

# Deep learning with quantum neural networks

Trial lecture by Vegard Børve Sørdal

Advisor: Joakim Bergli

Co-advisors: Yuri Galperin and Luiza Angheluta

Opponents: Vitaly Shumeiko and David Sánchez

Neural networks have been proven very successful  
for solving complex high dimensional problems

Quantum mechanics is all about manipulating  
vectors in a high dimensional space, with added  
exotic effects

Can we combine them?

# Neural networks

Neural networks is the core of the recent AI boom

If you want the NN to perform some task, it needs relevant data to learn from

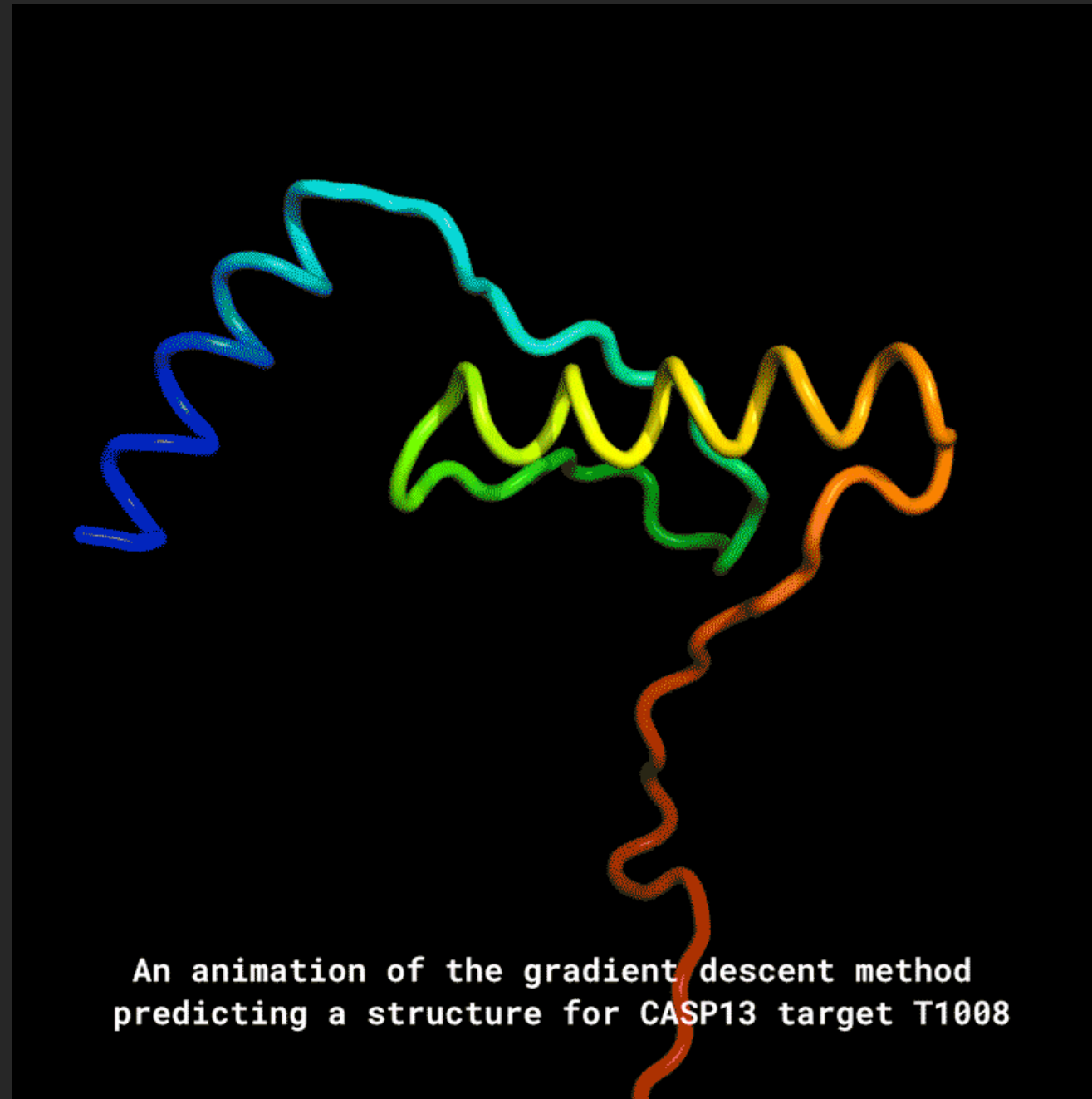
# Self driving cars



Data: interaction with simulated environment



# Protein folding



Data: folded structure of known proteins

# Generate new faces?



Figure 5:  $1024 \times 1024$  images generated using the CELEBA-HQ dataset. See Appendix F for a larger set of results, and the accompanying video for latent space interpolations.

Data: pictures of celebrity faces



# Generate new faces?

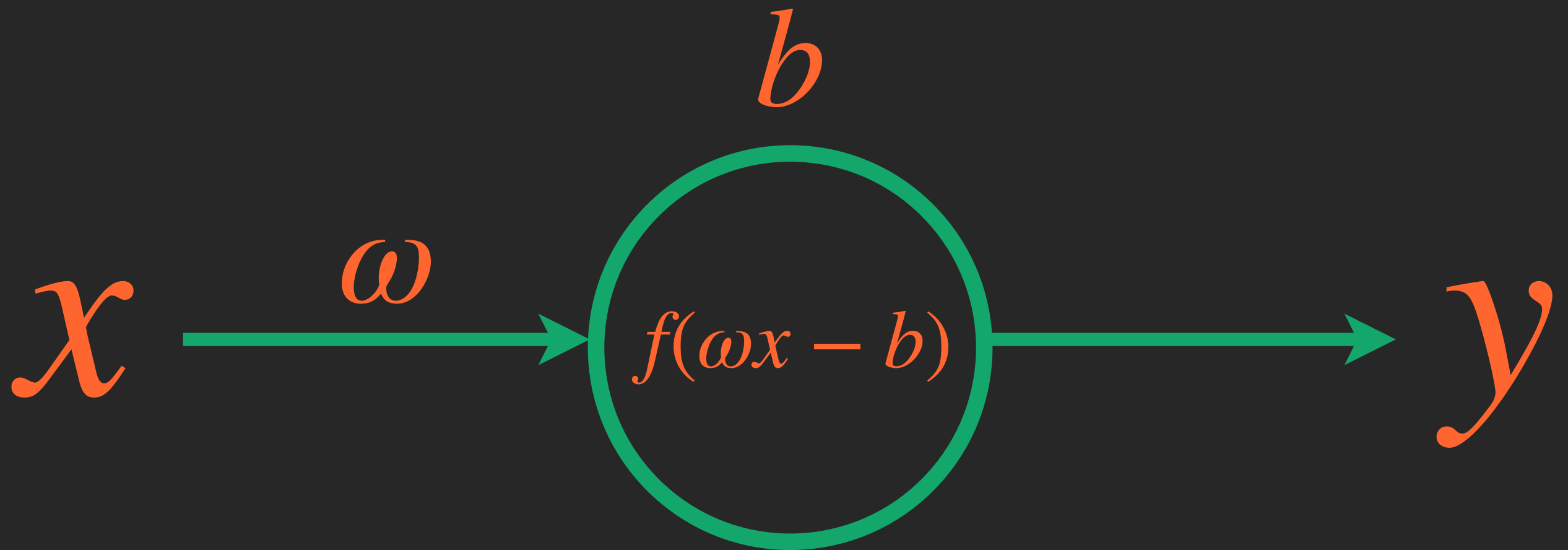


Data: pictures of celebrity faces

**Huge range of  
other applications**

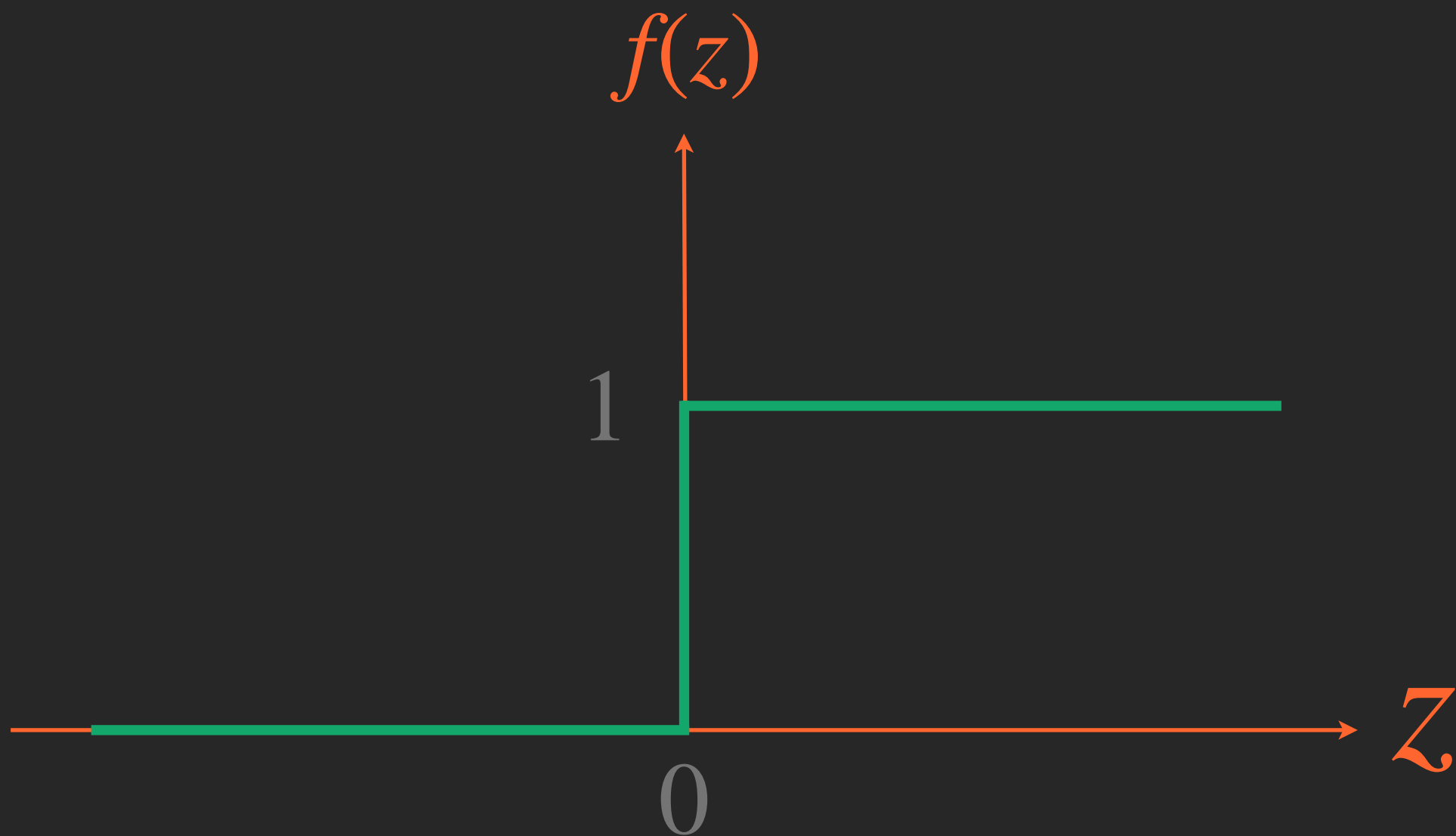
**But lets start from scratch  
and describe the smallest  
unit of the neural network**

