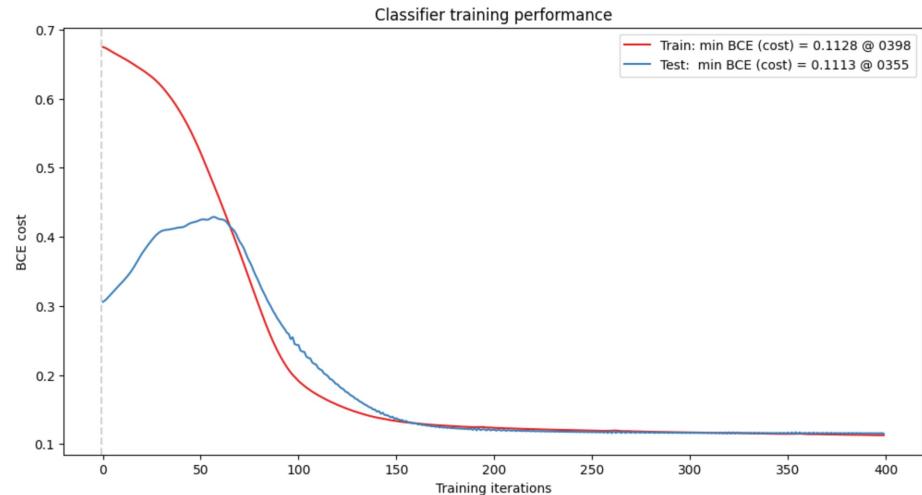
Based on the difference and previous parameters the new parameters values are proposed

# Demo

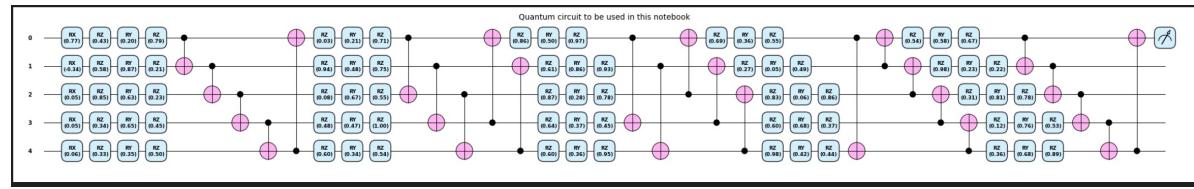
## Klasyczna sieć neuronowa

CM weights: 3219, Epochs: 400

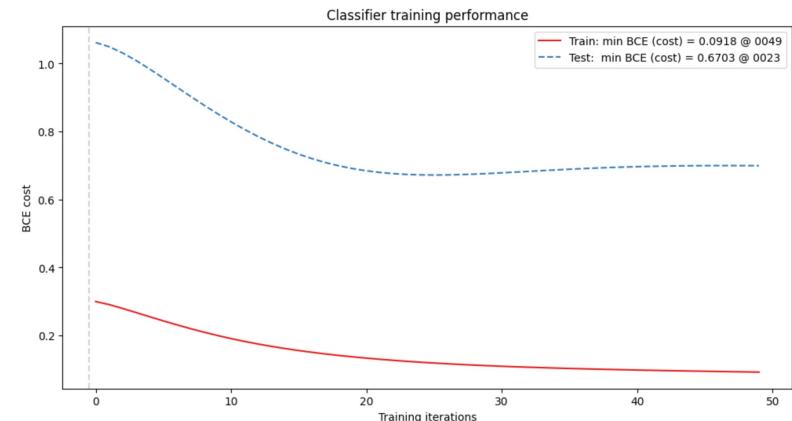
```
Classic_NN(  
    model): Sequential(  
        (0): Linear(in_features=5, out_features=64, bias=True)  
        (1): ReLU()  
        (2): Linear(in_features=64, out_features=32, bias=True)  
        (3): ReLU()  
        (4): Linear(in_features=32, out_features=18, bias=True)  
        (5): ReLU()  
        (6): Linear(in_features=18, out_features=8, bias=True)  
        (7): ReLU()  
        (8): Linear(in_features=8, out_features=1, bias=True)  
        (9): Sigmoid()  
    )  
)
```



## Kwantowa sieć neuronowa



```
Quantum_Auto(  
    model_pt): Sequential(  
        (0): <Quantum Torch Layer: func=_qmodel>  
    )  
)
```



# Quantum Autoencoder (for Time Series)

There are a few applications of QML methods to time-series analysis, TS applications of quantum AE (QAE) are even fewer

QAEs have the potential to deal with highly complex noise and anomaly patterns

Training of QAEs is difficult, due to:

Potentially many features (e.g. TSs)  
(lots of qubits and/or parameters)