# Artificial neuron

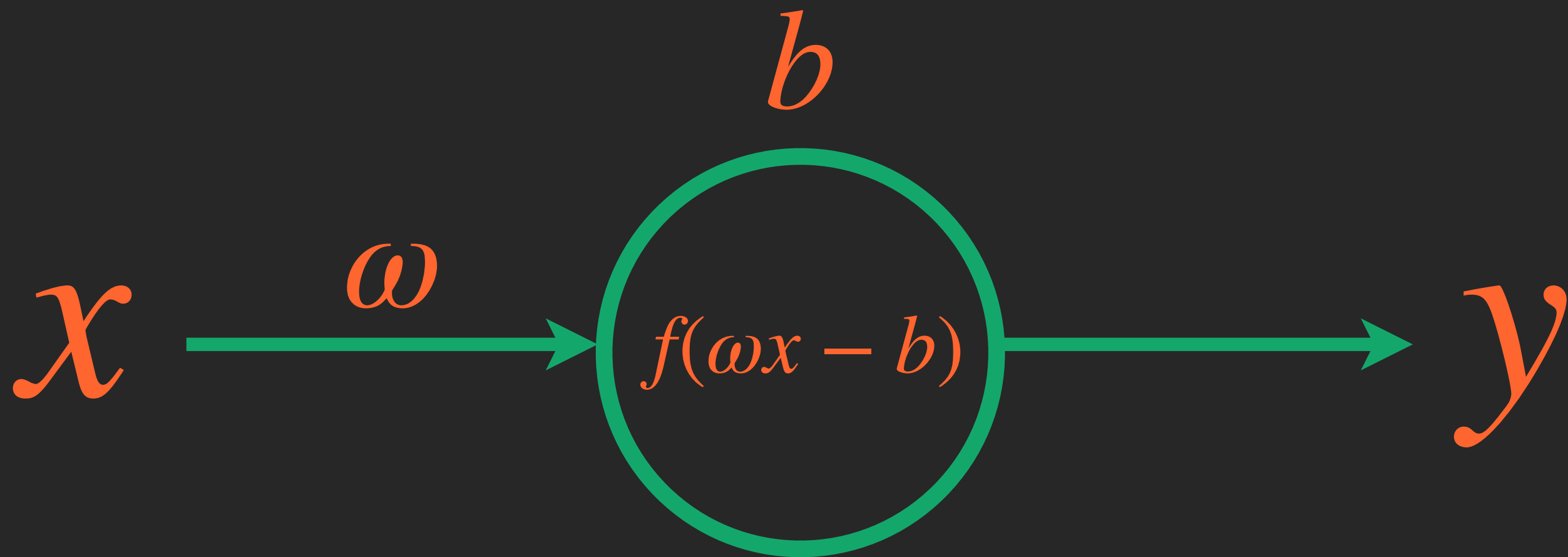


$$y = f(\omega x - b)$$

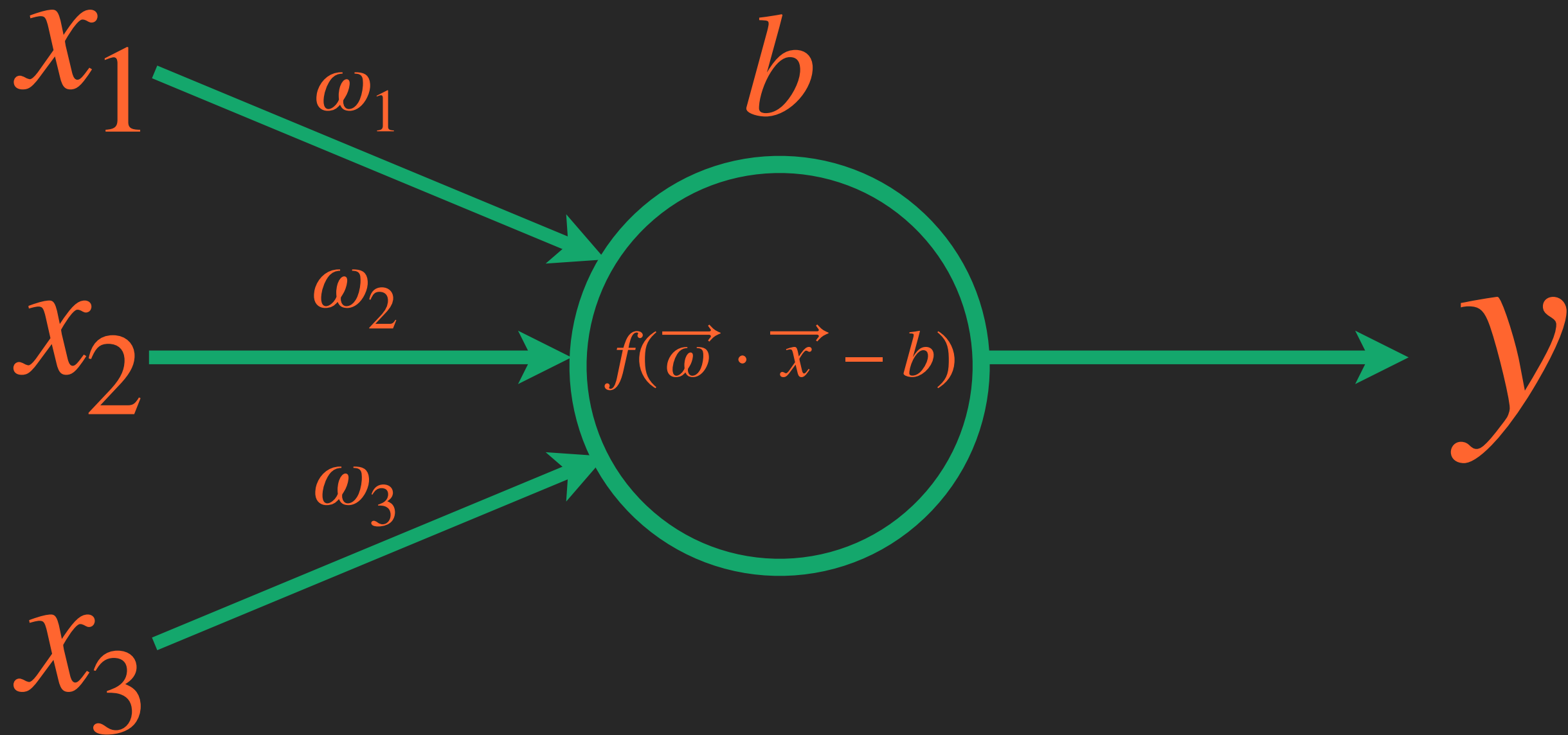
$$f(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } z \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



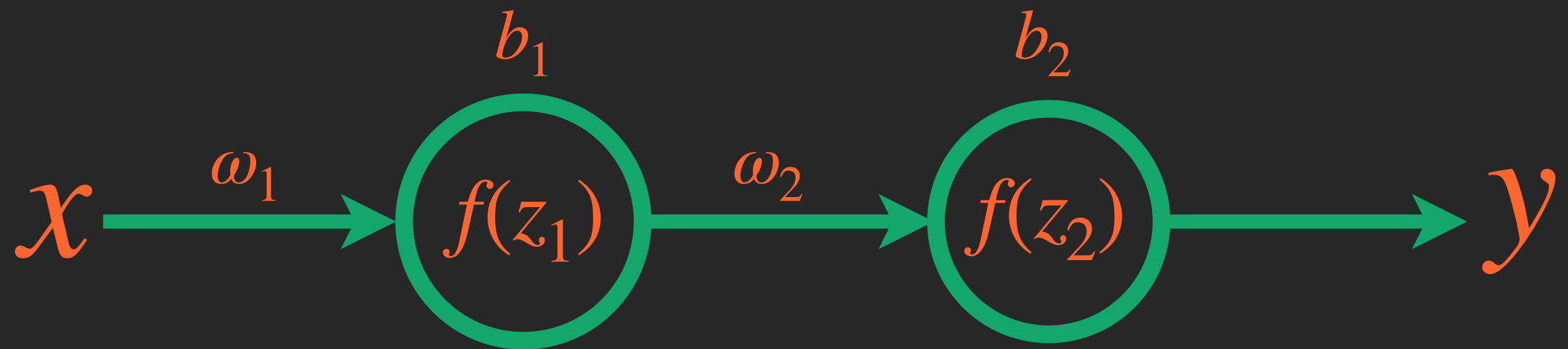




$$y = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \omega x < b \\ 1 & \text{if } \omega x \geq b \end{cases}$$



$$\vec{\omega} \cdot \vec{x} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \omega_i x_i$$



The output from the first neuron  
is the input to the second neuron

A non-linear function can be used as activation function

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

$$f(z) = \tanh(z)$$

$$f(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 1 \\ z & \text{if } z \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

# Why non-linear activation?

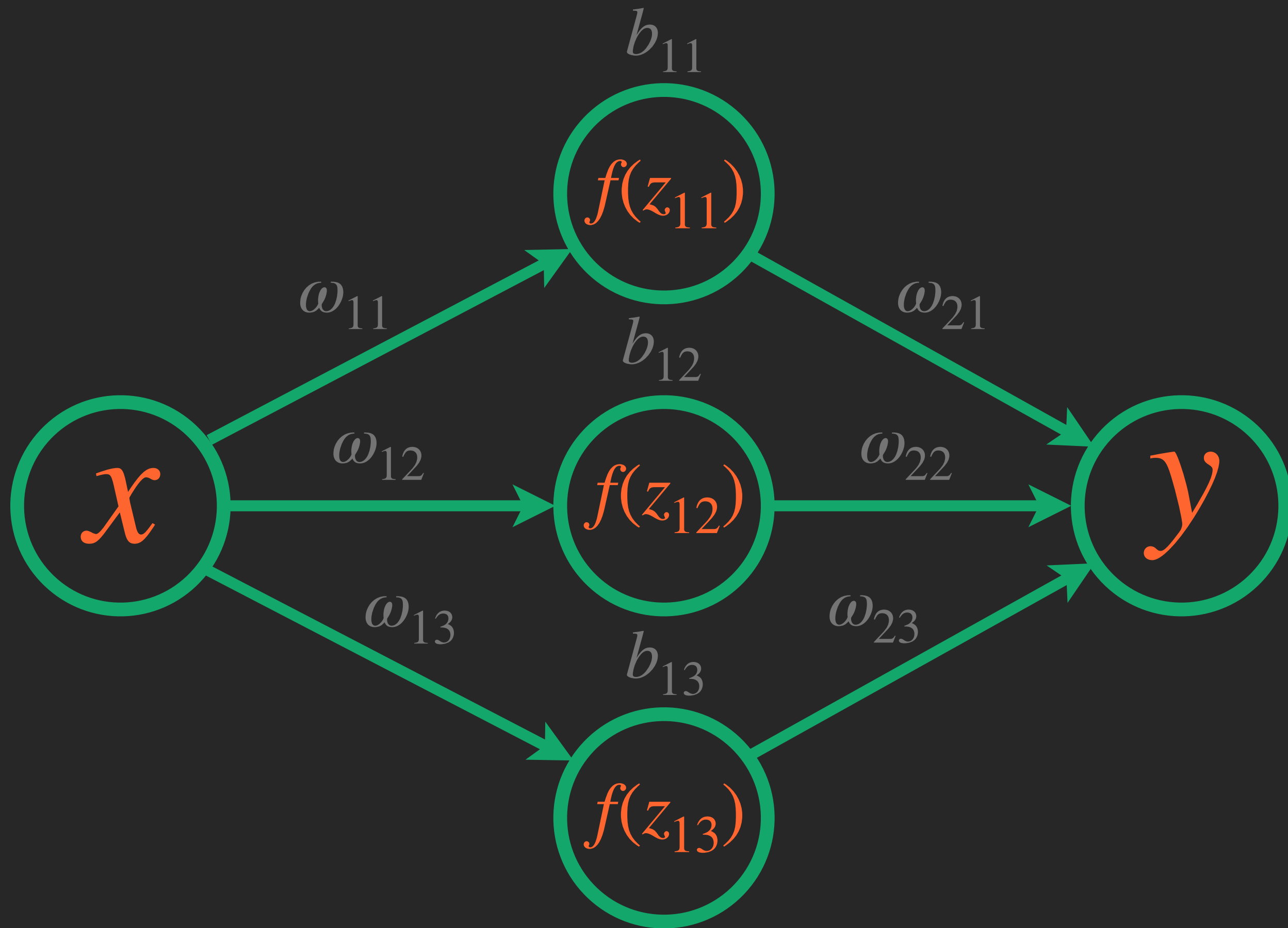
$$f(x) = x$$

$$y = f(z_2)$$

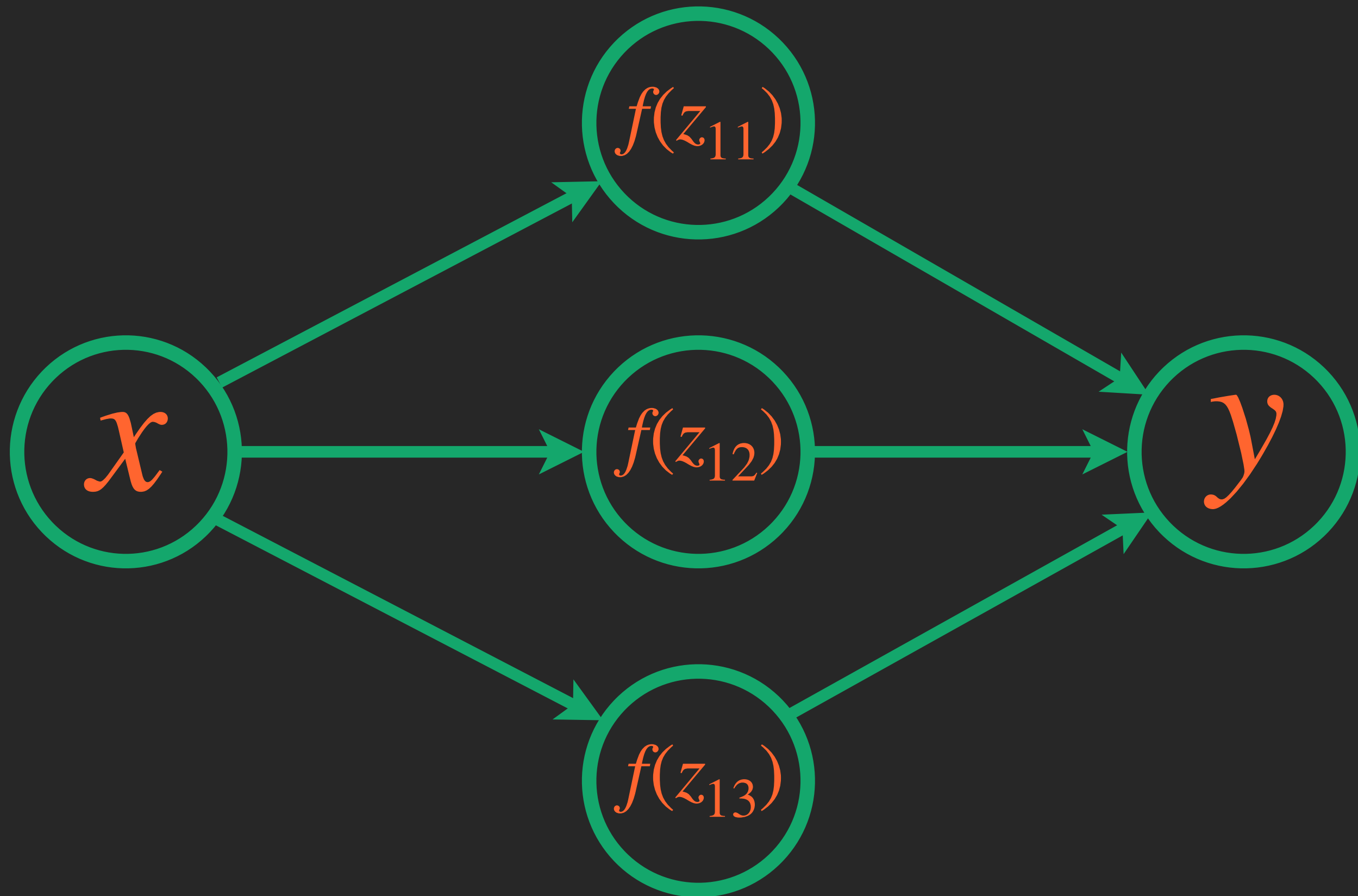
$$= f(\omega_2 f(z_1) + b_2)$$

$$= f(\omega_2(\omega_1 x + b_1) + b_2)$$

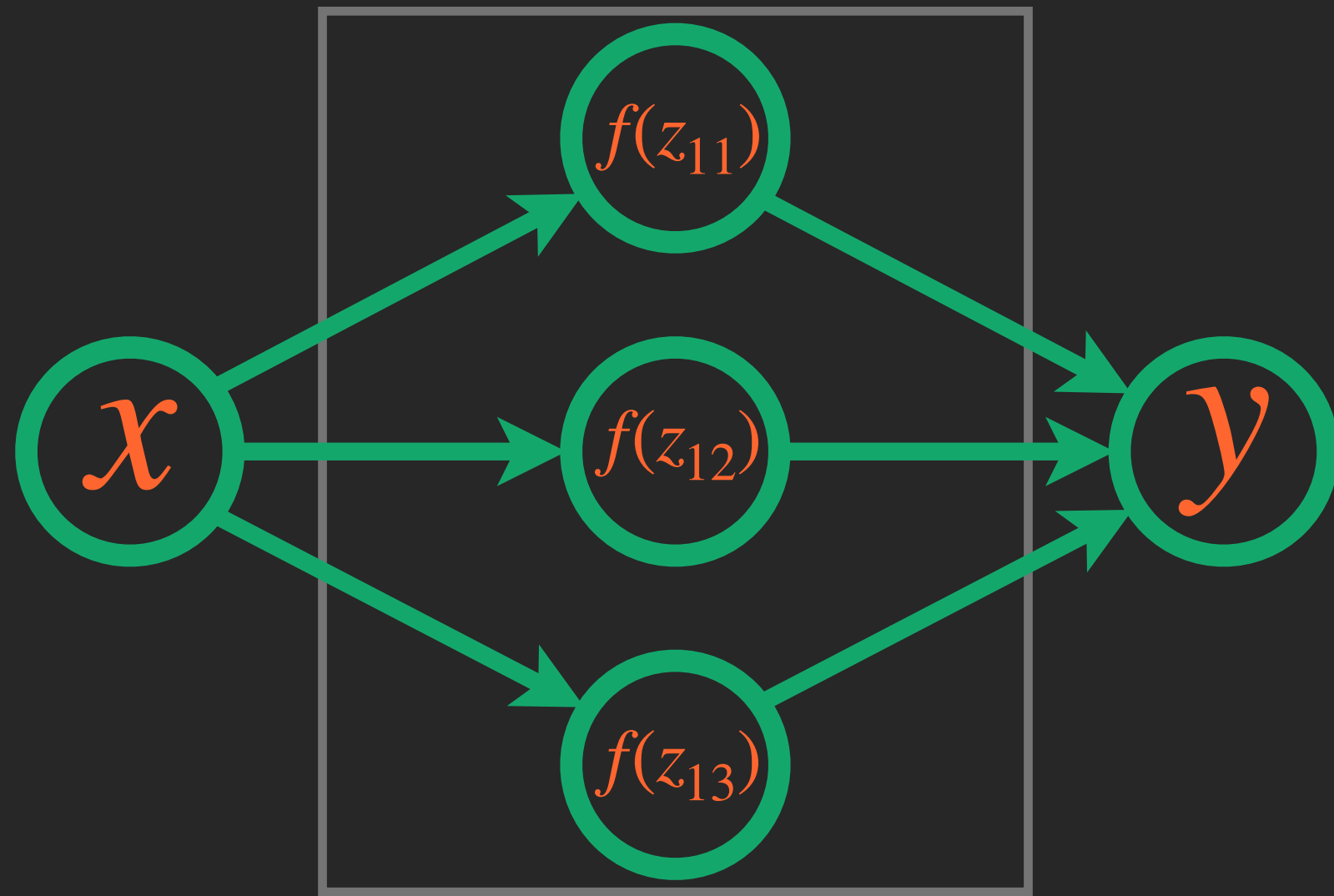
$$= \omega_2 \omega_1 x + \omega_2 b_1 + b_2$$







$$\theta = \left\{ \omega_{11}, \omega_{12}, \omega_{13}, b_{11}, b_{12}, b_{13}, \omega_{21}, \omega_{22}, \omega_{23} \right\}$$



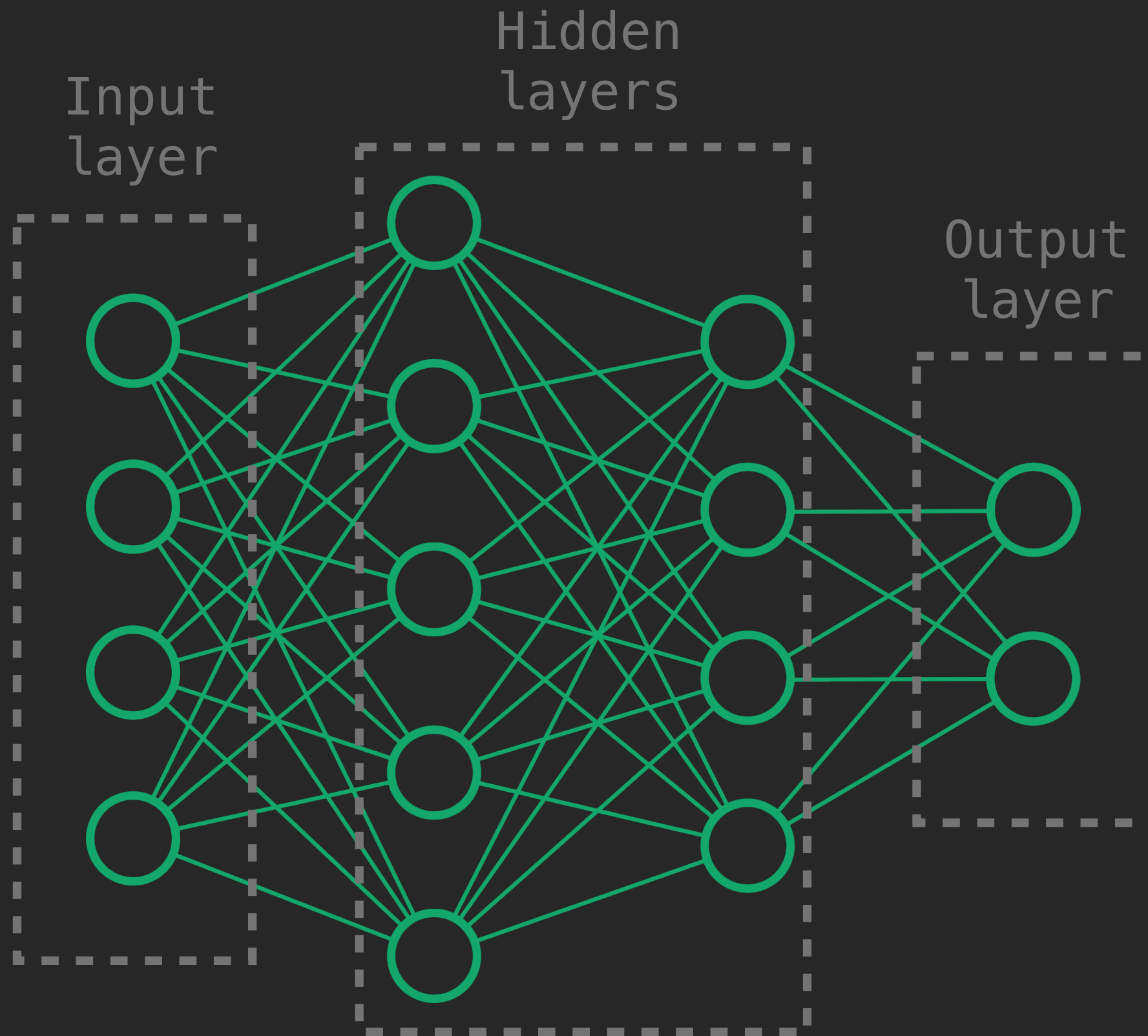
$$F(x, \theta)$$

$$G : x \rightarrow y$$

$$F(x, \theta) \simeq G(x)$$

A single finite layer can approximate  
any continuous function

# Deep Neural Network



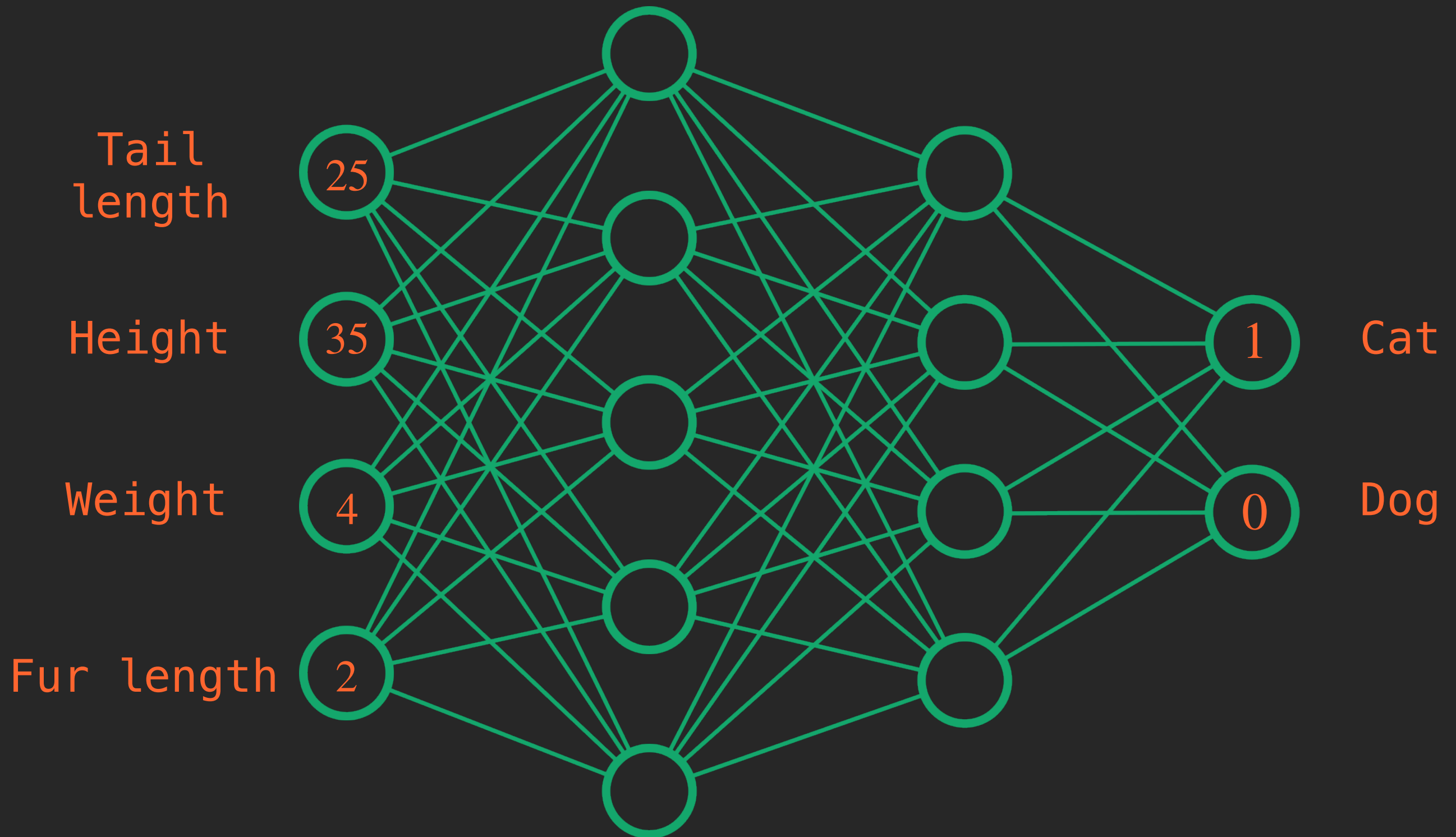
# Deep Neural Network

Can be used as function approximators  
for very abstract functions.

For example functions that predicts  
whether data comes from measurement  
on a cat or a dog.

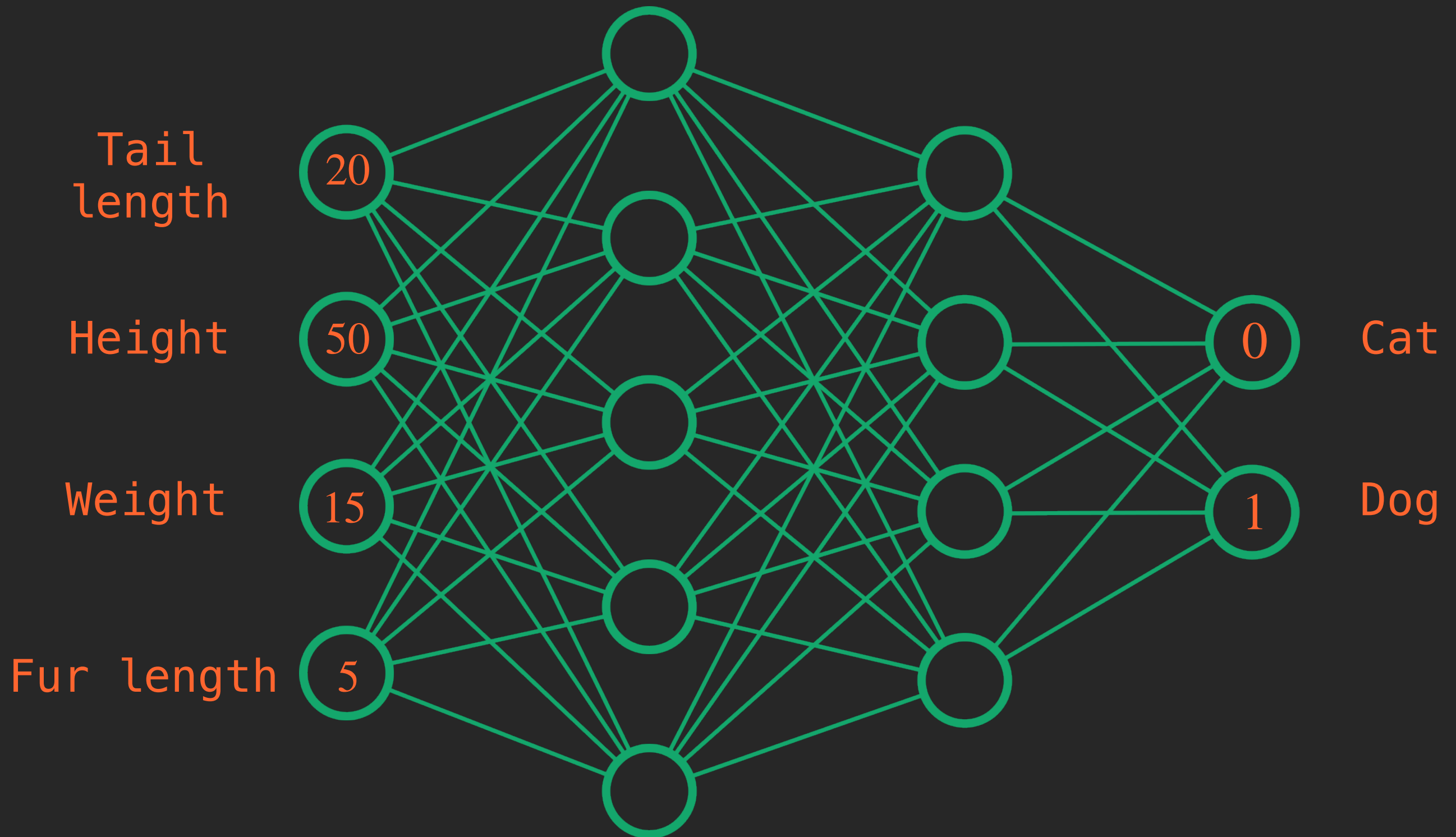
	Tail length (cm)	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)	Fur length (cm)
Dog 1	30	60	15	5
Cat 1	15	20	5	3
Cat 2	20	30	6	8
Dog 1	5	80	40	6
...				