Complex measurement strategies

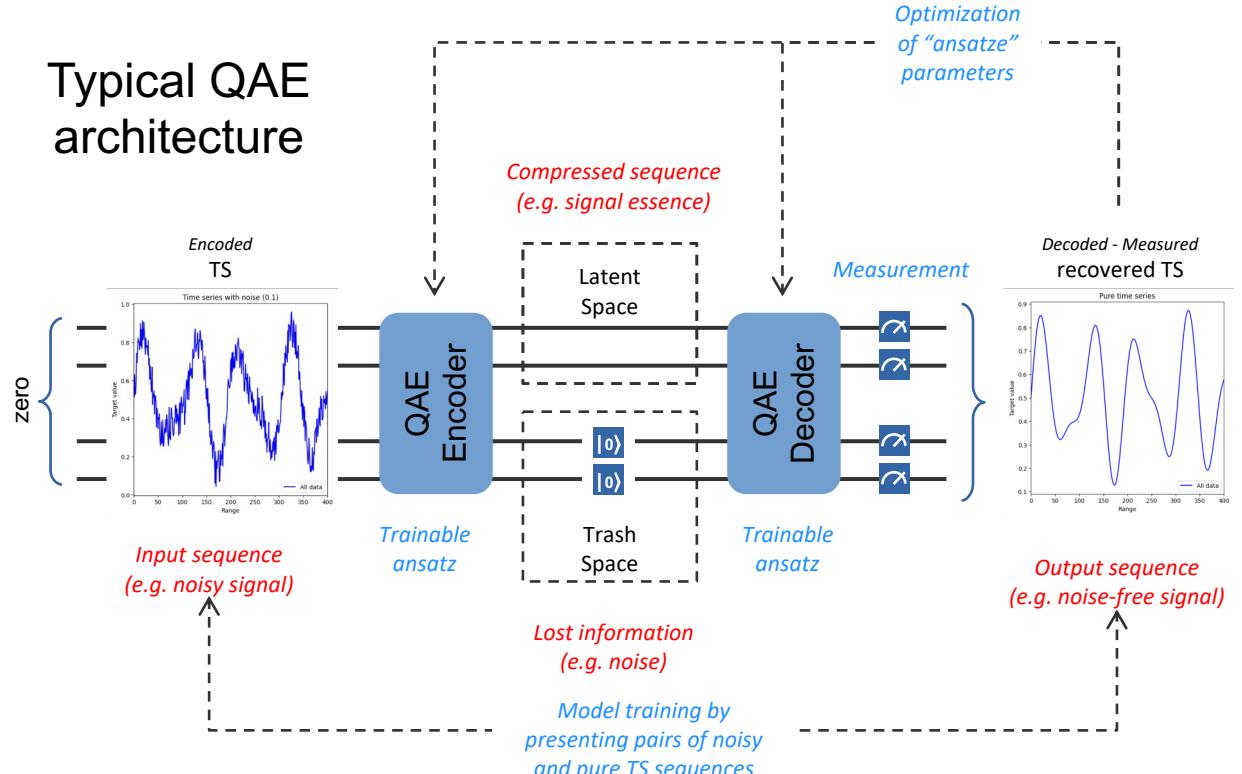
Unsupervised learning  
(we do not know what is noise)

Possibility of barren plateaus

In QAE development, the key concerns include:

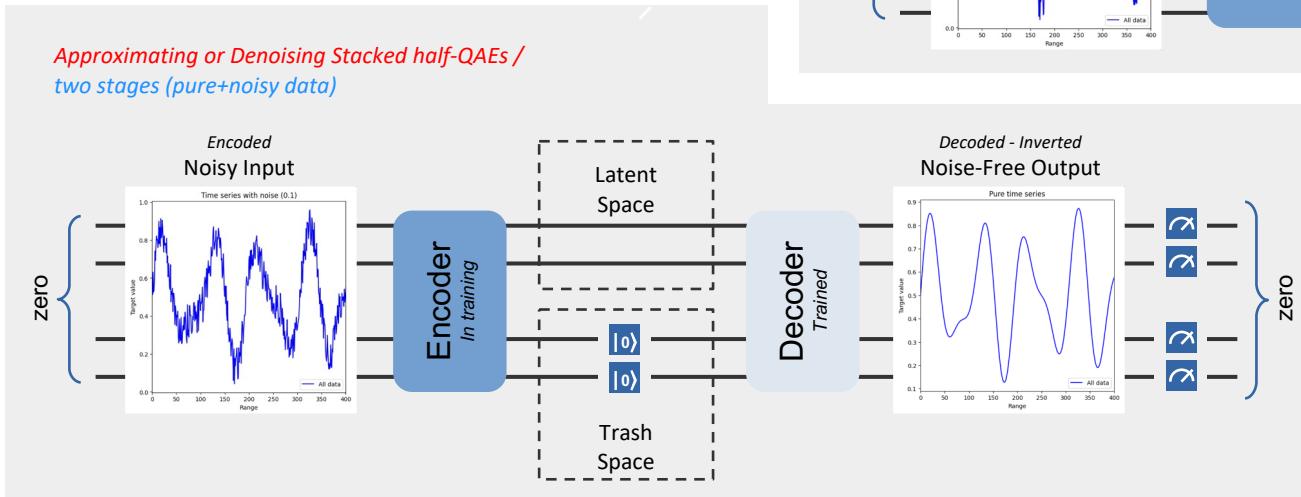
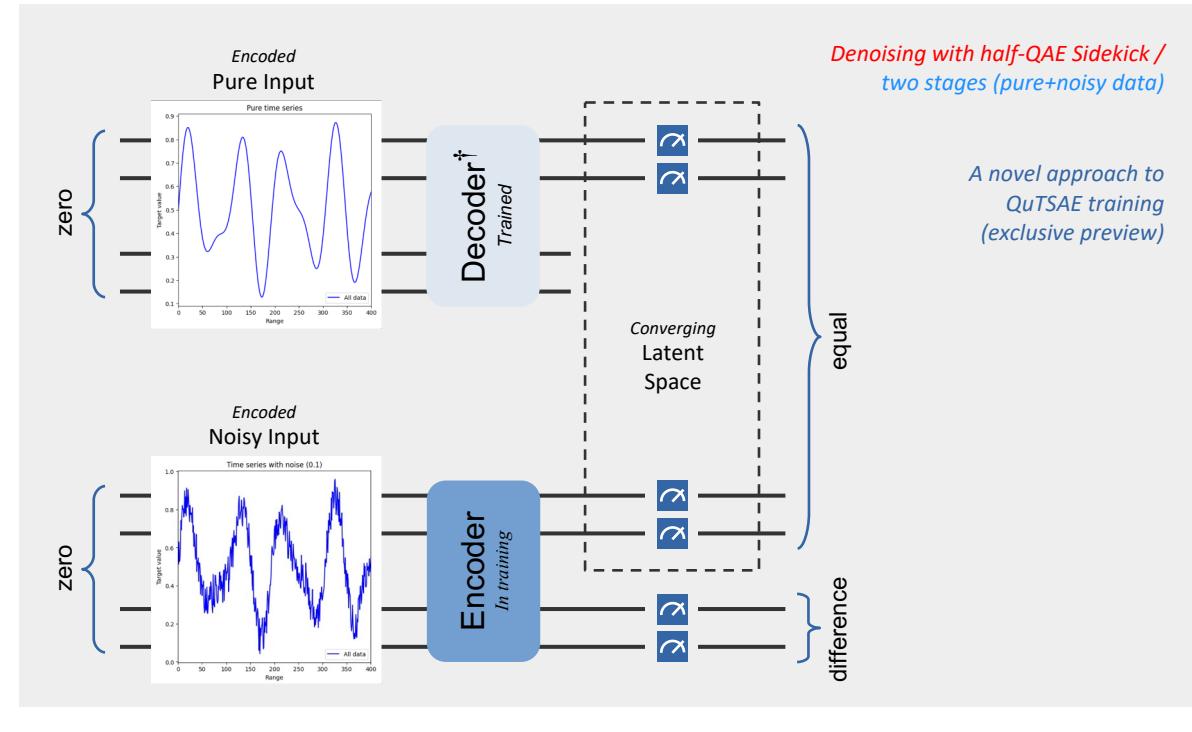
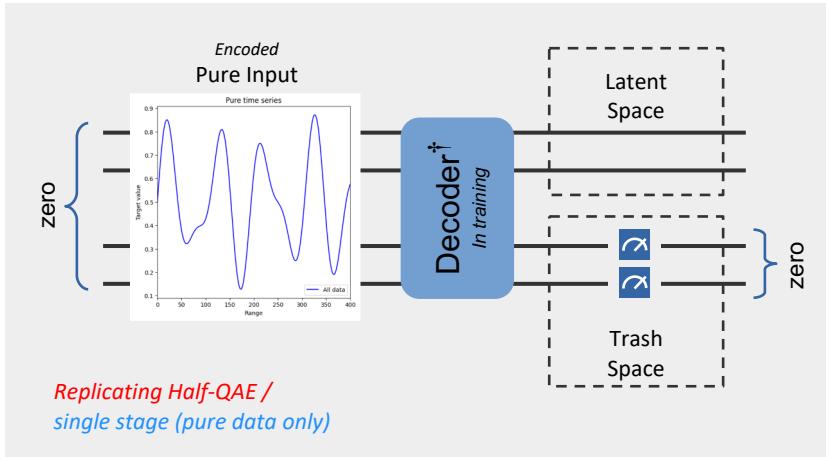
*overall model architecture, data encoding and decoding, ansatz design and its parameters optimisation strategy*

Typical QAE architecture



Simple problems can be solved with pure quantum methods  
Complex issues require hybrid quantum-classical methods

# Alternative Architectures



We can train a pure QAE by training its half by converging trash info to zero, the other half is its inverse.

We can train a noisy half-QAE by stacking it with a pure half-QAE

We can also side-train a noisy half-QAE by converging its latent space to a pretrained pure half-QAE

A novel approach to QuTSAE training (exclusive preview)



# Thank you!