# Classification example

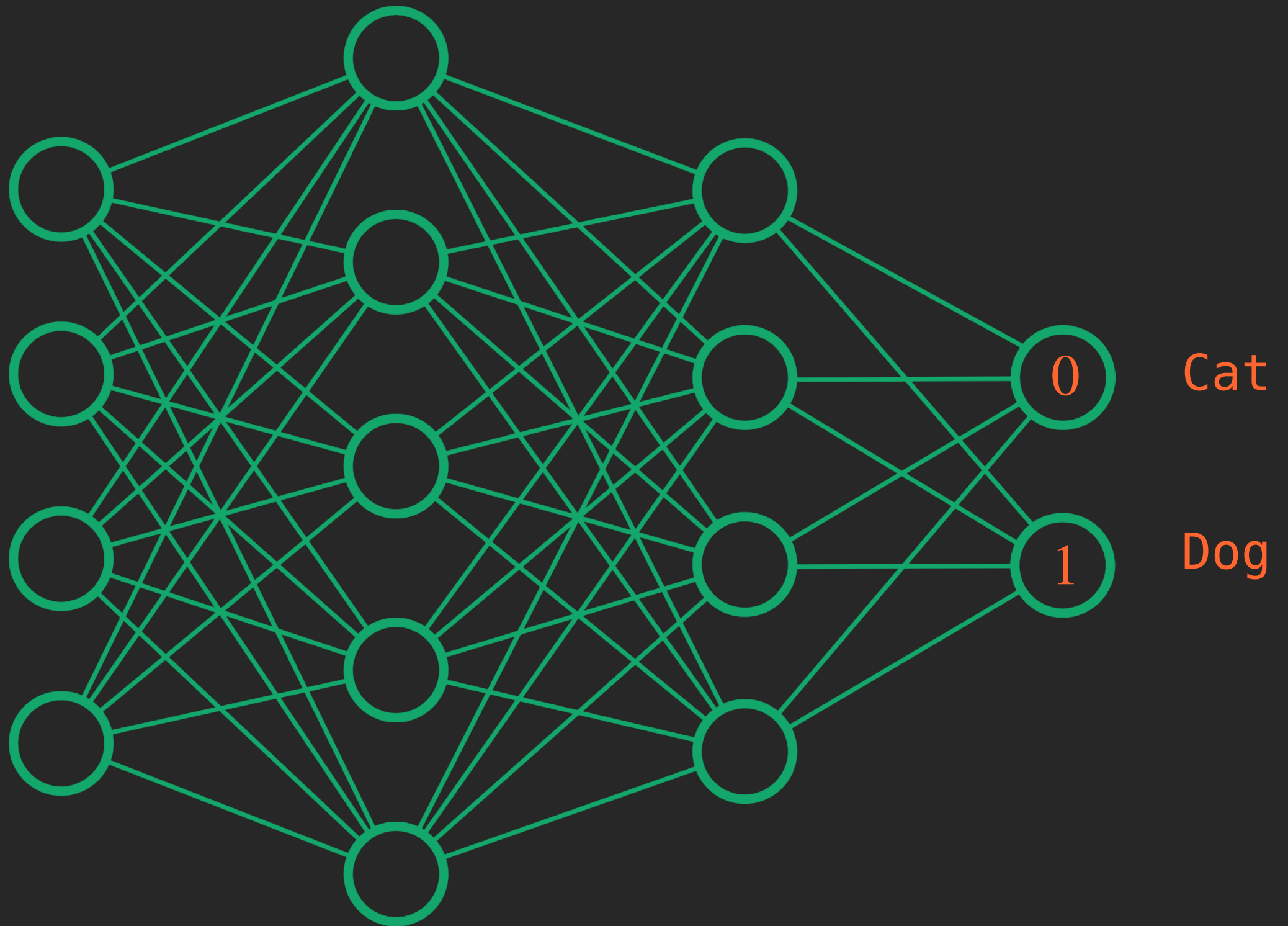




# Classification example

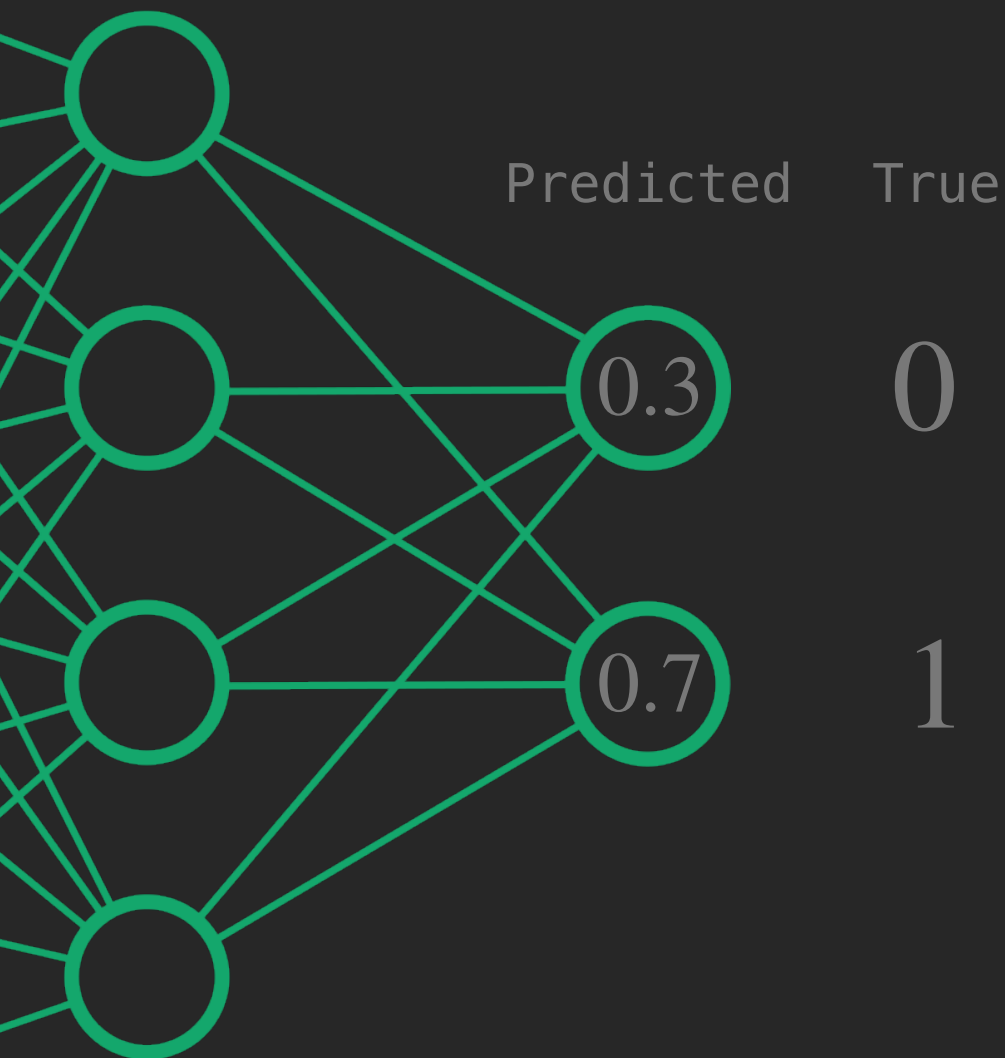


# Classification example



$32 \times 32 \rightarrow 1024$  input neurons

Have to tweak  $\theta$  based on data, so that the network can make accurate predictions



$$\vec{a}_L = \begin{bmatrix} 0.3 \\ 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{y}_{target} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Some measure of error

$$C(\theta) = \sum_x \|\vec{a}_L(x) - \vec{y}_{target}(x)\|^2$$

Cost function summing over all data points  $x$

Minimized when

$$\frac{\partial C(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

Gradient descent

$$\theta_{n+1} = \theta_n - \eta \frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta}$$

# Neural network summary

Powerful universal function approximators

Non-linear activation of nested functions  
gives deep representative power

Have efficient weight updating methods (back-propagation)

How good the function approximation is depends  
on how much data you have to train on

# Quantum Computing

# Classical bit

No

Yes

0

OR

1

CD

No mirror

Mirror

Hard  
disk





# Quantum bit

No

0

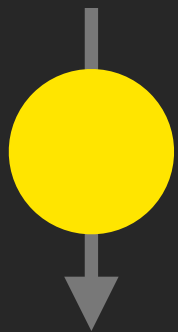
Yes

1

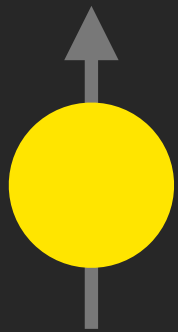
AND, OR, BOTH



# Quantum bit: qubit



$$|1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

State of system given by

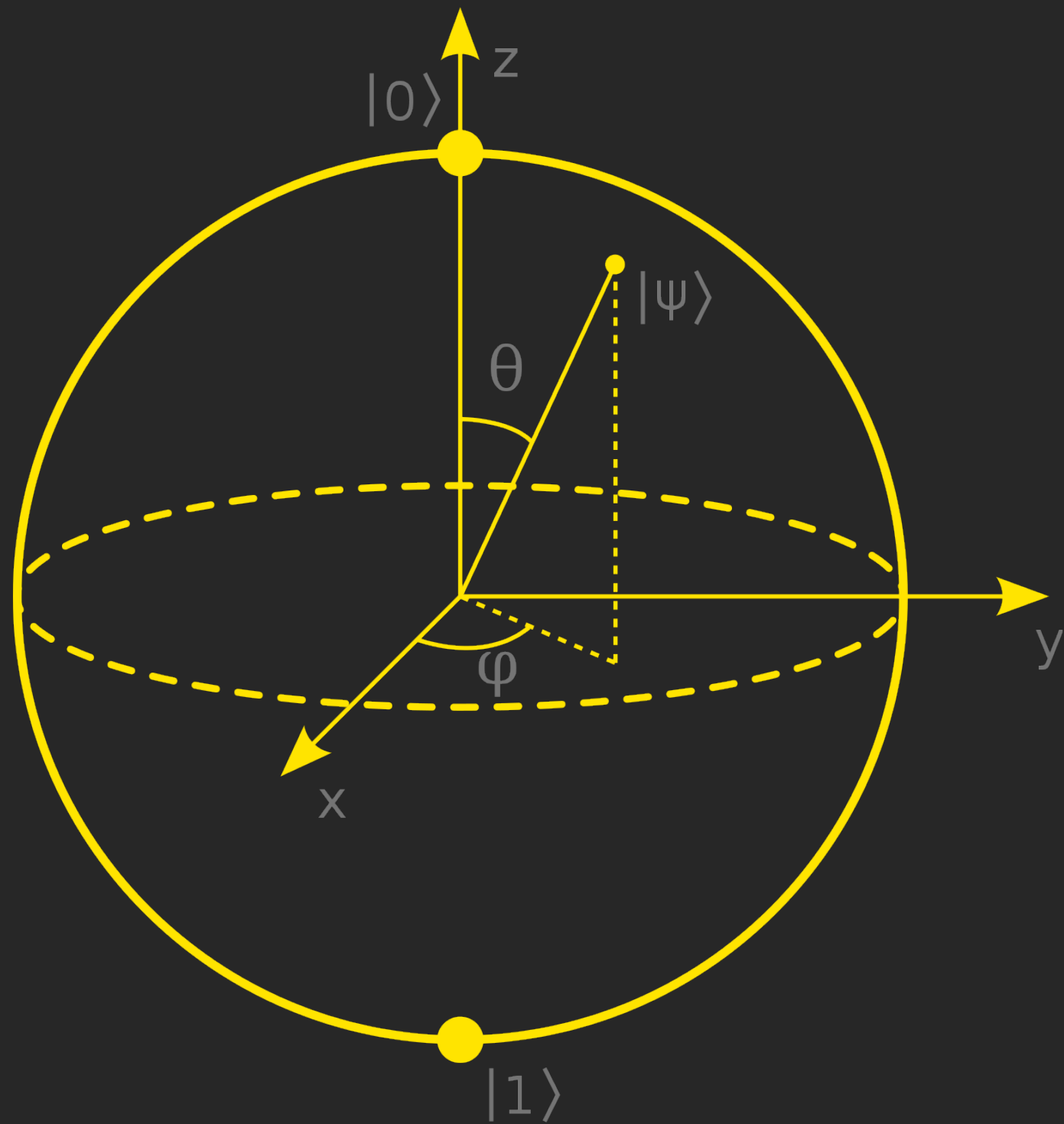
$$|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^2$$

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

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$

Linear combination is not 0 and 1

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |1\rangle$$



$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |1\rangle$$

Classical computers are based on manipulating bits of information, i.e. 0 and 1

The manipulation is called “logical gates”

# Single bit classical gate

*NOT* :       $0 \rightarrow 1$        $1 \rightarrow 0$

*ERASE* :       $0 \rightarrow 0$        $1 \rightarrow 0$

There are also quantum mechanical equivalent operations, called quantum gates

These are the basic operations we can use in a quantum computer

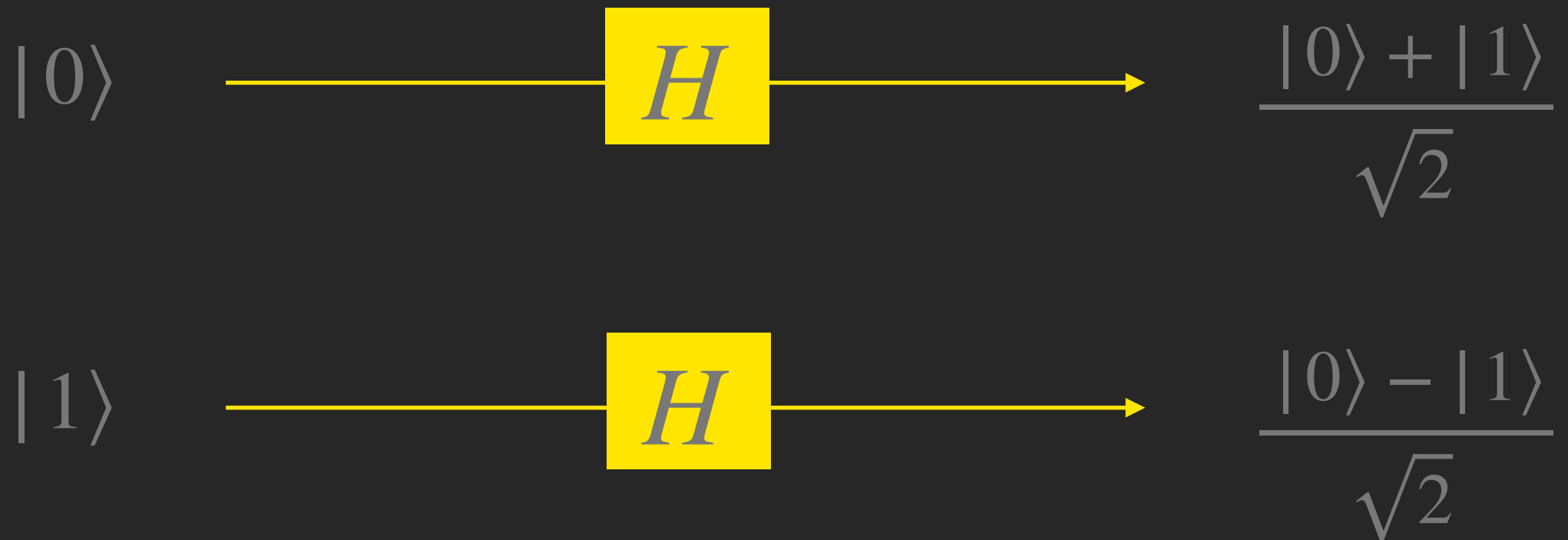
*NOT* :       $0 \rightarrow 1$        $1 \rightarrow 0$

$$\sigma_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



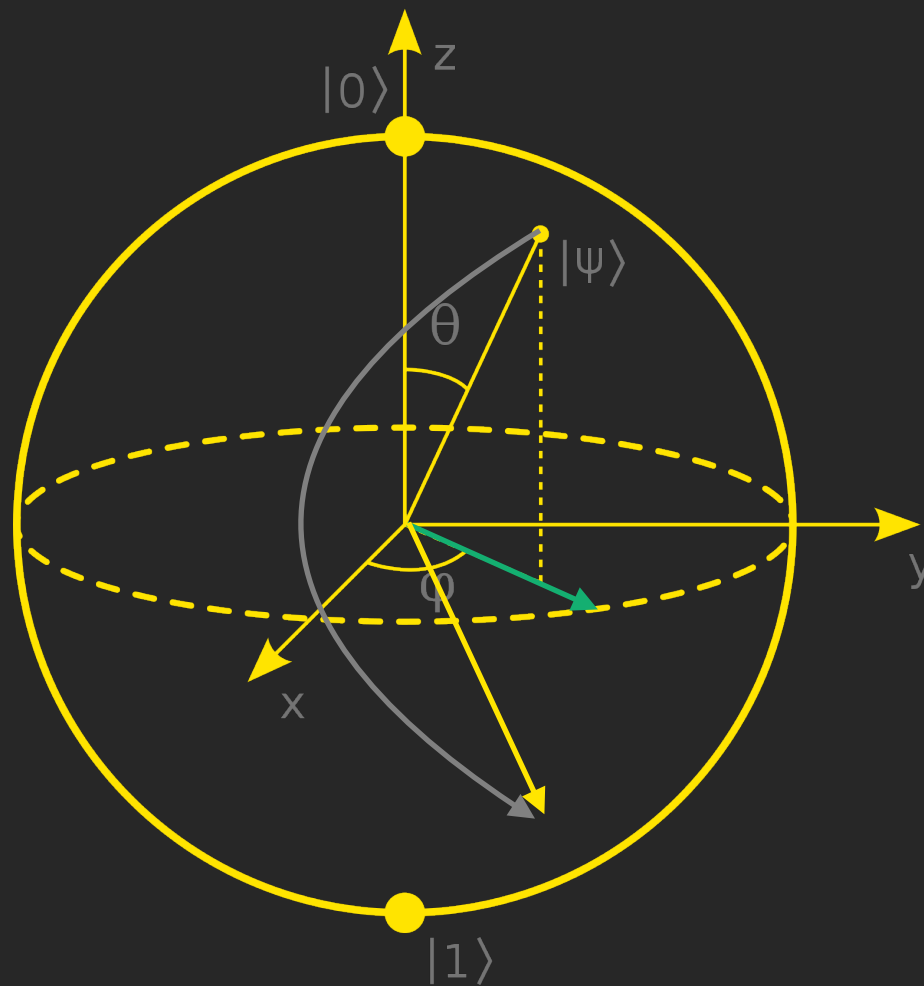
# Hadamard gate

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\sigma_x + \sigma_z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$





# General rotation on Bloch sphere



$$U = e^{i\alpha} R_{\hat{n}}(\theta)$$

$$R_{\hat{n}}(\theta) = \cos(\theta/2)I - i \sin(\theta/2) \left( n_x \sigma_x + n_y \sigma_y + n_z \sigma_z \right)$$

What about classical  
gates for two bits?

# Classical CNOT

Flip target bit if control bit is 1

$ct$		$c\hat{t}$
00	→	00
01	→	01
10	→	11
11	→	10

What about operation  
on two qubits?

# Tensor product states

$$\begin{aligned} |00\rangle &= |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} & |10\rangle &= |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ |01\rangle &= |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} & |11\rangle &= |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|00\rangle + \beta|01\rangle + \gamma|10\rangle + \delta|11\rangle$$

# Quantum CNOT

$$CNOT = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

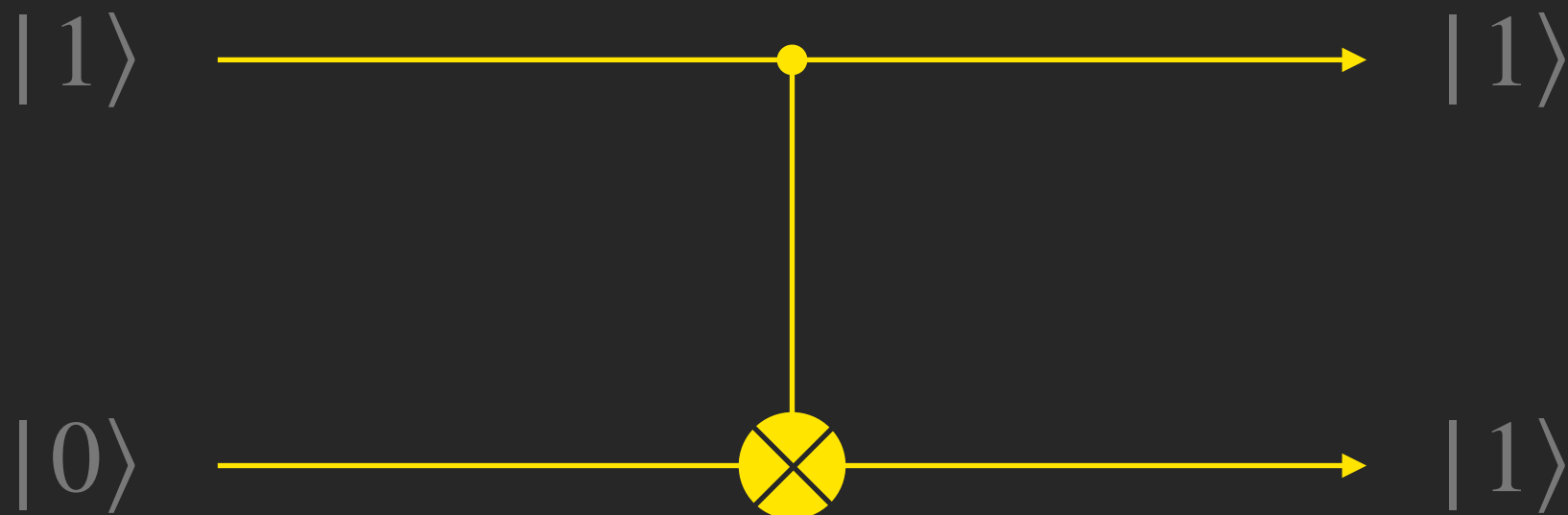
$$|00\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|01\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|10\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$|11\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Generate entanglement

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

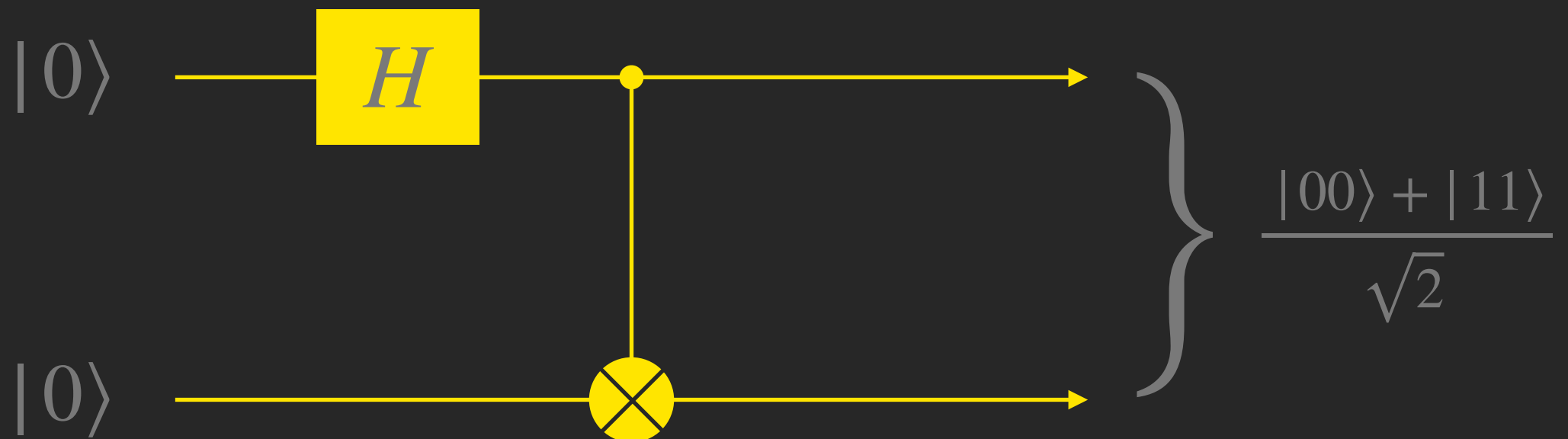
$$|00\rangle \rightarrow \left( \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) |0\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle + |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$



# Generate entanglement

$$CNOT = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|00\rangle \rightarrow \frac{|00\rangle + |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \rightarrow \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$





N qubits lives in  $2^N$

$$|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad |\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^2$$

$$|11\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad |\psi_1\psi_2\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^4$$

$$|01101001\dots\rangle \quad |\psi_1\psi_2\dots\psi_n\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{2^n}$$

## Classical data

$$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.54 \\ 0.83 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.54 \\ 0.44 \\ 0.31 \\ 0.63 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Quantum data

$$|\psi\rangle = 0.54|0\rangle + 0.83|1\rangle$$

$$|\psi\phi\rangle = 0.54|00\rangle + 0.44|01\rangle \\ + 0.31|10\rangle + 0.66|11\rangle$$

*n* qubits can store  $2^n$  numbers

$2^n$  numbers can be compressed into *n* qubits

$$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_{2^n} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2^n} \longrightarrow |q_1 q_2 \dots q_n\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{2^n} v_i |i\rangle$$

$O(n)$  : how the number of operations in an algorithm scales with the input

n = number of  
classical data points

Classical

Quantum

FFT

$O(n \log_2 n)$

$O(\log_2(n)^2)$

Eigenvalues  
Eigenvectors

$O(n^3)$

$O(\log_2(n)^2)$

Matrix inversion

$O(n \log_2 n)$

$O(\log_2(n)^3)$

1 GB classical data

$n = 10^9 \rightarrow 30$  qubits

Classical

Quantum

FFT

$10^{10}$

900

Eigenvalues  
Eigenvectors

$10^{27}$

900

Matrix inversion

$10^{10}$

26000

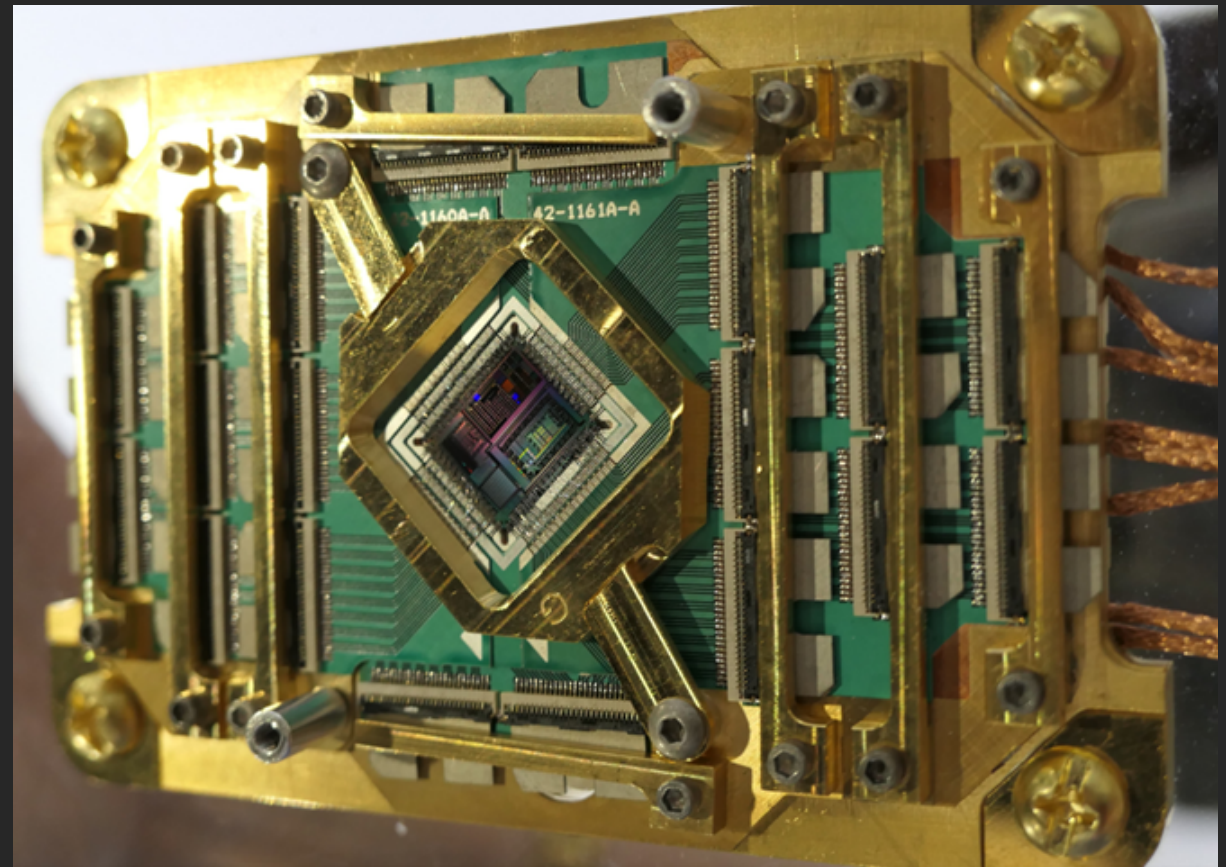
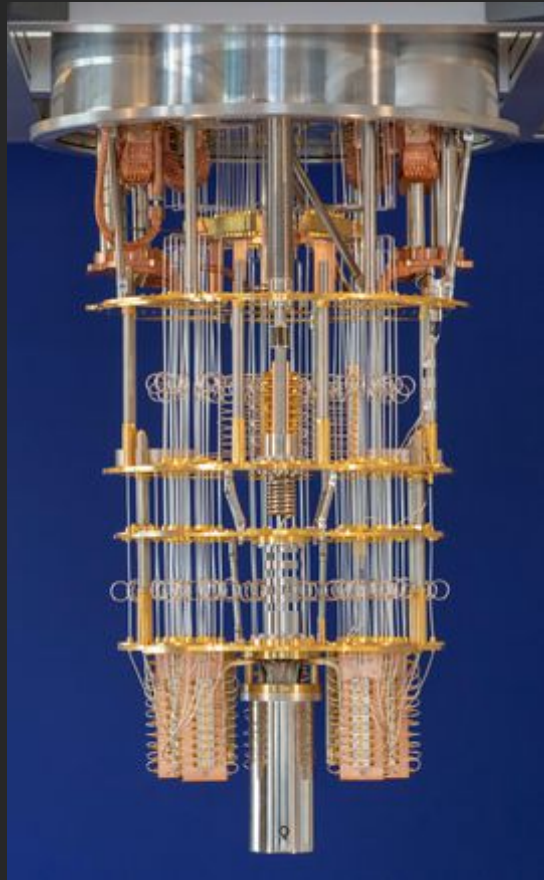
# Three big caveats



1. Encoding classical information into qubits also have computational cost.
2. Measurement collapses wave function: if final state is superposition we need quantum tomography.
3. Environmental noise destroys quantum effects.

# Quantum computing summary

1. Quantum computers can take advantage of dimensional compression of classical data
2. As well as quantum effects like superposition and entanglement
3. Able to perform some computations exponentially faster than classical counterpart
4. Importing and exporting classical data is non-trivial
5. Experimentally difficult to build due to sensitivity to environment



Built by commercial companies: IBM, Google, Intel, etc.

Shor's algorithm: prime number factorization

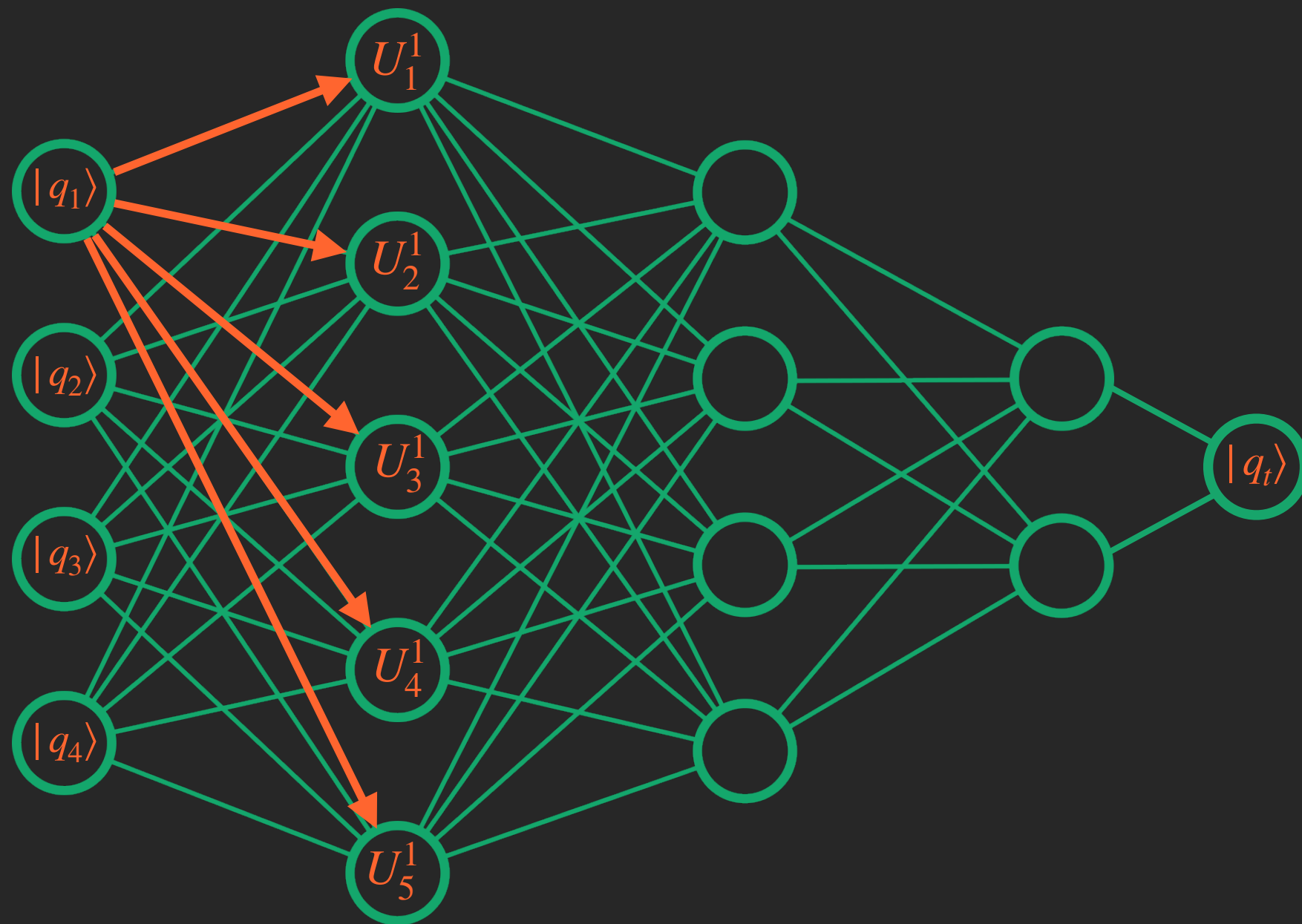
Grover's algorithm: search unstructured database

Quantum computers could break many of modern  
classical encryption methods



# Quantum Networks

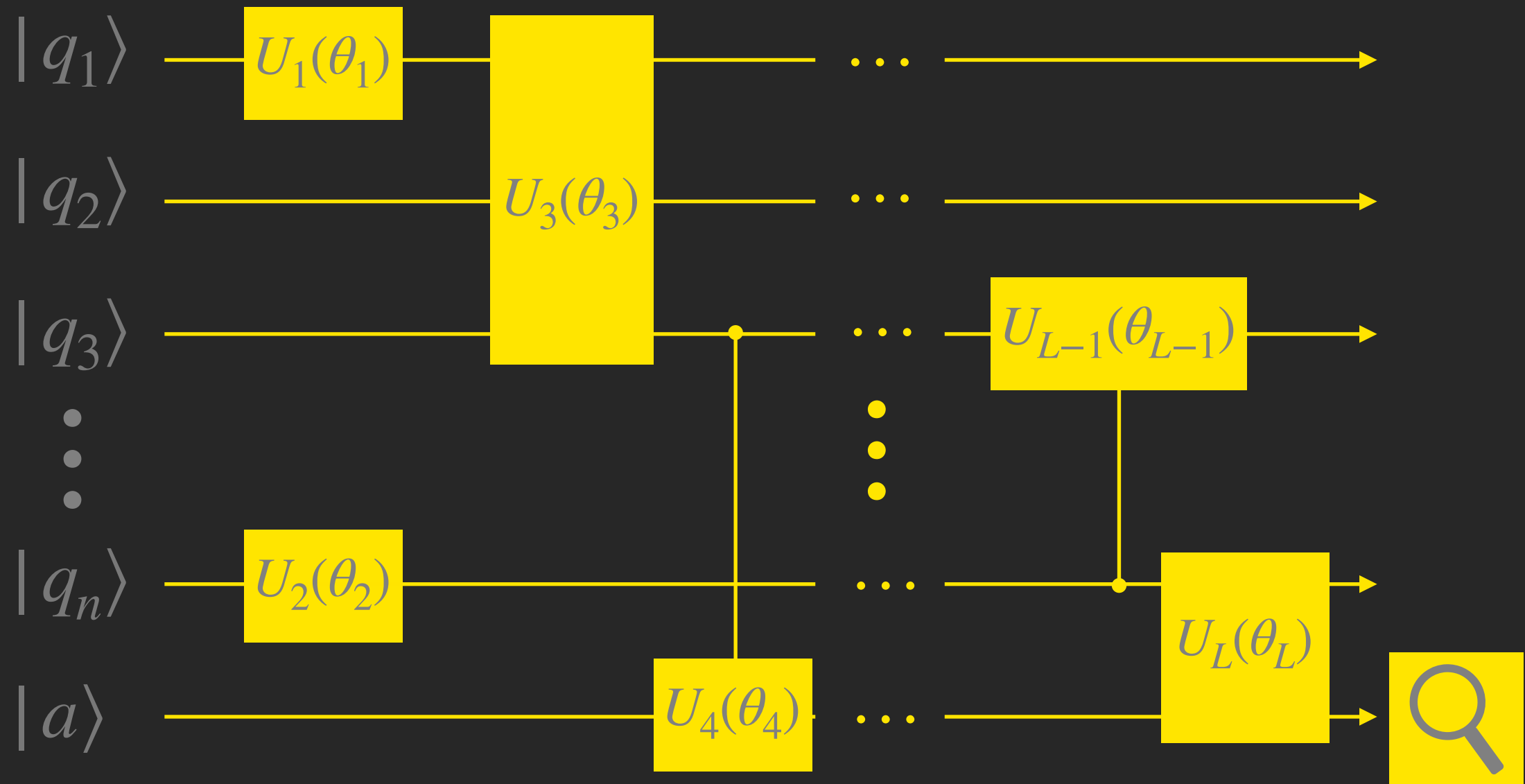
# Naive quantum network



No cloning: cannot make a copy of a quantum state

# QNN requirements

1. Produces outputs that is closest to the target by some distance measure (i.e. minimized some cost function)
2. The QNN reflect one or more basic neural computing mechanisms
3. Must be based on quantum effects: superposition, entanglement and/or interference



$n$  qubits and one "special" qubit  $|a\rangle$

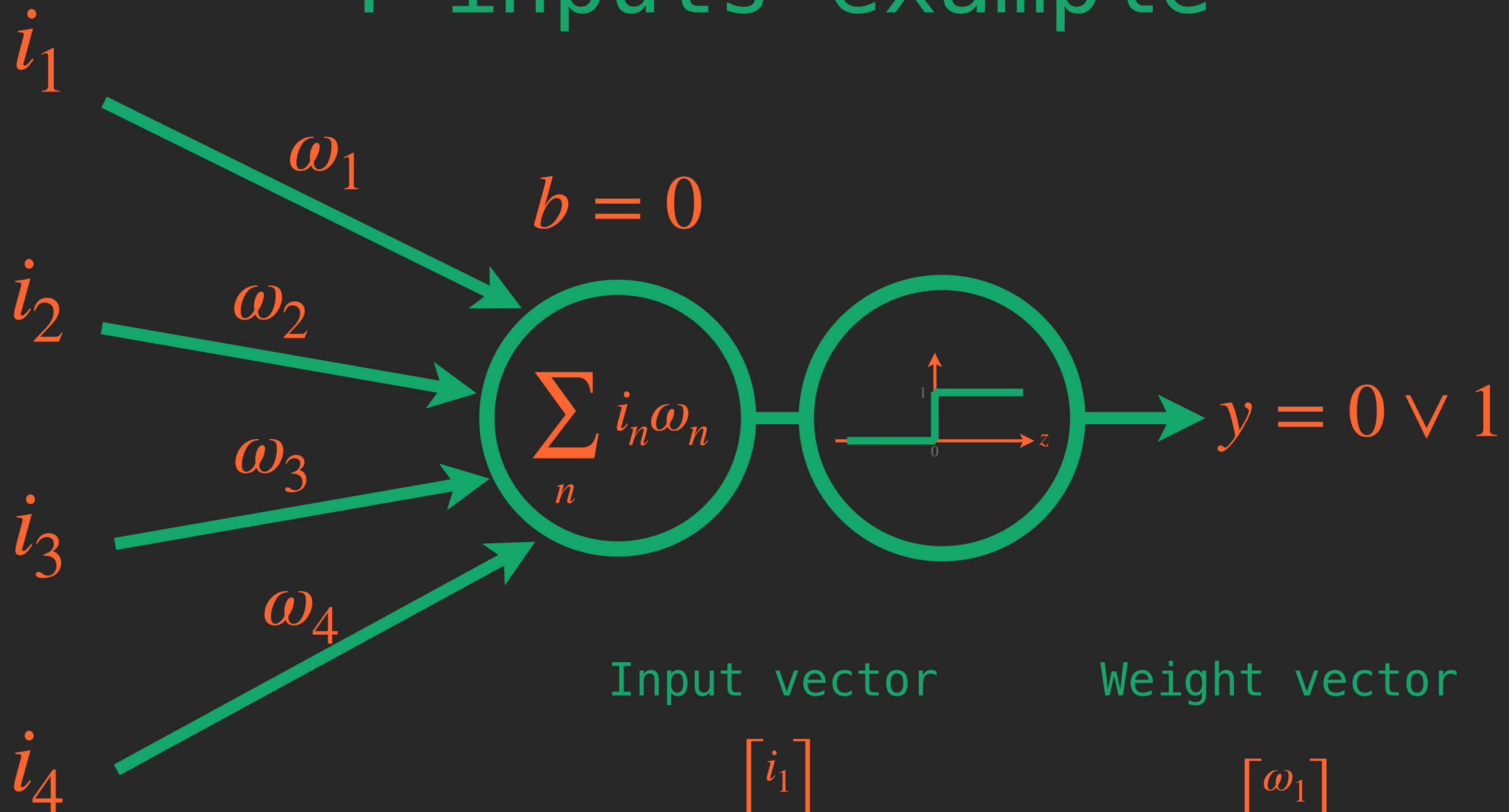
Tune parameters  $\theta = \{\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_L\}$  such that measurement outcome is the desired one

Key power of neural networks comes from  
non-linear activation functions

All operators in quantum mechanics are linear  
except measurement

Focus on one particular  
implementation using  
measurement as activation

# 4 inputs example



Input vector

Weight vector

$$\vec{i} = \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ i_3 \\ i_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{\omega} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \\ \omega_3 \\ \omega_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

We will now implement a quantum equivalent to this classical neuron



Input vector

$$\vec{i} = \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ i_3 \\ i_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Weight vector

$$\vec{\omega} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \\ \omega_3 \\ \omega_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

McCulloch–Pitts neuron:  $i_n, \omega_n \in \{-1, 1\}$

$$|\psi_i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} \sum_{n=1}^4 i_n |n\rangle$$

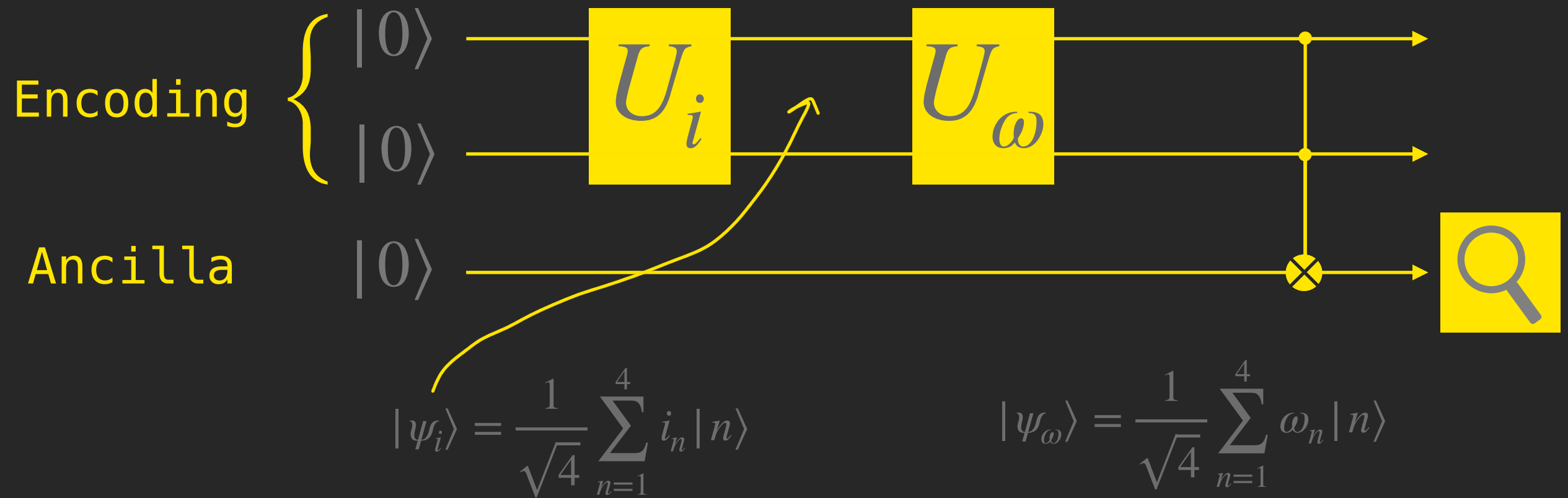
$$|\psi_\omega\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} \sum_{n=1}^4 \omega_n |n\rangle$$

$$|n\rangle \in \{ |00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle \}$$

$$|\psi_i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} (i_1 |00\rangle + i_2 |01\rangle + i_3 |10\rangle + i_4 |11\rangle)$$

$$|\psi_\omega\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} (\omega_1 |00\rangle + \omega_2 |01\rangle + \omega_3 |10\rangle + \omega_4 |11\rangle)$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} |\psi_i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} (i_1 |00\rangle + i_2 |01\rangle + i_3 |10\rangle + i_4 |11\rangle) \\ |\psi_\omega\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} (\omega_1 |00\rangle + \omega_2 |01\rangle + \omega_3 |10\rangle + \omega_4 |11\rangle) \end{array} \right\} 4\langle\psi_\omega|\psi_i\rangle = \vec{i} \cdot \vec{\omega}$$

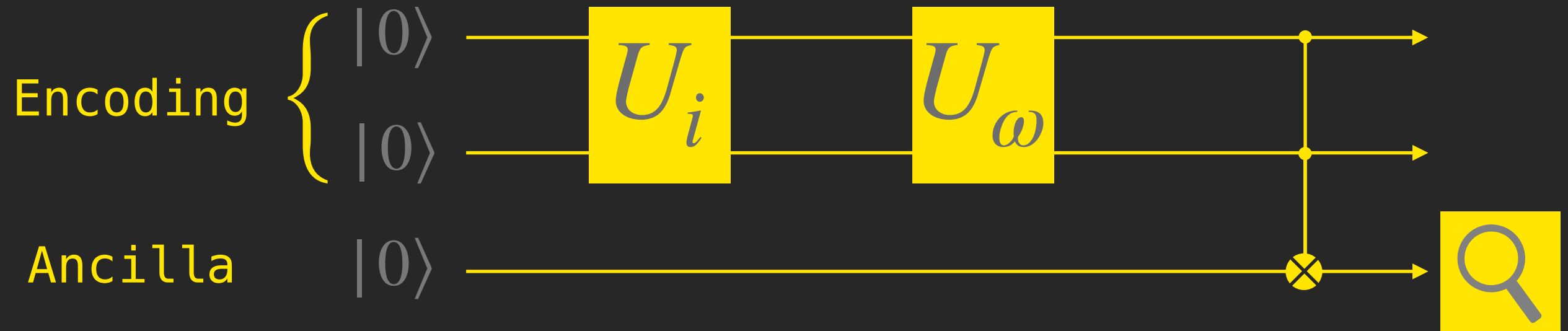


$U_i$  prepares input vector

$$U_i |00\rangle = |\psi_i\rangle$$

Any unitary of the form

$$U_i = \begin{bmatrix} i_1 & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ i_2 & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ i_3 & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ i_4 & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix} |00\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$|\psi_i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} \sum_{n=1}^4 i_n |n\rangle$$

$$|\psi_\omega\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} \sum_{n=1}^4 \omega_n |n\rangle$$

$U_i$  prepares input vector

$$U_i |00\rangle = |\psi_i\rangle$$

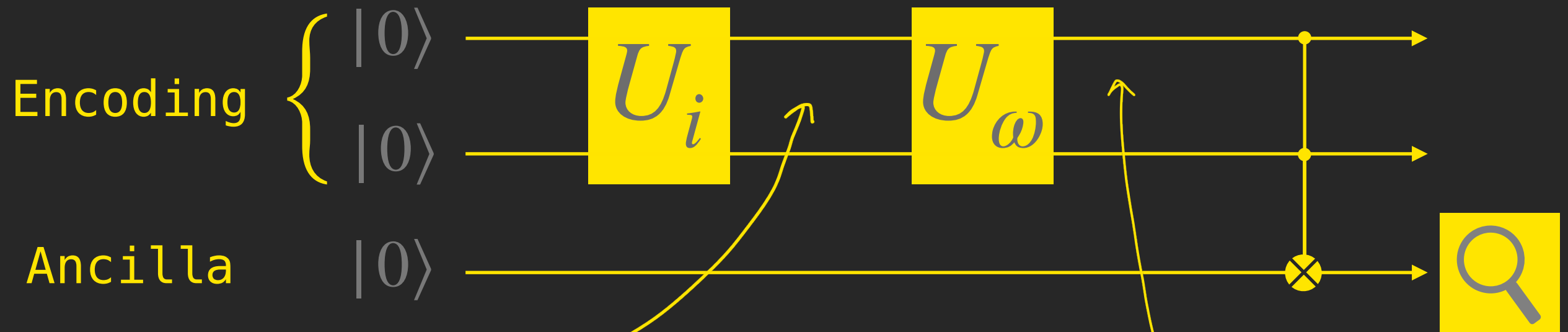
Any unitary of the form

$U_\omega$  projects weight vector

$$U_\omega |\psi_\omega\rangle = |11\rangle$$

$$U_\omega = \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \omega_3 & \omega_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U_i |00\rangle = |\psi_i\rangle \quad U_\omega |\psi_\omega\rangle = |11\rangle$$



Prepared input

$$|\psi_i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} \sum_{n=1}^4 i_n |n\rangle$$

Some new wave function

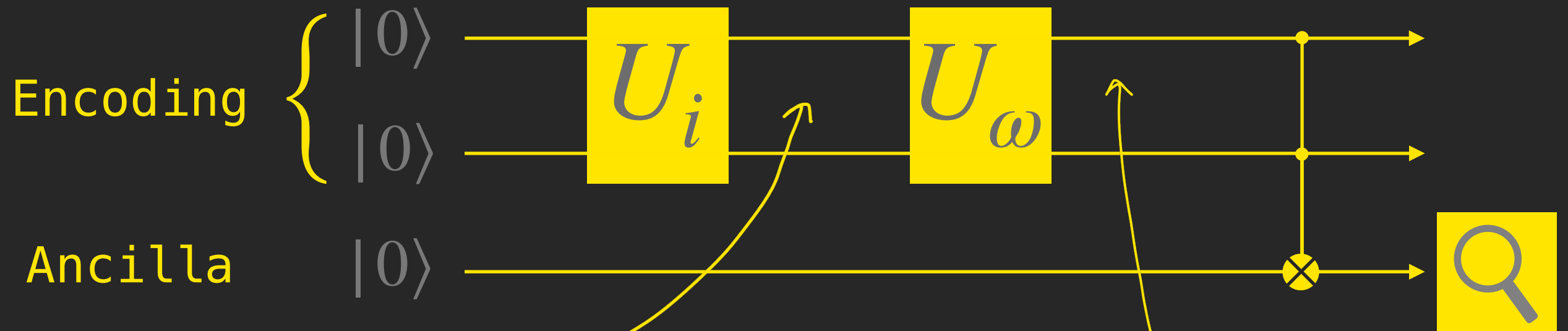
$$U_\omega |\psi_i\rangle \equiv |\phi_{i,\omega}\rangle = \sum_{n=1}^4 c_n |n\rangle$$

$$|\phi_{i,\omega}\rangle = c_1 |00\rangle + c_2 |01\rangle + c_3 |10\rangle + c_4 |11\rangle$$

$$\frac{\vec{i} \cdot \vec{\omega}}{4} = \langle \psi_\omega | \psi_i \rangle = \langle \psi_\omega | U_\omega^\dagger U_\omega | \psi_i \rangle = \langle 11 | \phi_{i,\omega} \rangle = c_4$$

Inner product of input and weight vector has been encoded in  $c_4$

$$U_i |00\rangle = |\psi_i\rangle \quad U_\omega |\psi_\omega\rangle = |11\rangle$$



Prepared input

$$|\psi_i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} \sum_{n=1}^4 i_n |n\rangle$$

Some new wave function

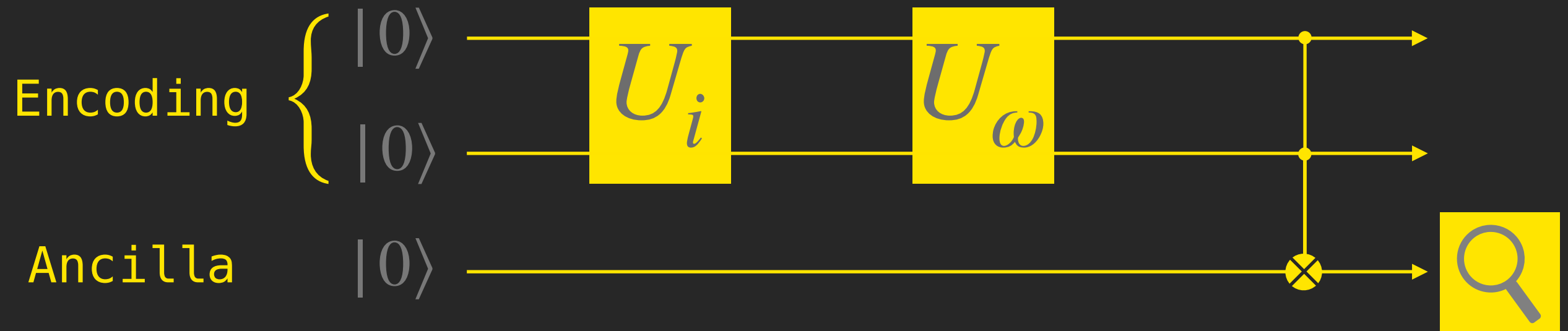
$$U_\omega |\psi_i\rangle \equiv |\phi_{i,\omega}\rangle = \sum_{n=1}^4 c_n |n\rangle$$

$$|\phi_{i,\omega}\rangle |0\rangle = c_1 |000\rangle + c_2 |010\rangle + c_3 |100\rangle + c_4 |110\rangle$$

*CNOT* ↓

$$|out\rangle = c_1 |000\rangle + c_2 |010\rangle + c_3 |100\rangle + c_4 |111\rangle$$

$$U_i |00\rangle = |\psi_i\rangle \quad U_\omega |\psi_\omega\rangle = |11\rangle$$



$$|out\rangle = c_1 |000\rangle + c_2 |010\rangle + c_3 |100\rangle + c_4 |111\rangle$$

Classical neuron is **activated** if the weighted sum of input is larger than some bias.

Probability to measure ancilla in state 1 (**activated neuron**) is proportional to the weighted sum of input

$$P_{act} = |c_4|^2 = \frac{|\sum_n^4 i_n \omega_n|^2}{4^2}$$

$$\vec{i} \cdot \vec{\omega} = 4 \langle \psi_\omega | \psi_i \rangle = 4c_4$$

If  $\vec{i} \parallel \vec{\omega}$  the probability of activation is **1**

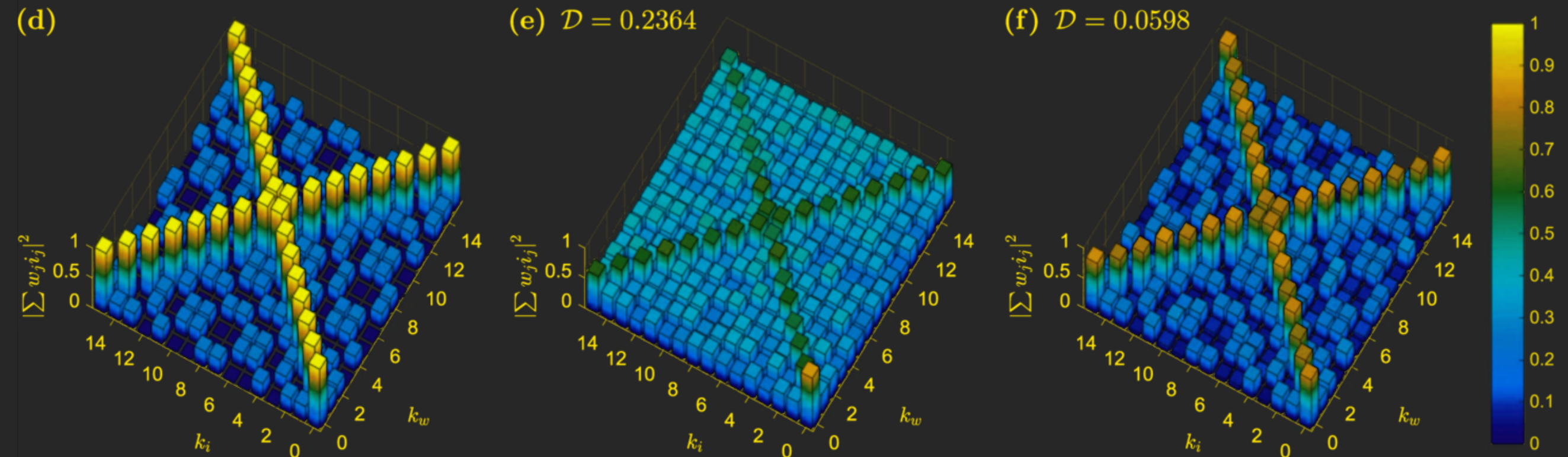
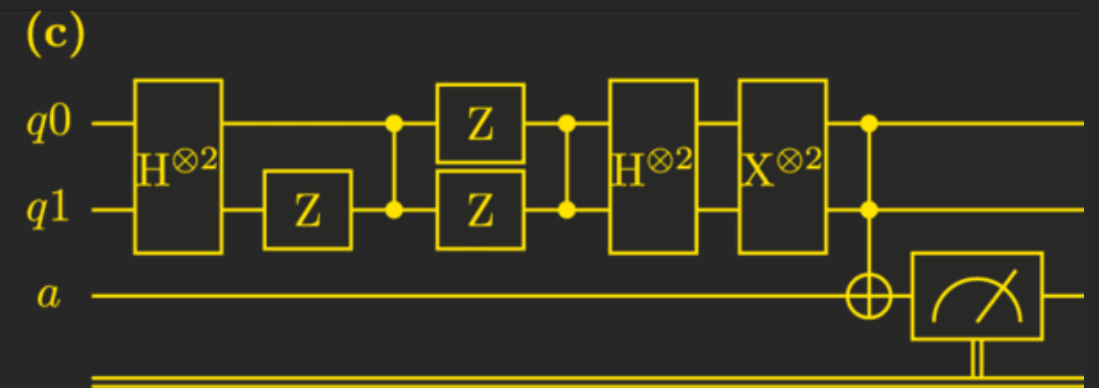
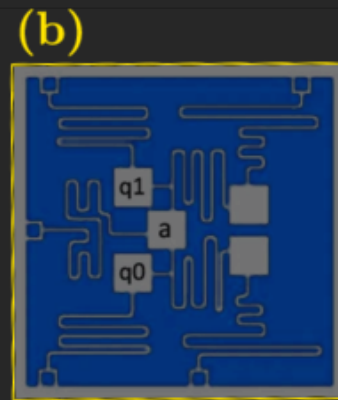
$$\vec{i} = \vec{\omega}$$

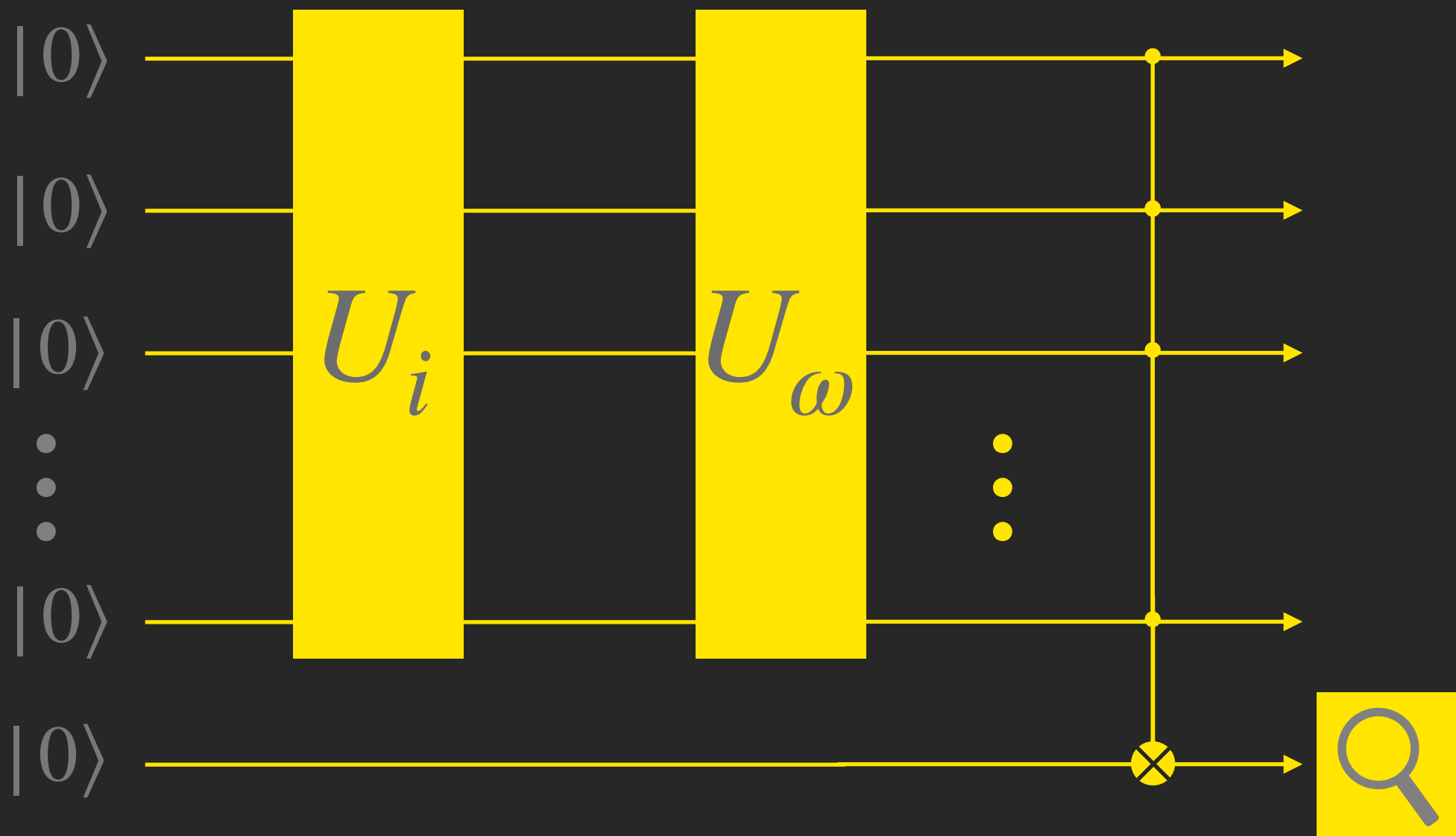
$$\vec{i} = -\vec{\omega}$$

# Pattern recognition

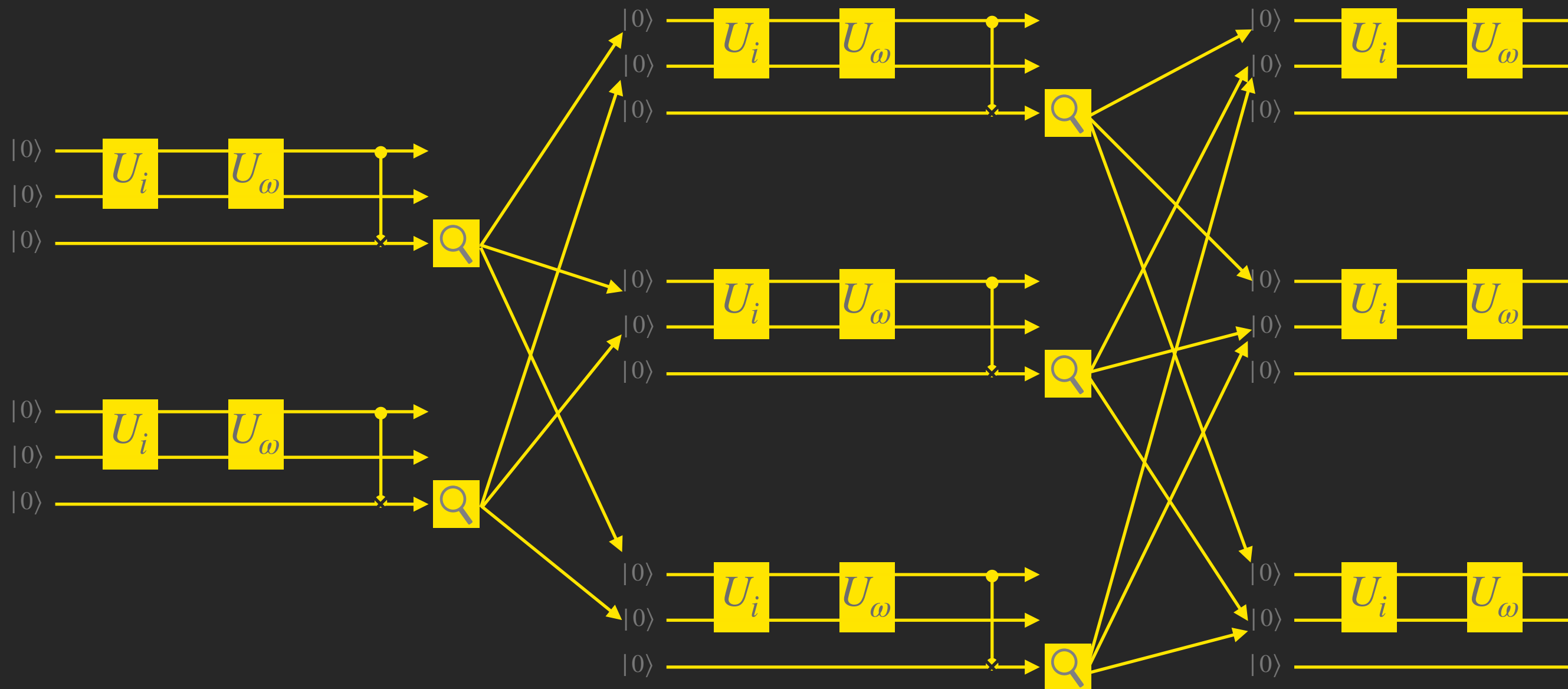
$$\vec{i} = \begin{bmatrix} \pm 1 \\ \pm 1 \\ \pm 1 \\ \pm 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{\omega} = \begin{bmatrix} \pm 1 \\ \pm 1 \\ \pm 1 \\ \pm 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$4^2 = 16$  different possible vectors









Every measurement destroys quantum effects  
→ classical propagation of probabilities

So this essentially becomes a classical network  
→ no quantum benefits

# Another QNN

Implemented on simulator

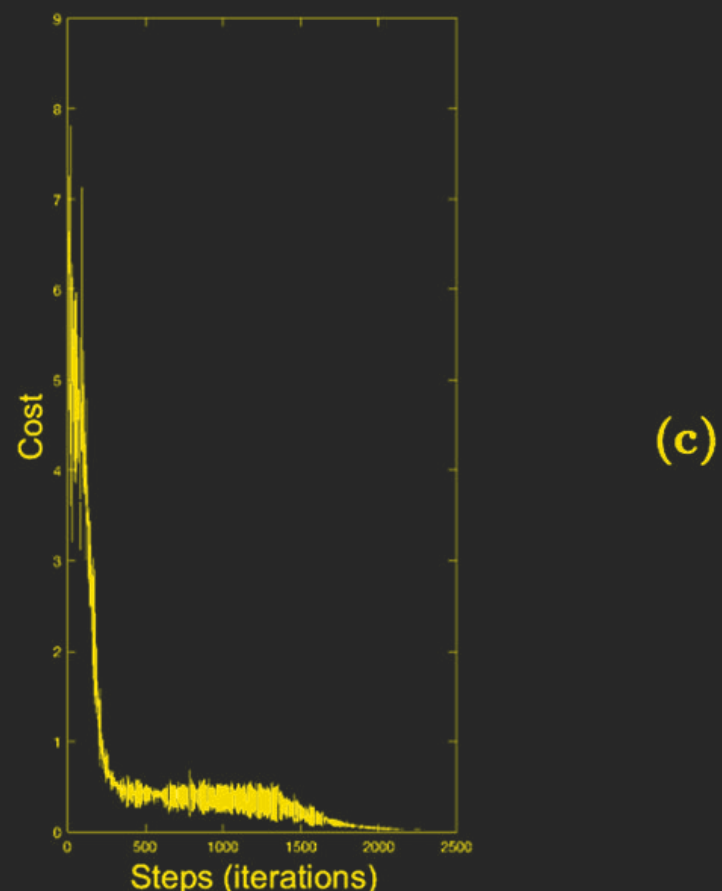
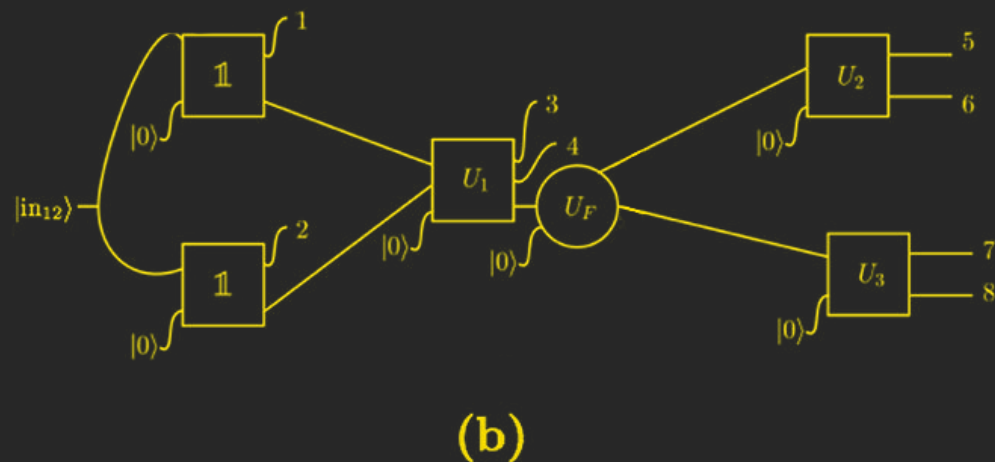
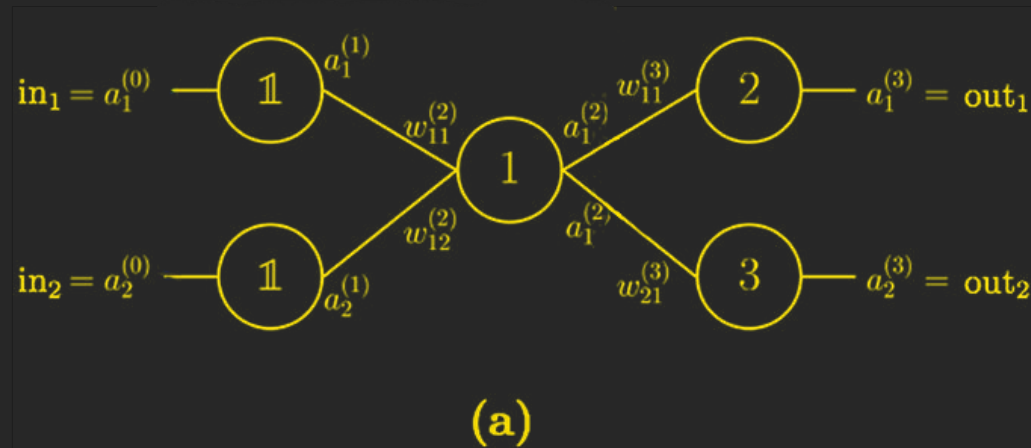
Distribute quantum states using “fan-out” operator

Classically updates operators by using gradient decent

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta}$$

This gradient is very difficult to experimentally access

And  $\theta$  grows polynomially with number of qubits



“A key type of quantum supremacy is that the quantum network can take and process quantum inputs: it can for example process  $|+\rangle$  and  $|-\rangle$  differently.”

Wan, Kwok Ho, et al. "Quantum generalisation of feedforward neural networks." *npj Quantum Information* 3.1 (2017): 36.

“Based on our numerics we cannot make a case for any quantum advantage over classical competitors for supervised learning.”

Farhi, Edward, et al. "Classification with quantum neural networks on near term processors." *arXiv preprint arXiv:1802.06002* (2018).

“As a conclusion, QNN research has not found a coherent approach yet and none of the competing ideas can fully claim to be a QNN model according to the requirements set here.”

Schuld, Maria, et al. "The quest for a quantum neural network." *Quantum Information Processing* 13.11 (2014): 2567–2586.

# Conclusion and outlook

Neural networks and quantum computers are individually powerful concepts

No clear and natural reason to merge the two

Fundamental difference between non-linear NN and linear quantum mechanics difficult to reconcile

More work required to find eventual benefit:  
very young field